

The Importance of English Language Learning and Teaching in South Korea

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Abstract

This research investigates the impact of rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn English language on the way English language is taught and learnt in Korea. The research is framed around two questions, using qualitative data in a discursive manner (Holstein & Gubrium, 2005). Qualitative and interpretive methods were applied in this research. The research examined the various influential actors involved with English language learning and teaching in Korea such as the methods of learning and teaching English language in Korea, and policy makers' impact on the way English language is being taught and learnt in Korea. Professional diary entries written by the researcher during a one year English language teaching experience in Korea provided the core data for this research. Searching for support in the literature for the diary entries lead to three themes: the method of rote learning, the significance of exams, and the types of motivation to learn the English language. These three themes will be the basis for three scenarios that will offer changes to the current learning and teaching English in Korea. This research concludes with a proposed Scenario Model of Educational Policy Development. The model suggests education policy development which proposes a process of thinking about and implementing protocols and issues related to education with specific application to English language teaching and learning in the Korean context.

Student Declaration

“I, Sunny Gavran, declare that the Master by Research thesis entitled ‘The Importance of English Language Learning and Teaching in South Korea’ is no more than 60,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work”.

Signature Date

Note:

The Victoria University APA system of referencing accessed from Victoria University library requires the inclusion of authors’ initials in the in-text citation where authors of different references have the same family name.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Through an investigation of another educational system, as different as it is, we may be able to learn about our own. A better understanding of the Korean* educational system may enable Australian educators to expand their ideas, learn from others' success, possibly bring the two cultures closer and create an environment of positive educational exchange. This may be of benefit to the Australian and Korean educational systems.

While gathering data to investigate the Korean English language teaching and learning environment, two questions surfaced as being useful to explain current realities in the Korean educational system:

1. How do rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language, impact on English language teaching and learning in Korea?
2. How can we construct a new tool in education, scenario building, to explore the relevance of these themes in the Korean context?

The first question emerged from three themes identified in the researcher's diary entries that were made while teaching the English language in Korea. The second question proposes future thinking and further research in the field of education with the use of a scenario building method, which will be developed and explained in Chapter 6.

Given that this research is about education, and consequently about the people involved in and affected by educational policies and practices, issues related to ethics and research must be addressed.

Ethics

In qualitative research in education, the researcher tries to "adopt, create, and use a variety of non quantitative research methods to describe the rich interpersonal-social-cultural contexts of education more fully than quantitative research can do"(Soltis, 1989, p. 125). Qualitative researchers are involved in the processes of exploration, examination and description of people in their natural environments. As such, ethics are a concern to the researcher as they are "...the key consideration in the design of social research" (Babbie, 2007, p. 28). Ethics in research is a framework that is concerned with doing good and avoiding harm while the research takes place: "Two fundamental ethical guidelines are that participation in social research should be voluntary and that no harm should come to research subjects" (Babbie, 2007, p. 28).

* Throughout this thesis 'Korea' refers to the nation prior to the division of the country into the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea) and the Republic of Korea (South Korea) and, since this division, to the Republic of Korea (South Korea).

Therefore, institutions and governments have developed ethical frameworks to be used to alert researchers to possible problems and issues before, during and after research. These problems are related to the protection of human subjects from physical and emotional harm, protecting animal subjects from abuse, and protecting the environment in which the research is taking place.

The Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE) has developed four principles for the conduct of research in education (Bibby, 1997 pp. 116):

1. The consequences of a piece of research, including the effects on the participants and the social consequences of its publication and application, must enhance the general welfare.
2. Researchers should be aware of the variety of human goods and the variety of views on the good life, and the complex relation of education with these. They should recognise that educational research is an ethical matter, and that its purpose should be the development of human good.
3. No risk of significant harm to an individual is permissible unless either that harm is remedied or the person is of age and has given informed consent to the risk. Public benefit, however great, is insufficient justification.
4. Respect for the dignity and worth of persons and the welfare of students, research participants, and the public generally shall take precedence over self-interest of researchers, or the interests of employers, clients, colleagues or groups.

To enhance general welfare and increase human benefit, the researcher used a positive approach to develop scenarios from the findings. Positive scenarios are intellectually difficult to craft because of the challenge the scenarios face during proposed changes. “Negative scenarios are much easier – you just describe the demise of what you already know” (Ogilvy, 2006, p. 24).

The researcher informed herself about the cultural, religious, gender and other significant aspects of the research population by investigating the history of Korea in general and in particular the history of English language education in Korea. The researcher lived and worked in Korea for a year, where she resided with the local community, studied the Korean language and familiarised herself with local customs.

Critical reflection (Whittemore, Chase, & Mandle, 2001) of the researcher’s diaries and document analysis - created a monitoring tool for the research process. Possible biases were considered when the researcher analysed her diaries and the research of related documents thereafter was done in a manner that allowed both the support and the challenge of issues. Such issues were the social influences and historical background that led to the investments made to learn the English language in Korea. This was also noted when considering the Korean education ministry’s policies that affect the way that English is taught and expected to be taught in Korea, as well as the desired outcomes of such investments and policies.

The researcher agrees that: “As qualitative researchers engaged in contemporary practice, we accept that the researcher is a central figure who influences, if not

actively constructs, the collection, selection and interpretation of data” (Finlay, 2002, p. 210). Therefore the researcher is subject to the biases that might have taken place during the course of the research, whether during her experiences in Korea or through the analysis of relevant documents. The reduction of biases in the research was through use of the method of ‘Theoretical Validity’ in which the researcher “... spend(s) a sufficient amount of time studying [her] research participants and their setting so that [she] can have confidence that the patterns of relationship [she] believe(s) are operating are stable and so that [he] can understand why these relationships occur”(Johnson, 1997, p. 286).

Throughout the year spent in Korea, the researcher took reflective notes and made diary entries in her personal diary at different times of the day and different times of the year while witnessing the activities undertaken by the students in the researcher’s school and in similar schools. As Mays and Pope (1995) mentioned, the collection of data directly from the researcher’s experiences should be done in the manner that was followed by the researcher in Korea. They suggest that the time spent with the participants of the research, in this case Korean students learning English, should be adequate to create an environment of trust in which the researcher will be able to “become thoroughly familiar with the milieu under scrutiny” (p.111). Diary entry 11 (D11) in page 72 provides an example of this type of trust being built between the students and the researcher. In addition, diary entry 12 (D12) in page 73 which was written at the end of the researcher’s year of employment in Korea, provided evidence of the facilitation of conversations with her Korean students. This conversation depended on the Korean students and their teacher to have known each other for almost a year and the students felt able to confide in the researcher when telling her about their ambitions (Choi, 1997).

In this research, the researcher is aware of the general and specific principles of ethical frameworks related to her qualitative research. As noted above the researcher was aware of possible biases while reviewing and analysing documents. Even though this research did not directly involve human participants, the researcher is aware of the need for ethical values and principles in any research conducted in any field. She did not dismiss ethical processes and was mindful that all research should be conducted for the benefit of society. The following section will indicate this last point.

Significance of study

A deeper and more critical understanding of Korean students’ educational experiences in regard to the learning of English may allow for the creation of a more stimulating learning environment.

Additionally, with the Australian Government’s \$62.4 million National Asian Languages and Studies in Schools Program (NALSSP), which commenced on 1 January 2009, the relevance of this research has deepened (Deputy Prime Minister's Press Office, 2009). Along with China, Indonesia and Japan, Korea is one of four Asian countries to be focused on through this funding which aims to boost the study of Asian languages and understanding of Asian cultures to further develop Australia’s ability to engage with the Asian region.

Koreans seem to have a unique fascination to learn English as evidenced by the efforts and finances invested. Through the analysis of the reasons why Koreans learn English as a foreign language we might be able to improve our understanding of teaching and learning of English as an additional language in Australia. The specific Korean approach to English language learning is examined in this research through the different stages of development of approaches to language learning in general. This practice connects cultural aspects with language teaching and learning, the influence of culture on language teaching and learning and vice versa, and the learner/teacher relationship under the constraints of Korean cultural and educational policies.

The diarised Korean experiences of the researcher followed by document analysis formed the basis for the development of the scenario model presented as part of a conclusion to this research. The model proposes an academic environment in which the participating actors communicate with one another on a regular basis, creating a flow of ideas and information that assists development and improvement of the academic learning environment for the benefit of all participants.

Through the Korean context of English language learning and teaching, the research is trying to provide insights into some of the core issues related to language pedagogy, for example the dilemma of the development of linguistic competence or language performance. Linguistic competence calls attention to the knowledge of grammatical structures and vocabulary (Chomsky, 1968), while language performance relates to the use of the language as a communicative tool in different social situations for a range of purposes (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). The research tries to provide a parallel between the pedagogical implications created by the distinction between linguistic competence and language performance and its existence in the practices of English language teaching and learning in Korea. To be able to succeed in that, evidence of dichotomous pedagogies in the Korean academic environment was searched for in primary and secondary documents and in diary entries made by the researcher.

From the analysis of the data and the scenario building process in Chapter 5 a scenario model was developed in Chapter 6, to offer a possible working environment which might be able to overcome the difficulties in teaching and learning the English language in Korea and elsewhere.

Given that this thesis examines how rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn English impact on English language teaching and learning in Korea, analysis of English language teaching and learning practices will be investigated next. The significance of the English language in Korean society is of paramount importance to this research as it lays the basis to understand its importance to Koreans. As such, in the next section the status of the English language in general, and in Korean society in particular is explored.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This literature review attempts to give background to the development of English language education in Korea, the structure of the Korean educational system and the evolution of the ‘official’ Korean curriculum. Particular attention is given to events in Korean history and their implications for English language education in Korea. Topics under consideration are the relationships between English language education, social status and economic mobility in Korea, the English language private ‘market’ and the levels of the oral communicative ability of Koreans in English. These aspects will be discussed from the perspective of the teaching and learning of English in a ‘foreign’ context. An overview of approaches to English language teaching (ELT) will be given to facilitate a broad understanding of the approaches available in general and in the Korean context in particular. Research of models of education and curriculum in the Korean context is done to understand the formulation of curriculum and background for the scenario building process that will be undertaken later.

The knowledge gathered in this Chapter will contribute to the understanding of the impact that rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language have on English language teaching and learning in Korea. Also, this knowledge will influence the process of understanding how we can construct a new tool, scenario building, to explore the relevance of these themes in the Korea context.

General Educational Background of Korean Region

Initially a general background to the development of educational practices and policies will be given to understand the social influences that provided for the three themes: rote learning, national examination and types of motivation to learn the English language and their impact on English language teaching and learning in Korea. This information will also be beneficial in the construction of the three scenarios that will follow and to enhance understanding of constructing a new tool in education, scenario building, to explore the relevance of these themes in the Korean context.

Geographically, the Korean peninsula is between two cultural ‘giants’, China in the West and Japan in the East. This unique position has influenced Korea’s education system in the past and present and probably will in the future.

Historically, the Korean formal education ‘system’ started in 372 during the Goguryeo Kingdom (37BCE - 668 AD) when the Great School or Daehak (in Korean 대학) was established. The curriculum was based on Confucian teachings with a later addition of Buddhist philosophies. As an entrance examination for civil service was introduced, schools were opened in Korea to prepare students from higher social strata for the exam.

The Brotherhood of Nations, a Confucian model for regional politics, was in power during the 15th to the 19th Centuries. In this model, China operated as the 'big brother' to its neighbouring smaller 'younger' nations, Japan and Korea. The 'young' nations would respect and be loyal to the 'older' brother and send an envoy to China to prove their loyalty and devotion. Since China was bigger in its military and geographical size- this model was accepted by all participating countries (INSTROK, 2002).

In 1839, Britain and China declared war between them... “- After unsuccessfully attempting to trade various goods with the Chinese, the British merchants devised a three-way trading system, where British goods would be traded in India for opium and then the opium traded to the Chinese” (INSTROK, 2002).

China lost the war and in 1842 after centuries of ruling the region and “... (The Chinese) were forced into the first of continual line of unequal treaties with Western powers” (INSTROK, 2002). Two years later, Japan was forced into unequal treaties and the Brotherhood of Nations dissolved completely in the 1860s. Korea did not change its policy of national isolation until Japan sent a military expedition to Korea for the first time in history. This was mainly because of fear of being detached and vulnerable to attacks from the mainland by the United States (US) or Russia should one of these two nations try to annex Korea and its strategic position. This act concluded with the Kanhwa Treaty of 1876 between Korea and Japan and was the first foreign trade agreement for Korea. China on the other hand 'persuaded' Korea to open its ports to Western merchants, as it did not want Japan to have a monopoly on trade. The ruling and literati classes in Korea were anti-West and advised King Kojong to decline the Chinese request.

After the failure of an anti- King Kojong coup and the help of China to restore his rule, Korea agreed to China's request to open its ports to the US, however Korea requested the US to end the Korean sovereign relationship with China In 1882, the US and Korea signed a treaty, which established Korea's independence from China.

The End of the 19th Century - The Beginning of English Language Education in Korea

English language education appeared in Korea only after Korea had signed the treaty with the US in 1882 when missionaries and traders moved into Korea. The Korean government introduced English language education to the country when it opened an all boys' English school for interpreters (Tongmunhak) in Seoul in 1883 after the opening of a similar school in China in 1862. The 29 students of this school worked in government offices where English was most needed to communicate with the new US traders. However the school was closed in 1886 when the Royal School of English was founded in Seoul, which employed some of the students from Tongmunhak.

The Royal school of English was pivotal to ELT in many ways. First, it was an official institute with the prime objective to teach Koreans the English language with the intention of opening Korea to the outside world. Nevertheless, English was taught as a language for specific purposes

“Soon as the students mastered the basics, they began to read textbooks on science and engineering: the major concern for the young modern-minded Korean of that era” (Lankov, 2007).

Second, the school decided to employ native English speakers from America to teach at the school and by doing this laid the foundations to what was to become the “hagwan” (institute) phenomena, where private and public schools hire native English speakers as teachers.

The governmental welcome the missionaries received after the US-Korea treaty was transformed into opening private English language schools. To evangelise was illegal so the schools operated under the guise of a missionary enterprise. The first of them was Paichai School which was opened in 1885 by Reverend Henry Appenzeller. Qualified Korean teachers were difficult to find, so the school had to use the missionaries as teachers and hence the language of instruction in the school was English. The women’s Ewha School for Girls (later changed to Ewha University which still operates today) was founded by Mary Scranton in 1886 and faced the same problem with hiring teachers to teach in Korean. Until the early 1900s Ewha could not find enough qualified Korean teachers.

In other areas of Korean society the English language started to show its presence. Seo Jaepil, a reformist who went to America for medical studies, returned to Korea in 1896 and established the first English language newspaper, ‘The Independent’. The newspaper was the publication of the Independence Club, which included one member, Syngman Rhee, who was later to become the first Korean president.

The Japanese Colonial Period

During the years of Japanese colonialism (1905-1945) the English language played an important role for both the colonisers and the Koreans. Each side used the English language newspapers to glorify its actions. The Japanese occupiers published their actions in a positive light and the Koreans voiced their frustration with the occupation. However, between 1905 and 1910, the Japanese government decreed the Japanese language as the official language. As a result, they closed all the language schools the Korean government had built and cultivated in previous years, with the exception of some private missionary schools (Kim-Rivera, 2002).

In 1910 Korea was declared a colony of Japan with Japanese as the national language. Education institutions were strictly controlled by the Japanese and were modelled on the school design in Japan. In 1919, the Japanese made changes to ease the pressure on schools by opening joint schools for Koreans and Japanese, eg. Kyongsong Imperial University, which allowed foreign languages to be taught.

English had become a mandatory subject in secondary schools, universities and professional schools. To maintain a proscribed education, English language teachers’ courses were offered to Koreans.

These colonial ‘golden years’ of English, where the English language was part of Korean academic life, did not last and in 1936 the ruling Japanese general declared a Japanese-language only policy. When the Sino-Japanese war broke out in 1937,

the Korean education system had been forcefully transformed into a means for the creation of ‘loyal’ subjects of the Great Empire, Japan.

...in July 1942, when the Bureau of Education officially instructed Ewha to use Japanese as the daily language on campus as well as the instructional language, the school was forced to reorganise its personnel and to increase the number of Japanese-ethnic instructors

(Kim-Rivera, 2002, p. 268).

Students who used Korean in or out of classrooms were either given lower grades or punished. Missionary schools were facing an ideological dilemma as they were forced to comply with the worship of the Japanese emperor in the Shinto shrines and were forbidden to teach the Bible or to conduct any religious activities. The Catholics and Methodists continued to practise the Shinto rituals as ‘patriotic events’ while the Presbyterians decided differently:

“The Mission Headquarters of the U.S. Northern Presbyterian Church announced a complete halt of financial support for Korean schools and withdrawal of missionaries in May 1938”(Kim-Rivera, 2002, p. 269).

With the involvement of Japan in the Second World War, an urgent need for personnel and materials arose and the mobilisation of people from the colony of Korea to the battlefields began. For example, in May 1943, students from the Seoul region who were in private schools were sent to help dredge a reservoir, and other students were sent to work in factories. As a result, classes were unable to be maintained and many of them were discontinued, until finally, in March 1945, all classes in the Seoul region were suspended.

An anti-US, hence anti-English language campaign took place as part of the attempts to force missionaries out of Korea. The missionary schools had been negatively affected by the 1939 government move for reduction in the number of English classes in middle schools and the removal of English as a subject from the university entrance exams.

By 1942, following an order given in 1940, all missionaries and other US citizens in Korea were to be expelled, while their schools were to operate under Japanese administration without English language education.

The Korean War 1950 - 1953

When the US landed on the Korean peninsula in 1950, they had little knowledge of Korean language or culture and thus relied on interpreters. The ability to communicate with the new authority was probably an opportunity for the English-speaking Koreans to use the English language for favourable relationships. The US army was the only source of goods coming into Korea and in the wake of severe shortages Koreans saw the US as their only hope for survival:

Koreans therefore attached themselves to Americans by any means necessary, hoping against hope to get to America—uniformly conceived as a country where the streets were

paved with gold, a fabulous PX in the sky. This is by no means an exaggeration, since the American post exchanges were the main supply line for the Korean black market and since the American military commander controlled the entire US aid Program from 1951 to 1959.

(Cumings, 1997, p. 304).

From 1953 until 1987 Korea was under an authoritarian government although it was officially a Western-style democracy. In 1987 the first 'real' democratic elections took place and Korea the country started to form what could be considered more normal democratic institutions.

Part of the American presence in Korea was the launch of American Forces Korea Network, AFKN Radio and AFKN-TV, in the 1950s. Although these broadcasts were intended to entertain the Americans posted on the peninsula, they were popular amongst the Koreans and they were broadcast throughout Korea via satellite communication systems and not solely into the military bases.

The popularity of AFKN Radio and AFKN-TV was ubiquitous among Korean students. Every university in Korea during the mid to late 1970s had AFKN-TV English language learning extracurricular clubs (Prey, 2005). A magazine published English language learning tips for programs before airing on AFKN-TV, and a booklet was produced with an audio-tape containing an English/Korean script for the comedy "Rhoda"(AFK Korea). This popularity contributed to the number of Koreans going to the US to study English (Prey, 2005).

As the ability to understand American English was essential to succeed in an American university, the TOEFL exam was introduced in the mid-1980s. Many Korean students were going to the US to study and needed to pass this test before they could be accepted into US educational institutions. Doing well in a TOEFL exam was the first indicator for Korean students of their possible success overseas (Prey, 2005).

The Seoul Olympics and its Influence on Koreans to Study English

The Korean government had promoted learning the English language since the mid-1980s as a result of two major factors (Baik, 1992; Lee, et al., 2010). The first was the return of many US-educated Koreans which started in the mid 1960s. These returnees, who fled Korea during the Korean War, were a part of a newly evolving social power stratum. They were in government positions and were shaping the shift of Korea from a production economy based on manufacturing to a knowledge economy based on education for new technological innovations particularly in the communications sector.

The second followed the 1981 announcement of Seoul as the host of the 1988 Olympic Games. The expected influx of foreigners to Korea for the 1988 Olympic Games and the TV exposure of Korea the country and the Korean people highlighted for Koreans the importance of the English language. It was the first time for the Korean nation to show itself to the world as an educated, advanced and

sophisticated society. Having ‘good’ English language proficiency meant being part of the developed world (Collins, 2005; Lee, Han, & McKerrow, 2010; Park, 2009).

Koreans understood that it was not enough to have a ‘good’ hold of receptive English skills (listening, reading) but that it is also important to have a ‘good’ hold of productive English language skills (speaking, writing). English education in Korea was based on the translation of texts from Korean to English and English to Korean, a method that was practiced since Japanese colonialism and method that has been practiced since classical times. An emphasis on oral communication in the English language emerged during the lead up to the 1988 Olympic games and influenced the changes in the official school curriculum in the 1990s (Baik, 1992). A more thorough explanation of these ‘grammar translation’ and oral communication ELT methods will be given later in the section ‘Approaches to English Language Teaching’.

The encouragement to study English was evidenced in a 1982 public speech by Chun Doo-hwan, the former military dictator of Korea. He said that Koreans must follow other Asian countries and send their children to study overseas. This speech marks the official ‘beginning’ of the phenomenon of Koreans studying English overseas (Prey, 2005). A more recent public speech by President Lee (Lee, et al., 2010 p.337) continued the government encouragement of English language learning in Korea by saying “Those countries with the people who speak English well in the non-English speaking countries, compared to those with their people who don’t use English well, live far better...” (p.338). This political influence to learn the English language is evident in the evolution of Korean curriculum as discussed in the next section.

The Korean Curriculum - Constructing the System

After World War II a radical change occurred in the existing traditional education system in Korea (Seth, 2002). In 1949 The Educational Law transformed the previous educational system into a national, government funded school system.

The objectives of Korea's education are, under the ideal of hongik-ingan [contributing to the overall benefit of humankind — the founding spirit of the first kingdom in Korean history], to assist all people in perfecting their individual character, to develop the ability to achieve an independent life and acquire the qualifications of democratic citizens, and to be able to participate in the building of a democratic state and promoting the prosperity of all humankind”

(Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2002).

A special educational enactment under a war situation was announced in 1950 and in 1951 the new school system of 6-3-3-4 was implemented. This new system comprised of six years of elementary school, three years of middle school, three years of high school and four years of university.

Today, the Korean school system has a 6-3-3-4 pattern, with the first 9 years being mandatory while high schools are divided into academic and vocational streams. The academic year has 220 school days in 34 weeks. This academic year is divided into two semesters the first starting on the 1st of March and ending on the 31st of August and the second from 1st of September up to the end of February. This school system indicates the stages students have to go through in their pursuit of tertiary education. As the requirements of the university entrance examinations are a major factor in English language education in Korea, it might be helpful to note the overall academic structure in Korea. This should give an overview of the academic journey a Korean student ‘travel’ in order to achieve a university degree.

Creating the Korean Curriculum

The Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MOE) is the government department responsible for the formulation and implementation of the policies related to academic activities, science and public education.

The MOE is in charge of formal and lifelong education, setting academic standards, and formulating and implementing education policy. The Regional Office of Education is responsible for primary and middle school education as well as adult and continuing education. The MOE consists of three offices and four bureaus: Planning and Management Office, Primary and Secondary Education Office, Higher Education Office, Education Policy Planning Bureau, Local Education Administration Bureau, Lifelong Administration Bureau, Lifelong Education Bureau, and Educational Information Management Bureau.

(OECD, 1998 p.20)

The Ministry of Education (MOE) states that it designs the curriculum in order to maintain equal and quality opportunities for all Korean citizens. The MOE determines the benchmarks for school curricula and the time allocated to these curricula with only minor opportunities for differentiation at the regional and local levels. Textbooks are developed in accordance with the curricula and are divided into three rankings:

1. Texts with copyrights held by the MOE.
2. Texts authorized by MOE but published by private publishers.
3. Texts that are MOE recognized as relevant and useful.

English and mathematics textbooks are structured for different learning levels and learning stages, while the textbooks for the Korean language, social studies and science, have incorporated enhancements and supplementary content for students to choose. This student centred approach to the compilation of textbooks, indicated the desire of the MOE in the current Korean curriculum to cater for student’s self-directed learning capacities and creativity as well as being able to be adjusted to different school levels. The total number of textbooks published according to the current Korean curriculum for use in kindergartens, primary schools, middle

schools, secondary schools, and special schools is 721 national textbooks and 1,575 authorized textbooks (International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework Internet Archive, 2008).

The first South Korean curriculum was introduced in 1955 and has been revised 6 times since then (International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework Internet Archive, 2008). The curriculum remains centralised with revision cycles of 6-10 years. As a result the curriculum has been influenced by political changes. For instance, the Second Curriculum appeared after a military revolution in 1960. The Third Curriculum came after an amendment of the national constitution which concerned the maintenance of the then military dictator's long-term rule. The Fourth Curriculum was established after the assassination of the former military president and another military officer took power. Finally the initiation of a democratic government in 1992 prompted the Sixth Curriculum. The current Seventh curriculum was prompted by the desire of the Korean Ministry of Education:

...to loosen the rigid and centralised curriculum framework. Specifically, teachers are encouraged to be directly and actively involved in the decision and planning process for the curriculum. Local offices of education and schools should establish systematic and concrete guidelines for the organisation and implementation of the curriculum and develop individualised guidelines which are customised for local needs and circumstances.

(International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework Internet Archive, 2011)

This process of revision demonstrates the ingenuity of the authorities in the ever-changing political atmosphere in Korea and it is done in order "... to reflect new demands of the education system, emerging needs in a changing society and new frontiers of academic disciplines" (International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework Internet Archive, 2008).

The curriculum is mobilised by an ideal of Korean education, - the "Hongik Ingan" which is the ideal of being beneficial to all people (International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework Internet Archive, 2008) (Seth, 2002). This philosophical maxim is manifested in the curriculum with a diversity of subjects and the amount of instructional hours dedicated to them so that all people can benefit from education, and that the curriculum can accommodate the diverse interests of people. A common curriculum is implemented from grades one to ten while an elective-centred one is implemented in grades eleven and twelve. The idea of diversity is expressed by allowing students to select from the available curriculum more appropriate studies in their last two years of secondary school with the aim to prepare them to be part of a multifarious Korean society and world citizens.

The following table indicates the development of the seven Korean curriculums. It is useful to note that the national curriculum is revised and implemented by the Curriculum Planning Division in the Korean Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). The development of a general framework or curricula for

specific subjects is done by educational research institutes, and committees of academics and specialists, which are funded by the Korean government. Research in curriculum development and assessment of students is done by the Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE). (International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Framework Internet Archive, 2008)

Table 2.1 Korean Curriculum Development

Curriculum Announced	Curriculum	Features
1 st 1954-55	Primary/Middle/High school.	Curriculum centred around school education. Ordinance on class time assignment
2 nd 1963	Primary/Middle/High school	Experiential curriculum. Chinese letters education. Military exercise.
3 rd 1973-74	Primary/Middle/High school	Curriculum focused on academic enrichment. Ethics. Korea's history. Japanese Language.
4 th 1981	Primary/Middle/High school	Emphasis on national spirit. Reduction/coordination of learning amount. Integrated curriculum management for 1 st and 2 nd year primary school.
5 th 1987-88	Primary/Middle/High school	Science high schools and arts high schools. Integrated curriculum for primary schools. New subjects: Information industry Emphasis on economics

		education. Emphasis on regional characteristics.
6 th 1992-95	Primary/Middle/High school	Improvement of organization/management system. Sharing roles among the government, region, and schools. New subjects: Computer, Environment, Russian language, Career/vocation. Specialized subjects on foreign language. Primary school English.
7 th 1997-98	Primary/Middle/High school	Curriculum centred around the students. Curriculum on basic national curriculum. Selection-based high school curriculum. Level-based curriculum. Establishment and expansion on independent activities. Objective (competence)-based curriculum. Expansion of regional and school independence.

Source: Ministry of Education & Human Development of Korea (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2002).

The Seventh Curriculum is the current curriculum (Kim, 2002). It was introduced in July 1998 and was implemented in the year 2000 for primary and secondary schools with the expansion to twelfth grade students in 2004(Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004). There is usually a time lag of two to three years between the announcement of a curriculum and its implementation in schools (Yoon, 2004).

The Seventh curriculum consists of 10 national common subjects:

- Korean Language
- Moral Education
- Social Studies
- Mathematics
- Science
- Practical Arts
- Physical Education
- Music
- Fine Arts
- Foreign Languages (including English)

Elective courses are offered in grades eleven and twelve and students have to elect a total of 72 units in each year with a total of 144 units to be completed during the last two years of secondary school. Out of the 144 units, 136 units are allocated to elective courses and 8 units are allocated to extracurricular activities.

The MOE specified its aim to create a balanced course distribution, therefore divided general electives into 5 groups:

- Humanities and Social Sciences (Korean Language, Moral Education, Social Studies)
- Science and Technology (Mathematics, Science, Technology and Home Economics)
- Arts and Physical Education (Physical Education, Music, Fine Arts)
- Foreign Languages
- General Studies (Chinese Characters and Classics, Military Training, and other general studies courses).

English education in primary schools starts in the third grade with 34 annual instructional hours, increasing to 68 annual instructional hours in the fifth and sixth grades. In the middle school there are 102 hours in the first two years with another increase in the ninth grade to 136 annual instructional hours. This time allocated for English language study is maintained during the tenth grade with added elective subjects in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Intensive elective courses in English are offered for 40 units (in comparison, mathematics intensive elective courses consist of 28 units). There are four levels of differentiation of English language courses offered from the seventh through to the tenth grades. These levels are further divided into two sub-levels creating eight levels of English education in these

grades. Students are chosen for each level according to their results in the in-school English exam.

“In principle, one instructional hour covers 40 minutes for elementary schools, 45 minutes for middle schools, and 50 minutes for high schools.” The MOE still leaves room for changes by the schools: “...The school is entitled to adjust the duration of each instructional hour depending on the weather and seasonal changes, individual school situations, the developmental level of the students, the nature of learning, and so forth” (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2002).

All these hours of English language teaching at all levels of schooling in Korea have led to an ambivalent approach of Koreans to the language and its representation in Korean society.

During the ten years from the beginning of middle school to the start of university, each Korean student spends more than 15,000 hours learning English with \$US15 billion (1.9 percent of GDP) spent on the English language private lessons and the English language proficiency tests (Jeon, 2006). These staggering numbers should mean that Koreans should rank amongst the top English language proficiency levels of speakers from English as a Foreign Language (EFL) countries in Asia. However, Koreans were rated by English speaking foreigners as the worst English communicators in a survey of twelve Asian countries’ conducted by the ‘Political and Economic Risk Consultancy’ in Hong Kong (Jeon, 2006). This means that further investigations are required to change the current situation, as it appears both unfair and irrational for Koreans to invest money, effort, and time to learn English but have these results as outcomes.

The term ‘investment’ was put by Norton (1997) as a preferable term to ‘motivation’ in second language learning as it “more accurately signals the socially and historically constructed relationship of the women [in her study] to the target language” (p. 17). Norton (1997) claims that the use of the term ‘investment’ supplies sufficient explanation of “the complex relationship between relations of power, identity, and language learning” (p. 17). The relationship second language learners develop with the social world is during the processes that involve their seeking for legitimacy to speak English (Angelil-Carter, 1997; Norton, 1997; Norton & Toohey, 2001). However, unlike Norton’s English as a second language work (1989 to date) this research focuses on Koreans who are engaged in learning English as a foreign language in Korea. Therefore the argument of Bourdieu (Bourdieu, 1977) that language can serve as ‘cultural capital’ fits the scope of this research better, as language serves as one of the social influences underpinning the contributions made by Koreans to learn English in Korea. In his writing, Bourdieu contends that “...the social value of the linguistic product ...itself plays a part in defining the speaker’s social value” (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 653). Bourdieu explains that language is not only a communicative tool for the individual but is also a means of symbolic power (Bourdieu & Thompson, 1991). Even though Norton (1995) acknowledged this concept by writing “If learners invest in a second language, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources” (Peirce, 1995, p. 17) - Bourdieu’s (Bourdieu & Thompson, 1991) view is better suited in the context of this research from the perspective of language as capital in human interaction, since it is possible to use language to

sustain or adjust the level of power people have in a socially constructed environment.

The English Language and its Representation in Korea

The replacement of the word ‘imperialism’ with ‘globalization’ (Smith, 1999) creates a complexity for English language learning in countries which were under colonial rule. As Korea was colonized by Japan for thirty-five years, and the Japanese language was imposed on Korean citizens (Kim-Rivera, 2002) as was discussed earlier, an ambivalent relationship towards the ‘imposition’ of English and the US presence in the peninsula has evolved.

The main contributors to the growing aggrieved feelings in Korea toward the US are changing demographics, Korean’s negative media image, Korean nationalism and skepticism, the presence of 37,000 US troops which undermines the Korean notion of sovereignty, as well as an increase in China’s popularity in Korean society (M. Kim, Parker. S. L., & Choi, J. Y., 2006; S. H. Kim, 2003; Park, 2007).

The generation of Koreans who experienced the Korean War and who have had emotional ties to the US as they fought together for the same cause is aging. In 2003 they occupied 21% of the Korean population. In contrast, in the same year, two thirds of Koreans were under the age of forty and therefore may have fewer emotional ties to the US (S. H. Kim, 2003). Their growing resentment of the US troops assigned in Korea and their central location in Seoul has led to calls for revision of the ‘Status of Forces Agreement’ between the two countries in order to give Korean authorities greater input about decision making and internal investigations of US troops (S. H. Kim, 2003). These resentful feelings toward the US have resulted in fear that English will subsequently create a loss of Korean language among young Koreans which in turn may generate a shift in the Korean identity. Shim (R. J. Shim, 1994) argues that the process of change, of language shift, in the Korean language, has become so advanced that words in Korean or Sino-Korean, have been replaced by English words, such as ‘goalkeeper’, ‘slipper’ and ‘ice coffee’.

A Japanese study found that when English words appear in TV commercials or programs, in newspaper advertisements or billboards, it is to lure people to think of themselves as being part of a globalized, internationalized, sophisticated and innovative community rather than to appeal to the level of their English proficiency (Haarmann, 1986). For example, Shim (1994 p.229) noted the Korean word for ‘location’ is used in English with the Korean pronunciation as *lokheisyon* and is part of movie makers’ jargon. The Korean word for ‘machine’ is changed into English with the Korean pronunciation to ‘*missing*’ to promote a sewing machine. The use of English words in these examples is to show how Koreans are thinking of themselves as part of a globalized community.

Social superiority has been widely associated with using English (Pennycook, 1998; Phillipson, 1992) and the symbolic power of English as “the dominant language in the global market” (Shin, 2006, p. 152) has taken a ubiquitous presence in Korean society (Eun, 2003). The aspiration to be part of a powerful social status is evident when 72.6% of all Korean students take private lessons in all the subjects in the curricula (Kwak, 2004) to increase the chances of employability and upward social

mobility. The effect of the expansion of institutes to provide these private lessons may be evidence of a lack of confidence in public education. Contributing to parents' distrust in public English language education were the results of the 'Test of English for International Communication' (TOEIC) taken by 272 Korean English language teachers in March 2005. Their average score was 718, far below the average 778 score of new employees of forty major Korean businesses and the 841 average score at twelve Korean public enterprises (Samsung Economic Research Institution, 2005). This indicates that Korean English language teachers need to improve their English language proficiency, may not be trained well enough at least as far as their English language skills are concerned and that they may need further professional development.

Education is a vital component to contribute to one's income and social and occupational status (Featherman & Hauser, 1978; Jencks, et al., 1972) as it increases one's probability to attain superiority, power and control in the society one lives in (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977; Bowles & Gintis, 1976). Korea is a society based on Confucian values (Park & Cho, 1995). Confucian social structure is hierarchical based on 'superiors' and 'subordinates' (Hyun, 2001; Park & Cho, 1995). This structure is evident in "Korean hierarchical social relations, such as those between ruler and subject, parent and child, and husband and wife" (Park & Cho, 1995, p. 118). Confucianism supports "strong family structure and norms of frugality, hard work, and a high valuation of education" (Sorensen, 1994, p. 11). The combination of a high value placed on education and hierarchical social structure leads to the belief that "domination is legitimated by an education that is conceived as morally transformative" and "... only education legitimizes social status" (Sorensen, 1994, p. 35). In Korea, the transition from secondary school to university is connected to social class. Chang (Chang, 2003) found Korean students and their parents are competing for academic achievement during secondary school years to enroll into one of the top three universities in Korea: Seoul National University, Korea University, and Yonsei University. These three universities are referred to as the 'SKY' universities and to attend these universities is the aspiration of Korean students and parents alike (Chang, 2003). Universities in Korea, as elsewhere, do not only operate as an academic institute, they also function to build one's future social affiliations. Graduates from the SKY universities are almost guaranteed to get a desirable job in Korea and therefore improve their upward social and economic mobility (Chang, 2003; S. Lee & Brinton, 1996).

Koreans are willing to invest time and allocate finance to learn English as they believe it can help them achieve entrance to tertiary education, higher social status, and better employment prospects. Different methods to learn the English language have been used in Korea. The next section will outline these methods and the way they are promoting language learning. In this section, the origins and progression of English language teaching and learning will be outlined.

The above factors of entrance to a desired university, higher status employment and social superiority are representations of the types of motivation to learn English. They contribute to the first research question about the impact that motivation, one of three main themes, has on English language teaching and learning in Korea.

Approaches to English Language Teaching in Korea

This section will give a review of the development of approaches to foreign language teaching in Korea. An explanation of the methods and approaches employed in Korea in English language education will examine several factors in and out of the classroom that influence practices of English language teaching. This will give some understanding of the reasons for the current choice of methods used to teach English in Korea.

In this section the terms ‘approach’, ‘method’, and ‘technique’ will be used so clarification of these terms is necessary. An approach is “a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning, and teaching. Method (is the)... overall plan for systematic presentation of language based upon a selected approach.” (H. D. Brown, 2001 pp. 14). In other words, an ‘approach’ is the practical conceptualisation of a theory or theories about language teaching and learning and a ‘method’ is the systematic application or practice of an approach. A ‘method’ determines what skills and content are needed to be learnt and in what order this is to be taught. A ‘technique’ is a classroom activity used to implement the method’s teaching plan. Many approaches have gone through much iteration and represent the development in language teaching and learning. These include the grammar-translation approach, the direct approach, the oral approach, the audiolingual approach, the cognitive approach, the affective-humanistic approach, the comprehension based approach, the natural approach, the communicative approach and the post-methods approach. These approaches and the methods associated will indicate different views about language teaching and learning and their representation or lack of representation in Korea. The following section aims to give background to Chapter 4 where the discussion and findings will outline three themes that have emerged from the diary entries and document analysis.

The questions put by Richards (Richards, 2002) are a reminder of the many unanswered questions about the ‘best’ ways to teach English and could be used for the development of approaches that already exist.

The questions raised by Richards (2002, p. 2) are:

1. What are the goals of teaching English?
2. What is the best way to teach a language?
3. What is the role of grammar in language teaching?
4. What processes are involved in second language learning?
5. What is the role of the learner?
6. How can we teach the four skills?
7. How can we assess students’ learning?
8. How can we prepare language teachers?

In the process of reviewing the main approaches to second language teaching and their development, one question emerges from the discussion of the different

approaches: What is more important, linguistic competence or communicative performance? In the following review of language methods development, this question surfaces in the shifts that have occurred in the various methods.

In the beginning of foreign language teaching, classical Greek and later Latin were the two languages which were taught as foreign languages and were used as the lingua franca in Europe until the seventeenth century. These two languages were used in higher education environments to talk and write about philosophy, religion and politics and they were also used in business (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Latin and Greek grammars became popular components of the curriculum from the fifteenth century with the invention of the printing press. A difference between spoken Latin and the written version was noted and the former was labelled as “the Latin of the common people” (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 4). However, in the sixteenth century, political changes in Europe created a need for Italian, French and English as foreign languages (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Thus, during the seventeenth century, the use of a second language became the main reason for learning a foreign language, rather than the intellectual analysis of language which had been a major feature of the study of Latin and Greek. By the nineteenth century, the grammar-translation method, which had been employed to teach Latin and Greek, was the dominant method used in schools and universities to teach modern languages throughout Europe. “The analytical grammar-translation approach became firmly entrenched, as a method for teaching not only Latin but modern languages as well” (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 4).

In Korea, a similar process occurred. At the end of the 19th century, English started to be taught in Korea using a grammar translation method. The emphasis was on written English not the communicative use of English. Once students mastered the basics of the English language they were encouraged to read academic books in the fields of science and engineering (Lankov, 2007). Instead of mastering communicative competence to be able to communicate with the traders from the US, Korean students were taught English with the aim to reach linguistic competence or knowledge about the language. At the beginning of the 20th century, and during the Japanese colonial era (1905-1945) the same emphasis was given to language teaching, English and Japanese, with the accurate translation of passages from one language to another being considered important with almost no communicative practice offered to students (Kim-Rivera, 2002). The first time there was an emphasis on communicative performance in the English language was before the hosting of the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul as explained earlier. It was not until this event did the government start promoting communicative competence. This continued in the changes it made in the curriculum in the 1990s (Baik, 1992; Prey, 2005).

The Grammar Translation Method

The grammar-translation method emphasises the study of grammar and the implementation of grammar rules while translating passages from one language to another. In this method, detailed explanations of grammar are given to the students with reading selections, which usually consist of a list of translated new vocabulary. The instruction is in the learner’s native language with almost no oral use of the target language and as a result, the learner is unable to use the target language for

oral communication (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Zimmerman, 1997).

The main methods of the grammar translation were listed by Prator and Celcia-Murcia (1979):

- The main instruction language in the classroom in the learners' native language
- Vocabulary lists are taught
- Grammar explanations are constantly given
- Grammar rules make the framework of constructing sentences
- Classical texts are taught early in the course
- The content of readings is of less importance than grammatical analysis of the readings.
- Recurrently, sentences are drilled out of context
- Pronunciation is not important

The 'grammar translation' method dominated foreign language teaching in the nineteenth century, as mentioned above, and was under constant criticism by the Reform Movement. The Reform Movement in language teaching was initiated in 1882 and included the German scholar Wilhelm Viëtor, the English linguist Henry Sweet and the Frenchman Francis Gouin among others. They believed that:

- a. Spoken language was more important than written language.
- b. Learners should be exposed to the spoken language before the written form.
- c. Language should be taught in a meaningful context.
- d. Grammar should be taught inductively.

(H. D. Brown, 2001; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Zimmerman, 1997)

The discussion about the significance of the teaching of linguistic competence and communicative performance continues today. Linguistic competence mainly refers to the knowledge of grammatical structures, vocabulary, morphology and phonology and how these are used in sentences (Chomsky, 1968). Communicative performance is about the use of the language by its speakers and the way they respond in social situations. The move from a pedagogical emphasis on linguistic competence to communicative performance is not an easy one for the collectivist Korean society as it makes socially contradictory demands on teachers and learners. It requires the learner to be an active participant who acknowledges strengths and weaknesses in front of a class in contrast to a passive learner who is receptive and does not demonstrate skills in the classroom. Teachers are also required to take risks in such a communicative context as they are expected to be competent and fluent in the learnt language in order for them to conduct conversations about various topics.

In 1886, four years after the Reform Movement in language teaching commenced, the International Phonetic Association was established. The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) “was designed to enable the sounds of any language to be accurately transcribed” (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 7). The IPA expressed the new primary goals of language teaching as being listening, speaking and pronunciation (Richards, 1986, p.9).

The Direct Approach

The direct approach grew out of the understandings of the French teacher Gouin “Gouin... came to the following conclusions: Language learning is primarily a matter of transforming perceptions into conceptions” (H. D. Brown, 2001, p. 20). Hence teaching a foreign language can be done without translating from the learner’s native language to the second language as long as the meaning is communicated through a direct route by means of display and action (Richards, 1986; H. D. Brown, 2001). This approach became popular in France, Germany and Europe more than in the United States, where it was used by Maximilian Berlitz in his chain of language schools. The direct approach attempts to teach the foreign language with the use of the target language. Common utterances are taught as part of teaching the target language and culture, while grammar is learned inductively and indirectly. The teacher in a direct approach classroom is a target language native speaker or one who holds a native like proficiency in the target language. This requirement created two main difficulties. The first was that native speakers were difficult to find at the turn of the twentieth century. The second was that explanations of the taught material were in the target language only. Criticism about the method was from two perspectives. The first contended that “Its [the approach] success may have been more a factor of the skill and personality of the teacher than of the methodology itself” (H. D. Brown, 2001, p. 22). The second claimed that tenuous theoretical principles and lengthy explanations in the target language took a large proportion of the lessons while a simple explanation in the learner’s native language may have been more productive (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

The direct approach is the main instructional method in the ‘English villages’ concept in Korea. English ‘villages’ in Korea were initiated as an alternative for the growing number of Korean students who were going to English speaking countries to study English. One aspect the Korean government was looking to create with the English villages is “an antidote to Korea’s highly-structured, school-based English programs” (Faiola, 2004, pp. A-25). In these villages Korean students spend a week in a simulation of a (western) English speaking country. The students learn about the English language use in shops, police stations, banks and other facilities. The teachers in these villages are native English speakers and native-like Korean speakers of English for two main reasons. The first is to meet one of the reasons Korean parents send their children overseas “so that they can gain native-speaker-like fluency in the language” (D. Shim & Park, 2008, p. 137). The second reason is to “force students to speak and interact in English, making them more skilled in the language.” (D. Shim & Park, 2008, p. 147). This might simulate an experience of being overseas without the need to leave Korea. The aim is for students to learn English through experience with no grammar classes as it is “based on the task-based learning required by the 7th Educational curriculum, the program improves students’ communication skills and helps to review essential vocabulary,

expressions, and language formations, while engaging in a variety of activities.” (Village, 2012)

In 1923, the Colman Report was published in the US as a result of the two concerns mentioned above about the requirements for native speakers and the ‘reading approach’ emerged. It proposed “...a reading knowledge of a foreign language, achieved through the gradual introduction of words and grammatical structures in simple reading texts”(Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 11). The lack of proficient teachers to teach with the ‘direct approach’ generated support of the ‘reading approach’. As people did not travel frequently into and out of the US to use a target foreign language, reading was perceived as a way to develop second language skills (Celce-Murcia, 1991). With this approach, reading is the prominent language skill, where grammar is taught through focus on aspects of the reading passage. Teachers did not need to hold native-like oral proficiency, and translation was once again at the centre of the teaching process.

Korean English teachers seem to support this approach (S. J. Kim, 2004). The arguments in Kim’s (2004) article indicate that large class sizes result in various levels of students’ English proficiency. In large classes with various levels of students’ English proficiency, Korean English teachers argue that an imbalance is created between the effectiveness of spoken English in class, and that this will have a negative effect on the students’ English learning. In addition, and as mentioned previously, Korean English teachers lack of spoken English proficiency was evident in their low score in TOEIC in 2005 (Samsung Economic Research Institution, 2005). Research conducted by Kamhi-Stein and Mahboob (Kamhi-Stein, 2003, p. 2) found that “the Korean teachers’ proficiency in English ranged from lower to upper intermediate” and that three out of seven participants in the research were using mostly Korean language in the classroom even though all seven had graduated from language teacher preparation programs in Korea and three of them held a Master’s degree in English Education from local universities. Consequently Korean teachers would be more prone to support the reading approach as firstly it fits their language skills and secondly their level of communicative English competency is at a level that allows them to minimise the use of spoken English in large classes.

Oral Approach and Audiolingual Method

From the 1920s to the 1950s two approaches to English language teaching developed. In Britain, the linguists Palmer and Hornby developed the ‘oral approach’ which became the accepted British method to teach foreign languages in the 1950s (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 34). This approach is also referred to as ‘situational language teaching’ or the ‘situational approach’. This approach views the oral skills of language as fundamental, and learners learn in the pseudo-situations they are likely to face outside of the classroom. This British structuralist approach supported the teaching of the English language by rule-governed principles, which were to help the learner to apply the learned language to situations in the real world.

In the US the ‘audiolingual method’ was developed after this country’s entry into the Second World War. The U.S. Army needed people who could operate as interpreters, translators and code-room assistants (H. D. Brown, 2001; Celce-Murcia, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). The ‘Army Specialized Training

Program' (ASTP) was established in 1942 to meet the need for foreign language personnel. Intensive language courses were operating in fifty-five universities at the beginning of 1943, where students studied ten hours a day, six days a week. The emphasis was on the repeated practising or 'drilling' with a native speaker of oral patterns and almost no grammar or translation skills were taught. The army program lasted for only two years. However, the 'audiolingual method' grew out of this program.

The 'audiolingual approach' (or as it sometimes referred to 'the audiolingual method') was the main method used to teach a foreign language in the US from the 1940s to the 1960s. It is closely related to the direct approach in its view of the importance of teaching oral skills. However, the audiolingual method incorporated elements of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology (Celce-Murcia, 1991). The structural view gave this method an understanding of language as a system of components which when related to each other creates communication. Behavioural psychology, or behaviourism, contributed to audiolingualism by giving it a framework for the classroom. Classes are structured around the idea that language is better learned by creating good habits in the use of language and therefore mistakes should be avoided. In addition, oral presentation of the target language is believed to be more effective if given before the written form, analogy is preferred to analysis, and meaning of words are better learned if put in their cultural and linguistic context (H. D. Brown, 2001; Celce-Murcia, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In Britain, the situational approach was dominant during these years and was influenced by the same ideas as audiolingualism i.e. oral drills of basic sentence patterns, and grammar taught inductively and indirectly through drills rather than analysis of rules (Zimmerman, 1997).

Korean educational policy is meant to be implemented strictly, and it is not a set of guidelines, it is a mandated series of requirements from the Korean Ministry of Education. In the policy of 1987, the fifth curriculum for middle school advocated audiolingualism to teach English. This method was still present when the sixth curriculum became policy in 1995. This method emphasised drilling of grammar and thus preparing students for the grammar-translation method. The sixth curriculum intended to shift from these two methods into communicative methods. However, as Li (Li, 1998) found in research conducted about Korean English teachers "All reported that grammar-translation method, the audiolingual method, or a combination of the two characterised their teaching" (Li, 1998, p. 685). Li's findings provide important information that may assist the understanding the impact that rote learning has on English language teaching and learning in Korea. Li's research also supports the findings of this thesis which are discussed in Chapter 4.

The university entrance exam is a major motivational factor for Koreans to learn English. This exam, as later will be explained in more depth, has no oral components and thus, students and teachers alike are prone to support the grammar-translation method over communicative methods as it might help with the written drilling of grammar rules. In Chapter 4, professional diary entries will demonstrate the difficulties students faced with the audiolingual method.

Criticism of the audiolingual method was on two fronts, the structural component of the method and the behaviourist one. The criticism over structuralism was based on

the difficulties learners faced when they tried to use the language and skills taught in the classroom to external situations. All the structures of the target language could not be learned in the classroom, and the method did not deliver the effectiveness it was expected to deliver when the components of language were taught. Concerning the behaviourism implied in this method, critics pointed out that habit formation did not convey knowledge of the target language, errors in use of language can be a learning process and should not necessarily be avoided, and that language behaviour is much more complex than it was first thought (H. D. Brown, 2001; Celce-Murcia, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In this research, these two criticisms are manifested in the diary entries as noted in Chapter 4. During the time that the diary entries were written the researcher was not aware of the different methods and the criticisms about them, however it was later discovered that the techniques employed to teach the English language were based on the audiolingual method.

Cognitive Approach

The ‘cognitive approach’ referred to the problems of the behaviourist aspects of the audiolingual method. It supported the process of learning a language through acquisition of grammar rules instead of habit formation. It was proposed that the grammar rules did not have to be taught deductively but could be acquired inductively through exposure and use. This approach has an equal emphasis on the four macro skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. It acknowledges the developmental role of mistakes in the use of the target language. While investigating the methods employed in Korea to learn and teach English, no evidence of the ‘cognitive approach’ was found, however it is still important to acknowledge this approach for future research purposes and for the researcher to familiarise and consider teaching methods for the scenario thinking process presented in Chapter 5.

Both the cognitive approach and the audiolingual approach neglected the learner in terms of the affective-humanistic approach. In the 1970s it was this approach that represented the inner world of learners as being the most important variable in the process of acquiring a foreign language (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Wang, 2005).

Language acquisition and language learning are different processes according to Krashen (1981). Language acquisition occurs during meaningful interaction and through natural communication. While these conditions take place “speakers are not concerned with the form of the language but with the messages they are conveying and understanding” (Krashen, 1981, p. 1). On the other hand, language learning is the conscious learning of rules of a second language in instructional settings (Kramsch, 1992, p. 55). Even though there is a distinction between the two terms, it is important to indicate that some ‘acquisition’ takes place in classrooms (Kramsch, 1992). In the Korean context, according to the findings in this research, there is an emphasis on language learning rather than language acquisition. The language learning process is evident in rote learning methods that are employed in Korea and will be discussed in Chapter 4.

Other Approaches

The ‘affective-humanistic approach’ emphasises the importance of individuals and the class environment as being more important than the materials used. It supports small group work which creates opportunity for meaningful communication for the learner. The teacher is a facilitator and not an authority. The teacher might accommodate understanding of the target language by translating to the learner’s first language, to help reduce the learner’s anxiety so that learning can be achieved without apprehension of the target language. From this approach three major methods grew (Blair, 1991; H. D. Brown, 2001; Richards & Rodgers, 1986). The ‘silent way’, developed by Caleb Gattegno in 1972, is based on the notion that the teacher should be as silent as possible to allow the learners to produce as much language as possible (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Suggestopaedia, developed by Georgi Lozanov in 1979, emphasises the classroom atmosphere in terms of decoration, furniture, music, the non-authoritative behaviour of the teacher and a relaxed state of consciousness while acquiring a foreign language (H. D. Brown, 2001). Community language learning developed by Charles Curran in 1972, supported group work, where the learners form a circle and the teacher is outside of the circle. Messages are given from learner to learner in their native language and the teacher repeats them in the target language, thereafter the learner has to repeat the translated message (H. D. Brown, 2001, p. 25). These approaches to language acquisition were not found in the diary entries and are not part of the discussion and findings in later Chapters. However, it is important to note them, as they are part of the overall development of language learning approaches and do have their impact on language learning.

Comprehension Based Approaches

Comprehension-based approaches prioritise receptive skills (listening and reading) over productive skills (speaking and writing). These notions came from research in first language learning, eg. Krashen’s (1982), Krashen and Terrell (1983), and Asher (2003). They agreed that humans acquire language by understanding messages (Mitchell & Florence, 1998) and that delaying the necessity to produce language creates learners who may be, more relaxed and motivated to learn. Under this approach the method ‘Total Physical Response’ (TPR) was developed. This method advocates kinaesthesia or actions as the main way to teach a foreign language by incorporating language and physical activity. This method was developed by Asher in 1974 who believed that most grammar and vocabulary could be taught through the use of language in its imperative form used by the teacher (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 88). The use of this method in Korea is evident in English villages where teachers teach students during cooking lessons, drama and music, science and invention, art culture and entertainment, daily planet, homeroom and action time (Village, 2012).

The Natural Approach

Another method using the ‘comprehension based’ approach is the ‘Natural Approach’ developed by Krashen and Terrell (1983). This approach provides the learner with comprehensible input. The assumption is that learners acquire language by understanding messages. These messages should contain forms and structures in the target language that are slightly above the learner’s level of competence in the

language for both comprehension and acquisition to occur (Krashen, 1989; Lightbown & Spada, 1999). In Korea the provision of comprehensible input by teachers is ignored due to the ubiquitous practice of rote learning where the language being learnt be disconnected from its use. This point will be further discussed below.

The 'Natural Approach' advocates language learning through the use of speech, visuals, and actions. Thereafter it assumes that the learner will be personally motivated to produce the target language not because of the practicing of artificial drills (Blair, 1991) but because of the need to use language in different contexts.

Communicative Approach

The 'Natural Approach' can be considered as a communicative approach based on the work of anthropological and Firthian linguists. The communicative approach views language as a social utility where the learner wants to be able to communicate in the target language. Hence, learners are exposed to the social functions of the target language and will work in small groups to 'inform' each other in the target language as they have communicative purposes. Learners may employ role-plays and situational dramatisations to utilise the target language in different social situations. In 1972, Hymes offered one aspect of the term 'communicative competence' as the "internalized knowledge of the situational appropriateness of language" (Zimmerman, 1997, p. 12). While rote learning is universally practiced in Korea, as will be discussed in Chapter 4, the above aspects of language learning were not found in Korean curriculum in practice at schools, even though it is embedded in the seventh curriculum. This might provide an explanation to the question of the impact and contribution of policy makers on the way English is been taught in Korea.

Summation

Approaches to English teaching have changed as a result of necessities, priorities, policies, political changes and language teaching and learning research. It can be assumed that additional methods will emerge as research continues, technology progresses and the need to learn a second or additional language increases.

In this research, one of the two questions concerns the relevance of rote learning, national examinations and motivations for English language teaching and learning in Korea. As such, it is important to first understand the influence of the participating actors in the process and the methods employed in Korea to teach English. The Ministry of Education in Korea acknowledged the importance of communicative performance over linguistic competence in English language teaching, and as a consequence changes were made in the national curriculum provided by the Ministry. From the sixth national curriculum (1995) to the current seventh, the Ministry of Education has encouraged teachers to use more oral English communication in the class, and to reverse the previous teacher centred curriculum to a student centred one. Korean society has top down characteristics therefore the government did not take into consideration teachers' English proficiency levels and by changing the curriculum created a gap between the desired outcome and the Korean English teachers' ability to communicate in English and hence teach English communicatively. The change in the curriculum recognises the

learning of English as a process and not as a measurable, examinable product. However, a combination of the two is more realistic in the Korean context as an adaptation to such a change faces two main obstacles. The first relates to Korea's collectivist culture. Unlike an individualist culture, the collectivist culture "discourage(s) speaking English in the school context" (S. J. Kim, 2004, p. 3). Students are not encouraged to be unique or original and their respect for authority means that they do not engage with or question the teacher. The second obstacle is rooted in the necessity to succeed in the university entrance exam (CSAT), which can change a Korean student's life. In this exam, communicative performance is not assessed and therefore the ability to use the language communicatively is not considered important by students, teachers and parents. With a high score in this exam, which is taken at the end of year twelve, Korean students can ensure themselves entry to one of the desired top universities. This is one step before establishing better chances to obtain a 'good' job and upward social mobility. This desire to succeed in the exams creates English language classes that are focused on preparation for the exam and that neglect any other language qualities that will not contribute to success in exams (M. Lee & Larson, 2000).

As a result of the above, the methods employed to teach English are closely related to 'grammar translation', 'audiolingualism' and the 'reading approach'. This might provide a possible answer to the question of the impact of policy makers on the way English language is been taught in Korea. Even though the Korean Ministry of Education's policy has shifted to a communicative approach, these three approaches are probably more suited to Korean learners as they want to succeed in the CSAT exam. This is compounded by the issues of a lack of English language proficiency of Korean teachers, and the Korean social structures (collectivist/Confucian). Hence, the impact of policy makers on the way English language is being taught might not be as influential as thought or expected to be. However, the Korean Ministry of Education's aim to achieve communicative proficiency might be achieved in light of the evidence that Koreans demonstrate a desire to hold a good communicative proficiency level of English as it is reflected in the participation of Koreans in exams for proficiency of English. In 2002, Koreans accounted for twenty percent of worldwide takers of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) (D. Shim & Park, 2008). Nevertheless it is important to keep in mind that other methods of teaching the English language in Korea do exist, such as the direct approach in English villages.

In the professional records of the researcher from the year spent in Korea and with data from document analysis, it is clear that 'grammar translation' is the dominant approach in teaching English in Korea. However, a shift to a communicative approach in English language learning and teaching is starting to emerge in Korea as will be discussed in Chapter 4.

As noted previously, the 'grammar translation' method was first introduced to Korea by the Japanese colonialists and was the dominant approach thereafter (Shin, 2007). However, with the introduction of the sixth national curricula a shift from 'grammar translation' to a more communicative approach started and this shift was strengthened in the seventh national curricula of Korea. Two changes occurred as a result. The first, the English section in the CSAT, the national college entrance exam, focuses on a reading comprehension test and a listening test "which is a

different emphasis from measuring students' phonological, lexical and grammatical knowledge" (Shin, 2007, p. 77). The second change was implemented in 1996 when the Ministry of Education started a new pre-service teacher education program which was not aimed to gain knowledge of the literature presented in the curricula or the mastery of theoretical linguistics, but linguistic and pedagogical competence (Shin, 2007). With the launch of the English Program in Korea (EPIK) in 1996, the Ministry of Education started employing native English speakers to teach English in Korean secondary schools (Shin, 2007). To be eligible to teach with EPIK one "Should have citizenship from one of the following countries: Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, United Kingdom, United States, South Africa. Must have studied from junior high level (7th grade) and resided for at least 10 years or more in the country where English is the primary language" (English Program In Korea, 2010a).

'Communicative Approach' Implementation in Korea

The obstacles to make a change from 'grammar translation' to a 'communicative approach' in Korea are many. In the classroom environment, the challenges are large classes with different students' English levels. These large, mixed-ability classes create a difficulty for the teachers to implement communicative techniques (Shin, 2007) such as sharing information, interaction in different settings, and meaningful conversations (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In addition, Korean English teachers lack the required appropriate spoken English proficiency (S. J. Kim, 2004) to implement such communicative techniques. The Ministry of Education tries to create an environment where students and teachers alike are using the English language in the class and outside of the classroom. This method is more appropriate in English as a second language environment rather than in English as a foreign language environment (S. J. Kim, 2004). Hence, Korean teachers observed that their students never speak English amongst themselves, while Korean English teachers do not speak English to their students and co-workers outside the classroom (S. J. Kim, 2004). Another obstacle to implement communicative techniques is a Confucian social hierarchy and the difference between Korea's collectivist culture and Western individualism. Korean people are reluctant to openly criticise someone else's work and in a Korean classroom, the teacher is regarded as hierarchically higher, therefore learners are expected to listen to the teacher respectfully without expressing their opinions (S. J. Kim, 2004).

Outside of the classroom the challenges are on several fronts. First, the curriculum is mandated from above (Shin, 2007). This leaves little room for teachers to adapt the mandatory English language material to communicative techniques with limited class time. The preparation of students for the college entrance exam stresses the demand for 'correct' English as a pedagogical norm (Shin, 2007). In the social context, the English language is associated with Americanization of Korean society (S. H. Kim, 2003; S. J. Kim, 2004). Koreans, as a collectivist society, feel antagonistic toward English language spoken on a daily basis, as it reminds them of the Japanese colonial years when Korean language was forbidden and a Japanese speaking society was forced on the Koreans. Hence, the English language as a communicative tool creates more antagonism than the English language as a pedagogical tool.

As noted, Korea is a hierarchal society, where the government imposes rules and regulations and it is difficult for all stakeholders to adjust to new ways of teaching language. Although grammar translation approaches do not promote Korean students' communicative ability in English, it is still popular in Korea in part because it keeps the social structure (i.e. a Confucian hierarchy) in the classroom. It enables the teachers to need only a few specialized skills in English, the least of them being oral proficiency. It is easier and considered more objective and reliable to test and score grammar rules and translations, which seemingly allows the Korean teachers to remain unbiased. As has been and will be discussed, Korean education is focused on the CSAT, which is the university entrance exam. As a result, communicative ability in English is not perceived as an important indicator of language proficiency in Korea. Hence rote exercises, learning grammar rules and being able to complete successful translations to and from English are the main purposes of English language learning in Korea for teachers, students and parents, in contrast to the purposes of the Ministry of Education's policies.

Models of Education and Curriculum

A range of models of education is discussed to help develop understanding of the school curriculum. In this section, an overview of models will give an understanding of the different curriculum applied in different schools and education systems. Through this overview, the researcher is hoping to generate ideas that would develop and facilitate the scenario-planning process. In the scenario-planning process alternatives to the existing English language education model in Korea will be offered as scenario suggestions grow from the various models and from the findings and the discussion section of the research. Every curriculum offered in schools includes a structure of subject expertise, for instance, mathematics, language, science and physical education. It is in the way the school integrates the different subjects in the process of learning that determines the curriculum type (Venville & Rennie, 2009).

Discipline-based and Inquiry-based Curriculum

In discipline-based curricula, as sometimes referred to as subject-based curriculum, subjects are learned independently and no connection between them is made. A school day is segmented into different disciplines and the lessons are taught by specialised teachers (Venville & Rennie, 2009). In such an educational environment, the student is a passive learner and most of the decision-making is in the hands of the teacher (Krogh & Slentz, 2001). Assessment is mainly done through written tests and examinations (Venville & Rennie, 2009) hence this approach is "probably appropriate in a society with top-down power, but it is less helpful in a society that strives to raise citizens for democracy" (Krogh & Slentz, 2001, p. 5). This approach to curriculum development motivates the students to concentrate on the subject and specialise in it. This type of curriculum limits enquiry and is artificial because humans perceive the world as complex in its diversity (Golby, Greenwald, & West, 1975).

In contrast to a subject-based curriculum, an inquiry-based curriculum attempts to incorporate and integrate a range of subjects. With this approach, students are encouraged to develop creative and critical-thinking and to "become active investigators by identifying a range of information" (Queensland Government,

2007). Students work in small groups or individually, developing questions that are of importance to them personally and that are contributing to the progress of their educational development. In this approach, students are involved with the process of learning knowledge and are taking responsibility for their own learning. Although teachers may be bound to an external curriculum in the choice of themes to be investigated by the students, they can introduce the subject of inquiry in a way that will allow the students to approach and inquire about it through their own ideas (Wells, 1995). The inquiry-based curriculum is supported by a constructivist learning environment and Honebein's (1996, p. 11) ideas about its seven goals:

1. Provide experience with the knowledge construction process.
2. Provide experience in and appreciation for multiple perspectives.
3. Embed learning in realistic and relevant contexts.
4. Encourage ownership and 'voice' in the learning process.
5. Embed learning in social experience.
6. Encourage the use of multiple modes of representation.
7. Encourage self-awareness of the knowledge construction process.

Inquiry activities are at the core of this type of curriculum as "inquiry activities provide a valuable context for learners to acquire, clarify, and apply an understanding of... concepts" (Edelson, Gordin, & Pea, 1999, p. 3). In the process of learning in an inquiry-based curriculum design "the first opportunity for learning provided by inquiry is the opportunity to develop general inquiry abilities" (Edelson, et al., 1999, p. 4). This is important as it provides students with the technique to develop open-ended questions that require investigation of the matter from different perspectives. As they progress in their exploration, students learn how to view and connect different standpoints regarding their investigative theme, with the understanding that there are many elements contributing to the solution. The teacher serves as a guide to help the students reach desired solutions, while the students are the ones conducting the investigation and revealing of relevant information.

However, some suggest that this type of teaching is not effective. In their article, Kirschner Sweller and Clark (2006) argue that "minimal guidance during instruction is significantly less effective and efficient than guidance specifically designed to support the cognitive processing necessary for learning" (Kirschner, et al., 2006, p. 76). According to their research "direct, strong instructional guidance rather than constructivist-based minimal guidance during the instruction of novice to intermediate learners" was found to be almost uniformly supported by controlled studies (Kirschner, et al., 2006, p. 83).

Korea is a Confucian society where questioning authority, for example a teacher, is not encouraged (Cheng, 1990; Wing, 1996). Therefore, Korean students are less likely to prefer to be involved in an inquiry-based curriculum and are more likely to be part of a subject-based one as this better reflects a top-down, hierarchical society. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) study of the

Korean education system found that it employs methods of teaching that involve “memorisation of fragmentary information” instead of employing methods of teaching that involve critical and creative thinking skills (OECD, 1998). McGuire (2007) argues that critical thinking pedagogy has not been evident across the Korean curriculum or the education system and educators and educational institutes did not demonstrate an understanding of critical thinking as a method of teaching or as an educational philosophy.

These elements of discipline-based curricula and inquiry-based curricula have been involved in the scenario building process, which will be discussed later. To be able to propose a shift from subject-based to inquiry-based curricula in the scenario put forward in Chapter 5, the researcher had to gain knowledge from the literature about the discipline-based and inquiry-based curricula and to find grounds for it in the Korean educational reality. In doing so, the building of the scenarios rely on information and knowledge that enhance understanding of the possible changes to the structure of society (Van der Heijden, 2005 p. 3)

Content-Based Curriculum

Korean students are exposed to a content-based curriculum in English villages. In content-based curricula, there is a shift from a focus on language learning per se in classrooms to language as a holistic instruction and learning tool. Content-based language teaching is an approach that supports the use of the target language exclusively as the instructional language and as such creates an immersion environment for the students (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998). In such a learning environment, the students are exposed to the use of the language in its everyday functions: communicating ideas, authentic meanings, and accomplishing authentic tasks. With this type of instruction time is efficiently utilised “by combining language and content instruction, time set aside in the school day for learning language as a separate subject may be reduced substantially” (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998, p. 36). Content-based curricula are supported by a communicative approach to language learning which focuses on meaning and not form. Stryker & Leaver (1997) claim that content-based foreign language instruction and its philosophy “aims at empowering students to become independent learners and continue the learning process beyond the classroom” (Stryker & Leaver, 1997, p. 3) and that it aims to connect language instruction and subject-matter. Assessment in content-based curricula is done on two levels, content and language, and as such it requires the students to hold a deeper comprehension of the foreign language so that they can communicate their ideas competently (Stryker & Leaver, 1997).

English villages in Korea offer a content based curriculum in a one-week immersion program for Korean students. They are focused on the English language but as Sohn (as cited in Trottier, 2008a, p.62) found “what distinguishes them from traditional EFL is that they are content-based, project driven and globally relevant”. English villages in Korea are humanistic and progressive in their view of teaching and learning processes, in contrast to the traditional Korean language instruction. They promote meaningful, communicative foreign language instruction (Trottier, 2008a)

Thematic Curriculum

Another curriculum model is a thematic one, where the school curriculum is driven by a theme that collects different subjects around it. A thematic curriculum organises the curriculum in a way that enables students to be exposed to a predominant content theme. School programs, subjects and extra-curricula activities revolve around the curriculum theme (Finch, Frantz, Mooney, & Aneke, 1997). Thematic instruction involves teachers teaching the same grade so that acquisition of knowledge can be done as students connect the learning material to the real world. Each teacher contributes to the design of the curriculum as they adapt the core material to the theme chosen. Although this type of curriculum model does not take place in the national Korean curriculum, it does exist in Korea within International Schools. International Schools offer the International Baccalaureate that is "... a globally focused curriculum offered by hundreds of high schools around the world to self-directed students who thrive in academically challenging learning environments" (Finch, et al., 1997, p. 14).

Teacher –Centred/Student-Centred Curriculum

Teacher-centred and student-centred curriculum models can be applied to all the types of curriculum reviewed above. Teacher-centred curriculum was popular among curriculum developers in the 1950s and 1960s. They were developed by government authorities and then distributed to schools (Nunan, 1988). The teachers' duty was to implement the curriculum and to operate as classroom managers, as they are not active contributors to the design or the development of the school curriculum. In Australia, the situational English course which was developed as English as a Second Language (ESL) course in the 1960s and 1970s is one example of such a centralised approach (Nunan, 1988). The teacher-centred approach advocated the transmission of knowledge with student achievement as the leading purpose and accountability standards to be met by the teacher (K. L. Brown, 2003). Teacher-student relationships are academically based with the emphasis on content rather than the student's processing of information. In the classroom, the students respond to the teacher's questions and rarely communicate amongst themselves. Hence, they rely solely on the teacher's knowledge and are not active members in the learning process. In contrast, a student-centred curriculum aims to give students active roles in their learning processes by "shifting the responsibilities of organising, analysing content from the teacher to the learner" (Brush & Saye, 2000, p. 3). Students learn how to examine complex problems, they can work alone, in pairs or in groups and are encouraged to discuss the nature of the problem to be investigated. This communication of ideas allows students to answer and debate each other's questions, direct the route of the investigation and evaluate their peers and their own learning. The main purpose of a student-centred curriculum in an EFL context is that "proponents of learner-centred curricula are less interested in learners acquiring the totality of the language than in assisting them gain the communicative and linguistic skills they need to carry out real-world tasks" (Nunan, 1988, p. 22).

The Korean National Curriculum tries to move from a teacher-centred curriculum to a student-centred one. This move started in the sixth national curriculum. The national curriculum is more student-centred with its communicative approach to

learning English. It has moved from an emphasis on linguistic competence to communicative performance. Shin (2007 pp. 77) noted “A shift in focus in English teaching had occurred and fluency and communicative competence, instead of accuracy, were emphasized, which continues in the current, seventh Curricula.” The textbooks developed by the Ministry of Education are structured for different learning levels and learning stages allowing the students to self-direct their learning capacities and creativities. The variety of textbooks allows the schools to choose the most appropriate textbooks according to their students’ academic level (Yi, 1997). The university entrance exam (CSAT) is the most important exam in a Korean’s academic life (Lee & Larson, 2000). A high score in this exam will follow with entrance to one of the top universities, which will establish better chances to obtain a ‘good’ job and upward social mobility. This exam has no oral communicative component and students, as well as teachers, do not aim to achieve oral communicative abilities. Therefore, the shift from language competence to communicative performance that the Korean Ministry of Education is trying to make faces many difficulties as have been previously noted.

Not all Korean schools are staffed by teachers that can accommodate a student-centred approach. Another obstacle is the innate Confucian values in South Korean society, in which the teacher is the authority and the holder of knowledge, therefore the student should remain silent and not question the teacher’s authority, knowledge or create a situation where the teacher will not be able to answer the question (S. J. Kim, 2004; McGuire, 2007).

These contradictions between policy makers and social values are at the core of the concerns about English language teaching in Korean educational system. On the one hand the Ministry of Education decrees modifications to the national curriculum with the principle to contribute to the overall benefit of humankind (*hongik-ingan*) so that students and teachers can perfect “their individual character, develop the ability to achieve an independent life and acquire the qualifications of democratic citizens” (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2002). On the other hand, Korean schools and teachers are ill equipped to follow such a change. Teachers’ English proficiency, their ability to communicate in English, and the collectivist-oriented culture of Korean society are the main impediments. This was noted in documents produced in 1997, 1998, 2000 and 2004 (S. J. Kim, 2004; J. H. Lee, 2004; Lee & Larson, 2000; Li, 1998; Yi, 1997).

The information gathered so far can generate a scenario building process. Therefore, in the next section an overview of the development of scenario planning and its advantages and disadvantages will be given.

Scenario Planning

Scenario planning is about thinking the unthinkable. It is not an attempt to predict the future, but to suggest future possibilities or to explore different ends to various changes. “The significance of scenario thinking lies in its ability to help overcome thinking limitations by developing multiple futures” (K. Van der Heijden, Bradfield, Burt, Cairns, & Wright, 2002, p. 2). These multiple future possibilities of change are attempts to encourage thinking about alternative circumstances, opportunities with uncertainty, and actions that can be carried out in response (Jarke, Bui, & Carroll, 1998; Van Notten, 2006). Scenarios describe social constructions

formulated to create several models around the same aspects. When scenarios describe drastic change in the known reality, they fulfill their capacity to provoke (Saussois, 2006). Saussois supports the generation of such provocation when he writes: “The richness of the scenario approach is in its capacity to reveal changing situations and to make explicit hidden variables or implicit assumptions” (Saussois, 2006, p. 57).

Scenario planning started in the 1950s when Herman Kahn and the RAND Corporation developed “alternative paths to a nuclear war with the Soviets” (Millett, 2009, p. 62). The scenarios Kahn developed were speculations of chains of occurrences and were to be used as “a tool for planning and not forecasts of the future” (Millett, 2009, p. 62). In the 1960s, Kahn founded the Huston Institute where two corporate planners; Ian Wilson of General Electric and Pierre Wack of Royal Dutch Shell contacted him. The two used the method that Kahn developed but changed the fundamental definition of a scenario. Where Kahn saw scenarios as speculations about a chain of events, Wilson and Wack did not. They developed alternative futures irrespective of the events leading to it. Wilson presented his team’s scenarios to GE managers about global and US economic and socio-political conditions in the year 1980 (Millett, 2009). In 1972 Wack presented intuitive scenarios to Royal Dutch Shell executives for the future of the oil market in the year 2000. This landmark presentation enabled the company to adjust to OPEC’s 1973 oil embargo that created a shift within the oil market from a buyers’ market to a sellers’ market “with major discontinuities in the price of oil and changing interfuel competition.”(Wack, 1985a, p. 73). A sharp rise in oil prices was one of Wack’s scenarios and the management in Royal Dutch Shell was well prepared for the occurrence in reality. They had enough time “to allow them to take strategic action well ahead of the competition” (K. Van der Heijden, et al., 2002, p.133). The result of such preparations was the ascent of the company in profitability from seventh place to second (K. Van der Heijden, et al., 2002).

Wilson joined SRI International corporate planning consulting group where Wack and Peter Schwartz were working. Wack wrote two milestone articles about the scenarios he developed for Shell and Schwartz wrote the book *The Art of the Long View*, which became significant reading for scenario planners (Millett, 2009).

Scenario planning is a tool used in different sectors. Librarians use it to develop their services and medical schools are using it for meaning-making rather than fact-collecting learning processes (Frantz, 2002). Large firms make use of scenario planning to evaluate future threats of damage or destruction to their business interests (Saussois, 2006). In the education sector, scenario planning can operate as a useful tool. An education system is an environment with many uncertainties, where the participating actors could influence the future of it. These actors, policy makers, educators, students and parents may drive changes to the education system to be able to achieve their goals. Scenario planning can be developed to gain an understanding of different futures and the driving forces behind changes in its environment (Iversen, 2006). In order for the scenarios to be effective they should be short, understandable with some parts unrevealed (Ogilvy, 2006) for they should provoke thinking and further discussion. However, the different scenarios should be “hypothetical, causally coherent, internally consistent, and/or descriptive (Van Notten, 2006, p. 70). Iversen (2006) suggests four key characteristics for scenario

development: plausibility, relevancy, divergence, and challenge. The purpose of these four key characteristics is to achieve consistency within the scenarios. In the uncertain education sector, Iversen (2006, p. 111) recommends exploratory scenarios as they “are created to understand just how different the future may become and what may drive these changes”.

Scenario planning has some disadvantages arising from the nature of its process. The first is how to choose the right factors of change out of boundless possibilities (Miller, 2006). Scenarios should be believable in order for them to be effective. Therefore, good research in the field of interest combined with observations and/or interviews with key actors in the field may focus on the elements of change. As Wack (Wack, 1985a) suggested, scenarios should be based on well-founded analysis of reality. The second is the transformation from a ‘predict and control’ frame of mind (K. Van der Heijden, et al., 2002), where organisations are counting on their ability to predict future occurrences and to adapt to them. The problem with such a method is uncertain. In addition, highly- ranked managers find it difficult to face alternative futures they cannot control or do not understand. The progression of these managers in organisations is based on their good judgment (Wack, 1985b). They trust their judgment and regard it as a key motivational tool for their progress in the organisation. Scenarios confront them with uncertainties. They are unable to relate to their usual judgments (Wack, 1985b). The third problem is the “lack of unified research framework” (Jarke, et al., 1998, p. 157). Van Notten (Van Notten, 2006) acknowledges variety in scenario planning: “Numerous scenario communities have developed over the years, each with its own approaches” (Van Notten, 2006, p. 78). As scenario planning is used in various sectors, unfortunately there is currently an environment that lacks a community of scenario planning development. If such a community were present, it might have been able to develop and work together for the advancement of the scenario building field.

In this research, the method of scenario planning will be employed to thoughtfully examine the reaction to changes proposed for the participating actors in English language education in Korea; the Korean Ministry of Education, Korean English teachers, students and parents. Chapter 5 will suggest three scenarios in accordance to the three themes that emerge in Chapter 4.

The next section will explain the use of diary entries in research. During one year of teaching the English language in Korea, the researcher documented her experiences and later used this information to support the claims discussed in Chapter 4.

Diaries in Research

Diaries have been long used to record activities. Alaszewski (Alaszewski, 2006) gives a history and development of diary writing. In the sixteenth century, the Japanese Emperor’s court and European monks in mediaeval monasteries were among the first to keep diaries of daily occurrences. By the seventeenth century, diaries established their position as documented daily accounts and an expansion of the form occurred as access to writing and printing was improved. “By the nineteenth century, people who regarded themselves as persons of culture, kept a diary” (Fothergill, 1974, p. 34). Religion was the main motivating factor in the beginning of diary writing, however, “secularisation of society and the development of psychoanalytical theory” created a new field where “diaries can be used to

understand and manage the self” (Alaszewski, 2006, p. 10). The twentieth century brought with it new technologies that extended the opportunities for diary keeping which are relatively accessible and are inexpensive.

Diaries give us data from a primary source that is not contaminated by an artificial process of inquiry (Alaszewski, 2006; Atkinson & Hammersley, 1983; Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003; Wheeler & Reis, 1991). Diaries provide information on everyday experiences from the writer’s perspective, which can be used in conjunction with other forms of documentation and data collection (Somekh & Lewin C., 2005). The cross-tabulation of information from diaries and from other secondary forms of data enable the researcher to outline a comprehensive picture of the phenomena under investigation. Bolger et. al (2003, p. 588) pointed out two major purposes in diary studies: “The investigation of phenomena as they unfold over time, or the focused examination of specific, and often rare phenomena”. In this research, rote learning, national examinations and motivation to learn the English language in Korea is under investigation. The researcher captured this in her diary entries while she was teaching English in Korea. These diary entries help the research to “...determine the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of daily experiences” (Bolger, et al., 2003, p. 586) and develop the analysis of the phenomena so that scenarios can emerge.

Diary Entries in Qualitative Research

‘Diary studies’ originate in psychological and anthropological research. There are two main approaches forming this type of method. As Gillham (Gillham, 2005) outlined, the psychological approach emphasises the dominance and effect events have on the diary keeper as a result of the frequency that these events take place. On the other hand, the anthropological approach allows the diary writer to register any information they feel important to them in their everyday occurrences. The written text in a diary can then be analysed to locate main issues of interest to the researcher. Purvis (as cited in Morrison, 2002, p.226) defined diarists as “Creators of written text that are open to descriptive or perspective analysis”. This may be the reason to accuse diary studies as being biased as they are subjective narratives and therefore have the least amount of control in research (Van Lier, 1988). The more controlled means that can be used in research are questionnaires or single reports where participants write about their experiences in a technique that incorporates recalling the events that are of interest to the phenomenon under study. The difficulty with such a method is “participants’ limited ability to recall often results in retrospective ‘aggregate’ responses that reflect faulty reconstruction of the phenomena of interest” (Bolger, et al., 2003, p. 585). Therefore the information provided by such questionnaires or in such reports might be influenced by the time that passes between the actual occurrence and the reporting of the event, as recall might create distorted information in participants’ memories. There are also issues of participant maturation, history, instability of the context, the type of writing, the possible skewing of the selection of what to question / record, mortality of participants or events or context. Hence, in this research the researcher used an event-based diary design in which entries are provided in accordance with the research (Bolger, et al., 2003). This type of diary research was thought to be appropriate as it allowed the researcher to identify major themes emerging from the diary as these themes were reported in accordance with the importance of the events

to be able to understand the reasons for Koreans to study English. “An event-based design is usually most appropriate for diary studies of specific classes of phenomena or processes, especially those that are isolated and/or rare” (Bolger, et al., 2003, p. 590). This method requires provision of clear descriptions of the events relevant to the research. However, this method is not immune from risks. According to Bolger, et al. (2003) two risks are at the core of this technique. The first is that events which are important may not be recognized and therefore might not be documented in the diary. Perhaps these events could progress the research in a different direction or create new thoughts, but because they were not logged in the diary they will not receive recognition nor will they later have any influence over the analysis of the data. The second risk is the possibility of overgeneralisation of the event to the researcher’s personal experience. As a consequence, events that were documented in the diary might be analysed in a general way thus will not influence the research in the way they should and will not allow the search of supportive or contradictory data to the events at hand. To minimize these two risks, the researcher identified a single class of events and clearly defined the triggering events. These core events helped better clarify the subject matter of the research.

Diary entries provide information about the researcher and the phenomenon under investigation from a point of view that may not be available using other methods. As noted by Morrison (2002, p. 218) “...diaries have specific uses in ‘picking up’ the minutiae of vicarious educational experience in ways which the other major form of solicited written information, questionnaires, do not”. Research diaries enable reflection on past experiences and insights into emerging themes and as such, diary entries can help the researcher gain understanding of anterior consequences, and associations of daily experiences within the aims of the research. This method was employed in this research to facilitate comprehension of Korean environment to learn the English language. The researcher’s diary analysis raises three main issues:

1. Rote learning as the main learning instrument.
2. The consequences of routine testing.
3. The main type of motivation to learn English.

These themes are investigated to enable a comprehensive understanding of their impact on the rationale for the importance of English language learning in Korea so that the research questions can be explored as thoroughly as possible.

Professional diary entries are part of the information gathered during the course of the research and scenarios developed from the data emerging from the analyses of the findings. Therefore an appropriate method to analyse the details was needed. The methodology Chapter will outline the chosen methods and their suitability to this research.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This research investigates the impact of rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation on teaching and learning of the English language in Korea. The research explores possible answers for these themes impact through attempted understanding of these issues and the creation of three appropriate scenarios.

This section outlines the qualitative and interpretive approaches that were used to examine these issues through an inquiry about the history of English language education in Korea, the impact of policy makers on English language pedagogy, and the social pressures created by past experiences of Korean society.

Research Question and Design

The research is qualitative and interpretive involving analysis of data as presented in professional diary entries from field experience and the analysis of documentary sources of major policies and practices.

The research was directed by two questions:

1. How are rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn English language, impact on English teaching and learning in Korea?
2. How can we construct a new tool in education, scenario building, to explore the relevance of these themes in the Korean context?

The research had two phases:

- Phase 1. Analysis of documents including policy and program documents and professional diary entries.
- Phase 2. Drafting of three scenarios arising from the analysis to highlight key issues and insights from the analysis and as a basis for ongoing research.

Qualitative Research

There are several reasons for the selection of this approach. Qualitative and interpretive approaches enabled the exploration and investigation of Korean society using techniques noted by Denzin and Lincoln (2003, p. 13) "...to seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning". Investigation of the reasons for the importance of teaching and learning of the English language in Korea is the leading purpose for this research. Consequently, social pressures, language teaching pedagogy and Korean history, in relation to English language education, needed to be investigated and summarized to allow a coherent understanding of language learning practices in Korea.

Qualitative researchers design research projects from the bottom up (Becker, 1998; Bogdan, 1992; Padgett, 2004). The researcher does not enter the research with a theory in mind and then look to support or contradict it. "Qualitative researchers tend to analyse their data inductively. They do not search out data or evidence to

prove or disprove hypotheses they hold before entering the study; rather, the abstractions are built as the particulars that have been gathered are grouped together” (Bogdan, 1992, p. 31).

The researcher spent one year teaching English as a foreign language in Korea, during this experience the researcher kept a diary detailing the events shaping her experiences. These diary entries are essential for this research as they provide data which might not be accessible to this research. Through diary entries “We gain an intimate view of organizations, relationships, and events from the perspective of one who has experienced them him – or herself and who may have different premises about the world than we have” (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998, p. 7). The diary entries give an insight into the way English language is been taught and learnt in Korea, enabling qualitative research to take place. These diaries were investigated inductively, as valid data emerged in the research.

Document Analysis

While gathering documents of a primary and secondary nature, data have emerged about different contexts in Korea. Primary documents are: original material with no interpretation or evaluation done to them, the first formal publication by an organization or an individual, report original thinking, or share new information (Libraries, 2010). Secondary documents are interpretations and evaluations of primary sources; they provide commentary through discussion of primary sources (Libraries, 2010).

Government documents provided evidence of the development of the Korean curriculum through to the current seventh curriculum in Korea since 1997. Other primary documents in use in this research included publications of the International Bureau of Education (UNESCO), the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and Australian government publications. These primary documents provide statistical data, elaboration of policy practices and opinions about the standing of Korea in a global educational context.

Secondary documents were gathered from periodical journals and books. These documents helped support and direct the ideas of this research through a grounded theory analysis as it “...designed to develop a well integrated set of concepts that provide a thorough theoretical explanation of social phenomena under study” (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p. 5).

(A source of tabular representation of these data is given in the discussion section page 54)

The Researcher’s Diary

In this research, diary entries are an important part of the formation of ideas and understanding about Korean students learning of the English language. The researcher spent a year teaching English in a private institute, five days a week, 9 hours each day. The researcher is a second English language learner herself and therefore found the context in which she was teaching fascinating. The researcher learnt the English language at her school from grades four to twelve at a public school in Israel. She was not exposed to private English language lessons during her

schooling years. Hence, she was surprised by the amount of private lessons Korean students receive, yet her students' English language comprehension and ability to speak or write in English was not commensurate with the extra five hours of private lessons they received each week. Therefore, the researcher started writing a diary documenting the progress and day-to-day occurrences during her year in Korea. The diary entries were collected at least twice a week, and if there were more details or critical incidents to recall, the researcher documented them as they happened.

Grounded Theory in Qualitative Research

Grounded theory was suggested by Glaser and Strauss in their 1967 book "The Discovery of Grounded Theory". Qualitative research was not regarded as scientific enough to be part of the academy as it did not use quantifiable methods to explain a phenomenon (Goulding, 1999). During the process of research, whereby the interchange between the collection and analysis of data is an ongoing process, the theory develops. Grounded theory research, in contrast to phenomenology, does not rely solely on interviews as a source of valid data; it encourages the researcher to use multiple data sources such as a range of types of observations, primary and secondary sources of data and interviews amongst others (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

During the course of its development, grounded theory has evolved two different interpretations. Glaser's emphasis is on interpretive, contextual theory developed naturally from the process of research. Strauss draws more attention to the coding techniques of data (Goulding, 1999). This research is more aligned with the Glaserian school of thought, where the theory is developed while interpreting the data and analyzing documents. The researcher's diary entries in conjunction with supportive data from primary and secondary sources were fundamental to the process to develop the main themes and ideas to theorise. Glaser (1992) clarified: "The grounded theory approach is a general methodology of analysis linked with data collection that uses a systematically applied set of methods to generate an inductive theory about a substantive area"(p. 16).

In this research the methodology of collecting data from primary and secondary sources, together with professional diary entries, is the basis for an ongoing analysis of the material. The themes that emerged from this process are the foundation for the scenario planning and thinking processes and the scenario building that will be outlined in Chapter 5, together with the three scenarios that form the conclusion. The 'Scenario Model of Educational Policy Development' outlined in the conclusion of this thesis, is a direct product of the grounded theory approach.

Interpretive Research

As noted by Rowlands (2005), interpretive research recognises the close association between the researcher and the subject of exploration and the situational constraints occurring during this process. Walsham (1995) suggests that interpretive research is directed to comprehension in a social context of the phenomenon and the process in which the phenomenon both impacts and is impacted upon by the social context. Although ethnomethodology with analytic attention is claimed to accomplish understanding of social reality, its foundation is in *how* the social existence is accomplished, whereas interpretive methods combine both the *how* and *what* created by the social construction in the research (Gubrium & Holstein, 2000). The

aim of this research is to find *what* impact do rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language have on English language teaching and learning in Korea. Through the understanding of these themes we can generate supportive background to *how* scenario building can help us construct a new tool in education that would lead to a deeper understanding of the Korean social construction of ELT. Gubrium & Holstein (2000) explain the process and importance of interpretive research in the following:

“It is one thing to describe what is going on and how things or events take shape, but the question of why things happened the way they do lead to inferential leaps and empirical speculations that propel qualitative analysis far from its stock-in-trade”(p. 502).

In light of the above, interpretive practices were chosen to accommodate the needs of this research. It incorporates explanations for the social structure in Korea with the influences and social pressures that lead to the present reality under study.

Since this qualitative research was conducted by an involved researcher (Walsham, 2006) which required collection of a variety of data to validate or contradict the emerging themes from the diary entries, the issue of validity was to be able to describe in an accurate way the Korean learning domains in relation to Korean societal constraints.

Validity in the Research

Validity in research is about the authenticity of the data presented and the relevance of the chosen methods used for analysis. To validate the diary entries in this research, primary and secondary sources were incorporated to support and contradict the observations that were made in Korea and the themes that surfaced from the diary analysis thereafter. “The concept of validity is used to judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon which it is intended to describe” (Bush, 2002, p. 65). In qualitative research, validity has attracted attention in the debate with quantitative researchers about the legitimacy of their research. As Bosk (1979, p. 193) wrote: “all field work done by a single field-worker invites the question, Why should we believe it?”. Qualitative researchers claim that the validity of methods used in quantitative research are not suitable for qualitative inquiry and thus the concept of validity should be substituted for quality, rigour and trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Mishler’s (Mishler, 1990) proposed model of validity based on honesty in observations, interpretations and generalizations is one example of qualitative researchers’ ideas to generate validity in their research. In opposition to quantitative research methods which adopt a framework of validity to accept the ‘truth’ or ‘falsity’ in observations, qualitative researchers argue against the relevance of such a framework in qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 1989) in favor of different procedures to achieve validity in their research (Kirk & Miller, 1986) claiming that validity is relevant primarily to accounts, not to data or methods (Maxwell, 2002) and asserting that the concept of understanding is far more essential in qualitative research than validity (Wolcott, 1990).

Maxwell (2002) offers five categories of validity to be employed in qualitative research: descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, generalisability, and evaluative validity. Theoretical validity was part of the analysis process in this research as it “explicitly addresses the theoretical constructions that the researcher brings to, or develops during, the study” (Maxwell, 2002, p. 50). An accurate explanation of the phenomena is at the base of theoretical validity as production of data to support the theory emerging in this research was collected to ‘fit’ the theory to the existing data. “The patterns, concepts, categories, properties, and dimensions must fit together to create the constructs, which must tell the story of the phenomena” (Thomson, 2004, p. 6). As patterns surface from the diary entries, supportive data from primary and secondary sources were collected to form a connection between the theory and the existing data.

Diary entries from the researcher’s one year of teaching experience in Korea, with the collection of journal articles and government publications were some of the methods included in the collection of data as part of qualitative and interpretive approaches included in this research. This data will later be the basis for the development of three scenarios in accordance with the three themes.

The Scenarios Method

Scenario-based learning is a method used in schools to experience problem-solving and problem-seeking processes. In addition to exploring a variety of issues that are related to the problem in hand, the method uses a decision-making process so that professional judgment can take place (Errington 1997, 2003). This method was originally developed in the 1970s for medical schools in order for students who work in groups to participate in a meaning-making, rather than fact-collecting learning process (Frantz, 2002; Rankin, 1993). In this research, this method was employed to explore the three themes of rote learning, national examinations and motivation to learn the English language. While exploring these themes, reflection as part of the decision-making process took place in conjunction with the events that were raised from the diary entries in order to reach professional judgments about possible solutions.

In the conclusion of this thesis a ‘scenario’ approach will address different issues arising from the research and three scenarios will suggest further research. “The main purpose of developing scenarios is to *stimulate thinking* about possible occurrences, assumptions relating these occurrences, possible opportunities and risks, and courses of action” (Jarke, et al., 1998, p. 156). Schwartz (1991) suggested scenarios as tools to create alternative future environments where the participating actors’ decisions might change; therefore researchers can use this technique to try to create other future realities under different circumstances. Causality in scenarios according to

Van der Heijden (2005, p. 3) “...appeals more to the intuitive needs of the typical decision makers in their search for enhanced understanding of the changing structures in society”.

Desk research is the process of gathering information from secondary sources and analysing the data that emerges from it (Van Notten, 2006). Through the analytical process of the data gathered for desk research, an “Outside-in” perspective and

positive scenarios (Ogilvy, 2006) can form. In this way, the researcher was able to develop her three positive scenarios. Positive scenarios are more difficult to produce as they deal with a reality different than the one the reader knows. The opposite is easier because the writer can “just describe the demise of what you already know” (Ogilvy, 2006, p. 24). Simple scenarios can highlight priorities for development (K. Van der Heijden, et al., 2002), they require less resources and might focus on a particular niche (Van Notten, 2006). In this research, simple and positive scenarios will propose three alternative futures to the education system in Korea. It is an important process to develop and analyse multiple futures as it “promotes a responsive and effective strategy, delivering control in an uncertain and rapidly changing environment.” (K. Van der Heijden, et al., 2002, p. 86).

Outcomes of the research in relation to rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language will be suggested in the scenarios as “The significance of scenario thinking lies in its ability to help overcome thinking limitations by developing multiple futures” (K. Van der Heijden, et al., 2002, p. 2). Therefore, the researcher will be able to propose possible alterations so positive changes can take place through the use of a scenario approach.

The Research Process

In phase 1 of the research a collection of documents of a primary and secondary nature will be examined in relation to the leading research question. As data will be organized in accordance to the research sub-questions, specific reflections and connections will be a part of the writing process. In phase 2, analysis of the data with correlations, contradictions and gaps between the different documents will be drafted to allow the thinking and implementing of scenarios as the basis for ongoing research projects.

Table 3.1 Research Process

Research Question	Research Process and Data
1. How are rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language, impact on English language teaching and learning in Korea?	Phase 1 General overview involving the collection and analysis of policy and program documents including personal diary entries. Compilation of a reflective journal of issues and themes.
2. How can we construct a new tool in education, scenario building, to explore the relevance of these themes in the Korean context?	Phase 1 As above but with a focus on the detail of specific issues arising from the overview.

3. What is the contribution and impact of policy makers on the way English is being taught in Korea?	Phase 1 As above but becoming more interpretive about the basis of policies and political and educational factors that exist.
4. What is the relationship between the resources allocated to English language programs in Korea and the communicative ability in English of students in these programs?	Phase 2 Analysis of the research data linked to the approaches adopted for English language teaching and learning and the theorising of language teaching and learning practices used in Korea, Australia and elsewhere.
	Phase 2 Drafting of scenarios arising from the above analysis to highlight major issues and insights in the areas of policy, language teaching and social factors. Scenarios to form the basis for ongoing research projects.

In this Chapter, an outline of the methodologies that were chosen to use in this research was made. The qualitative and interpretive methods to conduct this research were an important selection as they allowed the researcher to look for evidence for the impact that rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language have on English language teaching and learning in Korea. Together with the incorporation of the Glaserian approach to Grounded Theory method, the researcher was able to develop her theory while she was interpreting the data from diary entries and primary and secondary documents. This ongoing process of collection and analysis of information was the basis of this research and it enabled the researcher to theorise during the process instead of trying to prove or disprove a theory. As a result, scenario planning was the method chosen for ongoing reflection and thinking about possible changes to the state of Korean English language learning and teaching. The process of drafting the three scenarios according to the three themes, produced a better understanding of the way we can construct this new tool in education, scenario building, to explore its relevance in the Korean context. Throughout the process of scenario building, the researcher was trying to take into account all participating actors in the Korean academic environment.

The following Chapter will outline the three themes that were identified in the diary entries and were supported with primary and secondary documents. The discussion and findings in Chapter 4 are the basis for the research first question in which it explores the impact of rote learning, national examinations and types of motivations to learn the English language, on English language teaching and learning in Korea.

Chapter 4

Discussion and Findings

Themes Arising from Data Analysis

In this section, three themes will be identified and discussed. These themes have emerged from the data while analysing primary and other documents and the diary entries. They highlight the main difficulties in English language learning and teaching in Korea related to the main questions of this research.

The following table provided the researcher with an organisation tool for the data analysis from primary and secondary documents, as well as the diary entries. In this way, the three research themes were able to be formed. Support for the different stages of the analysis and discussion of issues were drafted from these sources.

Table 4.2 Organisation and Decoding of Documents and Diary Entries.

Primary Documents	
(PD1)	OECD (1998) – Review of national policies for education: Korea.
Resources	
(R1)	Jing (2007) – An overview of researches on English (L2) vocabulary strategies in China over the last decade (1997-2006).
(R2)	Ellis and Sinclair (1996) - Working memory in the acquisition of vocabulary and syntax: Putting language in good order.
(R3)	Cheng (1990) – Understanding the culture and behaviour of East Asians: A Confucian perspective.
(R4)	Wing (1996) - The cultural context for Chinese learners: Conceptions of learning in the Confucian tradition.
(R5)	Sagarra and Alba - The key is in the keyword: L2 vocabulary learning methods with beginning learners of Spanish.
(R6)	Van Rossum and Schenk (1984) - The relationship between learning conception, study strategy and learning outcome.
(R7)	Watkins (1983) - The relationship between learning conception, study strategy and learning outcome.
(R8)	Watkins (1991) - The-Asian-Learner-as-a-Rote-Learner Stereotype: Myth or Reality?

- (R9) Dahlin and Watkins (2000) - The role of repetition in the processes of memorising and understanding: A comparison of the views of German and Chinese secondary school students in Hong Kong.
- (R10) Marton, Dalli'Alba and Tse (1996) - Memorizing and understanding: The keys to the paradox.
- (R11) McGuire (2007) - Why has the critical thinking movement not come to Korea?
- (R12) Sin and Shin (1999) - Mass politics and culture in democratizing Korea.
- (R13) Lee (1996) – The cultural context for the Asian learners: Conceptions of learning in the Confucian tradition.
- (R14) Fitzpatrick and Wray (2006). Breaking up is not so hard to do: Individual differences in L2 memorization.
- (R15) Degroot, Dannenburg and Vanhell (1994). Forward and backward word translation by bilinguals.
- (R16) Mayer (2002). Rote versus meaningful learning.
- (R17) Krashen (1997). Foreign language education the easy way.
- (R18) Cho (2007). The Diaspora of Korean Children: A Cross-Cultural Study of the Educational Crisis in Contemporary South Korea.
- (R19) Seth (2002). Education fever: society, politics, and the pursuit of schooling in South Korea.
- (R20) Cho (1995). Children in the examination war in South Korea: A cultural analysis.
- (R21) Kim and Lee (2006). Changing facets of Korean higher education: Market competition and the role of the state.
- (R22) Kwon and Park (2000). Australia-Korea relations in education: Issues and prospects.
- (R23) Lee and Larson (2000). The Korean examination hell: Long hours of studying, distress, and depression.
- (R24) Lee (2004). The School Equalization Policy of Korea: Past Failures and Proposed Measure for Reform.
- (R25) Shim and Park (2008). The Language Politics of 'English Fever' in South Korea.
- (R26) Guilloteaux (2007). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of teachers' motivational practices and students' motivation.

- (R27) Gardner (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation.
- (R28) Gardner and Lambert (1959). Motivational variables in second-language acquisition.
- (R29) Liuolien and Metiuniene (2006). Second Language Learning Motivation.
- (R30) Trottier (2008a). Towards a Sociocultural Perspective on Korean English Villages: A Reply to Stephen Krashen.
- (R31) Trottier (2008b). A research approach to investigating curricular innovation: Negotiating the stakeholders and gatekeepers of Korean English language teaching.
- (R32) KPF (2007). An English World Within Korea.
- (R33) Dewey (1916). Democracy and education [electronic resource]: an introduction to the philosophy of education.
- (R34) Lee (2006). Crossing and crossers in East Asian pop music: Korea and Japan.
- (R35) Loveday (1996). Language contact in Japan: A socio-linguistic history
- (R36) Courtney (2008). International Posture, L2 Motivation, and L2 Proficiency among South Korean Tertiary EFL Learners.
- (R37) Murray (2005). Self-determination theory in a collectivist educational context: motivation of Korean students studying English as a foreign language.
- (R38) Prey (2005). How do you say 'imperialism' ? The English language teaching industry and the culture of imperialism in South Korea.
- (R39) Riding and Sadler-Smith (1997). Cognitive style and learning strategies: Some implications for training design.
- (R40) Sternberg and Grigorenko (1997). Are cognitive styles still in style?
- (R41) Vermunt (1996). Metacognitive, cognitive and affective aspects of learning styles and strategies: A phenomenographic analysis.
- (R42) Cheng (1990). Understanding the culture and behaviour of East Asians: A Confucian perspective.
- (R43) Kember (2000). Misconceptions about the learning approaches, motivation and study practices of Asian students.
- (R44) Watkins and Biggs (1996). The Chinese Learner: Cultural, Psychological, and Contextual Influences.

(R45) Village (2012). One week program.

Diary Entries

- (D1) Diary entry 06.12.2006
- (D2) Diary entry 31.11.2006
- (D3) Diary entry 31.01.2007
- (D4) Diary entry 17.11.2006
- (D5) Diary entry 31.09.2006
- (D6) Diary entry 01.11.2006
- (D7) Diary entry 12.04.2007
- (D8) Diary entry 09.05.2007
- (D9) Diary entry 20.03.2007
- (D10) Diary entry 23.02.2007
- (D11) Diary entry 11.04.2007
- (D12) Diary entry 17.09.2007
- (D13) Diary entry 27.04.2007
- (D14) Diary entry 30.11.2006
- (D15) Diary entry 27.05.2007
- (D16) Diary entry 14.03.2007
- (D17) Diary entry 03.06.2007
- (D18) Diary entry 13.06.2007
- (D19) Diary entry 16.12.2006
- (D20) Diary entry 13.11.2006

The next table consolidates the overall research process and indicates diary entries that support each of the three themes. The research questions have been considered discursively from this data set meaning that issues and themes arising from the data inform and clarify the questions for continued investigation.

Table 4.2 Consolidation of Research Questions and Themes Arising

Research Question	Research Process	Themes Arising	Diary Entries
<p>How do rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language impact on English language teaching and learning in Korea?</p> <p>How can we construct a new tool in education, scenario building, to explore the relevance of these themes in the Korean context?</p>	<p>Phase 1. General overview including compilation and analysis of literature, documents and diary entries.</p> <p>Phase 2. Continuing data analysis and discussion, identification of themes and drafting of scenarios.</p>	<p>Rote learning as the main learning instrument</p> <p>Motivation to learn English</p> <p>Consequences of examinations</p>	<p>D1, D2, D3, D4, D14, D15, D16</p> <p>D5, D6, D7, D8, D17, D19, D20</p> <p>D9, D10, D11, D12, D13, D18</p>

Theme 1 - Rote Learning

Many memorisation techniques have been used for second language learning. Recombination, word lists, repetition, elaboration and contextualization, auditory representation, word formation, and key words are some of these techniques. The techniques for second language learning can be sectioned into four main areas: memory, form, meaning, and use.

Rote memorisation (or rote learning) is a technique incorporating unthinkingly memorising the translation of the first language (L1) word to a second language (L2) word without necessarily understanding. As in learning strategies, a definition of memory of vocabulary can be “mental or behavioral activity related to processing and storing lexical information”(R1)(Jing, 2007, p. 7). One of the goals of rote memorisation is to add new information to memory which will be available to use at a later stage. As (R2) Ellis and Sinclair (1996) found, short-term memory rehearsal and representation allow long-term memory to use the words in a sequence to create language.

Rote learning is popular among East Asian students as it congruent with a Confucian heritage and thinking. Rote learning does not promote hypothetical reasoning that is important for independent thinking and detaching the individual from a moral system (Confucian in our case). Instead, the Confucian tradition “... depends heavily on rote learning, and the emulation of role models as its means of learning” (R3) (Cheng, 1990, p. 512). Confucius believed that “everyone is

educable” (R4) (Wing, 1996, p. 28) but different in their intelligence. Nevertheless, the incentives and attitudes to learn inhibit one’s educability. When further investigating this document, it became clear that Confucian teachings stress the importance of education for its innate value hence aspire towards a deep approach to learning as opposed to a surface one (R4) (Wing, 1996). The attempt to “... reduce learning to a surface approach is subject to criticism” (R4) (Wing, 1996, p. 34). Yet, rote learning creates minimum depth of processing of information (R5) (Sagarra & Alba, 2006) and as such, during this research, documents were found to show that relying only on a surface level of study is most likely to produce low quality learning outcomes (R6, R7, R8) (Van Rossum & Schenk, 1984; Watkins, 1983, 1991).

The following diary entry demonstrates a difficulty with learning which the researcher witnessed.

(D15)

I cannot believe that my students are unable to create sentences with new words they learnt over and over in the past hour. I don’t think that they understand the meaning of words or their function in a sentence.

27.11.2006 Researcher’s Diary

Even though the above diary entry and the data collected provided evidence of surface level of study, further examination of the issue introduced the researcher to the Asian learner paradox. The Asian learner paradox creates an ambiguity towards rote learning. Teaching practices and philosophies in Asia are believed by Westerners to be aimed at memorisation instead of enhancing understanding. If so, how can Asian students outperform Western students in similar of the same examinations conducted both in Asian academic environments and Western ones? (R9, R10) (Dahlin & Watkins, 2000; Marton, Dall’Alba, & Tse, 1996). The paradox lies in the contradiction between the surface approach to learning and the superior performance outcomes. The following diary entry demonstrates rote learning as was evidenced by the researcher not only in her subject of teaching English, but also in other languages.

(D1)

“My students study in the hallway while they wait for the lesson to start. I noticed that they not only memorise the English sentences from our book but they also memorise Chinese characters and Japanese paragraphs.”

06.12.2006 Researcher’s Diary

This diary entry was taken after the researcher noticed the same method of rote learning taking place in the private institute in which she was working. It was surprising for the researcher to find that the students learnt English phrases and words but they were not able to construct new sentences with them, nor were they

able to use the phrases they learned in a conversation. The researcher also noted in the diary entry that the students' application of rote learning in other subjects.

In Korea, the application of rote memorisation is noticeable in all areas of the education system. When investigating this aspect, an OECD document noted that "... memorization of knowledge and excessive private tutoring are the rule rather than the exception" in Korea (PD1) (OECD, 1998, p. 25). As noted by (R11) McGuire (2007, p. 230): "One of the widely acknowledged weaknesses of the [Korean] system is its over-reliance on teacher-centered instructional methodologies involving rote-memorization."

When the establishment of the educational system took place in the newly democratized Korea, a blend of Confucian, Japanese and American ideologies contested to shape it. Confucian beliefs gave education the ideas of the power to transform the individual as well as the society one lives in. Japanese education contributed to make education the tool to create a rich and powerful state. The American concept of education for all allowed for a blending of values in the Korean education framework. When investigating the influence of Confucian, Japanese and American beliefs in Korean society, a document collecting data in six surveys conducted between 1988 and 1997 indicated that although democratic values and egalitarianism in politics were adopted by Koreans, Confucian authoritarian values were still strong (R12) (Sin & Shin, 1999). A similar document (R13) Bae (as cited in W. O. Lee, 1996, p. 28) indicated that:

"a great majority of Koreans are marked by an outstanding enthusiasm for education... Koreans have traditionally regarded education as 'the most reliable property' ... although it must also be noted here that the long tradition of Confucian teaching firmly implanted in their minds the belief that education is of paramount importance in a man's (sic) life".

The two following diary entries exhibit the practice of rote learning in daily class practices and the Confucian authoritarian stance of Korean teachers at school.

(D2)

In our school there are Korean English teachers and us, the native English speakers, and exams are divided between us.

"Daily Spelling exam – Every day students have to learn how to spell 10-20 words, in which I read them out and the students have to spell them in their special spelling notebooks. Afterwards, they rotate the spelling notebooks clockwise or anticlockwise for the students to check each other's spelling. I was surprised how honest the students were when they checked the notebooks. Students who did not score more than 80% had to stay back and do the test again with the Korean English teacher"

25.09.2006 Researcher's Diary

(D16)

Korean teachers are responsible for the first drilling of vocabulary. They will read the words and ask the class to repeat. The problem I saw with it is that the Korean teachers have a heavy accent, therefore the students repeat pronunciation mistakes which we, the native English speakers, had to try and correct later on. This practice can only take place when the Korean teacher is not in the class so they will not be embarrassed in front of the class. I find it quite hard to correct the students' pronunciation and they tell me that the Korean teacher was saying it like this so it has to be right.

14.03.2007 Researcher's diary

These two diary entries indicate the strong Confucian authoritarian values in Korea as experienced by the researcher. As part of an everyday practice, students have to memorise words and their translations in Korean then they are tested in writing during the first 10 minutes of each class. As mentioned before, students were unable to use the words in sentences, nor were they able to understand the new words when the researcher used them in new sentences:

(D14)

After noticing that my students don't know how to use the new words in sentences, I tried constructing new sentences for them to see if they understand the meaning of the words and their function in sentences. Out of 30 students, only 4 of them were able to understand my simple sentences like:

"Dana lives in Melbourne", "The table and the chair are blue", "It is cold in winter".

30.11.2006 Researcher's diary

The above diary entry supports the claim made previously that rote learning promotes a surface level of study and does not promote hypothetical reasoning. The application of rote memorisation was evident to the researcher when students at all levels were memorising full sentences from a list attached to the course books. The Korean English teacher would read the L1 sentence and students would repeat it in the L2. This practice will repeat itself during 'phone teaching'* and the monthly exams as part of each students' oral mark. (* 'Phone teaching' is an activity in which the teacher will call the student once a week for a 5-minute chat about the learned material. As part of 'phone teaching', students will be asked by the Korean teacher to "answer me in English". The Korean teacher will read out a question in Korean and the student will have to give the exact answer as it appears in the book. Any other answer, even if it is correct, will not be accepted by the Korean teacher and the student will have to repeat the answer until it matches the answer in the book.)

Koreans apply rote memorisation while studying Chinese characters, as this study is based on the kind of photographic memory required by this method. (R14)

Fitzpatrick and Wray (2006, p. 35) noted that “In China, memorization is a popular approach to study... and can be highly effective provided that it consolidates and/or facilitates understanding”. Korean students rarely used the words they memorized meaningfully or in context; instead they repeated them to pass their exams. Their ability to construct a five-word sentence with the words they knew so well from their spelling tasks was problematic as shown in the following entry.

(D3)

“I found a big gap between the ability of my students to spell words in the spelling test that I conduct at the beginning of each lesson and their ability to construct a sentence with the words. At the end of the spelling test I write the words on the board so the students can check their peers’ spelling. When all 10 words were on the board and the checking was over, I asked students to verbally make up sentences with the words. At first, 3 word sentences were suggested but when I asked for a 5-word sentence there were no answers. The students just looked at each other, then at me and silence was in the class. After I gave the students a few examples, the students tried to construct sentences but none of the sentences were good grammatically. The only sentences the students were able to produce were the ones they already memorised from the learned book, hence they just recited them with no understanding. This exercise was repeated in all of my classes and the result was almost the same.”

31.01.2007 Researcher’s Diary

This diary entry emphasis again how wide is the gap between the ability of the students to understand the words they learn and to use them in sentences. The next diary entry was chosen to manifest the ubiquitous use of rote learning with vocabulary rehearsal. Vocabulary rehearsal is relatively easy to test and rote learning is beneficial for good results in productive tests (R15) (Degroot, Dannenburg, & Vanhell, 1994). However, it does not create understanding of the function or semantic of the word in a sentence, nor does it allow the students to use the words productively.

(D4)

At the beginning of each book, the students will read out the words from a-z that appear at the end of the book as a word list. The Korean English teacher hands out a photocopy of the back page with the words and their Korean translation, then the students attach the photocopy on top of the original back pages and by doing that, transforming the word list into a dictionary. The repetition occurs as follows. At first, the students repeat after the Korean teacher, she reads the word in English, the students repeat after her and afterward she reads it in English and Korean and the students repeat after her. I have to indicate that some pronunciation mistakes have also been repeated. This process takes about 20 minutes. In the 30 minutes left of the lesson, the students repeat the words in the following method. The students sit at a round shaped table and the first student to sit next to the teacher reads the words

one by one, in English and Korean, and the students repeat after him/her. Each student reads the words and the class repeats them.

In this way, 2 objectives are fulfilled:

1. The class repeats the words up to 10 times (as per the number of the students)
2. The students are listening and correcting the pronunciation of each student when it is their turn to call out the words.

17.11.2006 Researcher's Diary

The above diary entry is similar to diary entry (D16) (p.61) as both demonstrate that the practice of rote learning is incorporated into major parts of lessons and generates pronunciation errors.

The idea of knowledge acquisition was investigated and a document by (R16) Mayer (2002) noted that knowledge acquisition can be divided into two important parts: retention and transfer. While retention aims to recall the memorised material, transfer is “the ability to use what was learned to solve new problems, answer new questions, or facilitate learning new subject matter”(R16)(Mayer, 2002, p. 226).

Different approaches to learning are the affect of different social and educational experiences (R39, R40, R41) (Riding & Sadler-Smith, 1997; Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1997; Vermunt, 1996). The deep approach and the surface approach represent two sides to learning. While the deep approach cultivates ongoing inquiry during learning in order for the learner to achieve comprehension of texts, the surface approach advocates mechanical rote learning which results in a low level of understanding of texts.

Even though critiques to the view of Asian education have been researched while analysing primary and other documents (R42, R43, R44) (Cheng, 1990; Kember, 2000; Watkins & Biggs, 1996) the diary entries of the researcher repeatedly showed that rote learning and the surface approach were common practices.

In learning a new language, the acquisition of new vocabulary does not stand alone from the whole process of learning a language. Creating meaningful sentences or utterances to allow for the transmission of ideas, feelings and descriptions of situations is an important aspect of the many functions of language. The correctly contextualized application of known vocabulary is one of the means to create language. It is easy to test and mark the knowledge of new vocabulary. If the students are unable to use the newly taught words in meaningful sentences and are unable to retain knowledge of the purposeful use of new vocabulary, the process of learning may be meaningless. Teachers who concentrate solely on rote learning are attracting a focus on “remembering elements or fragments of knowledge, often in isolation from any context” (R16) (Mayer, 2002, p. 228). (R17) Krashen (1997, p.5) stated the following: “... The more comprehensible input people obtain in the target language, the more acquisition takes place”. Therefore, the dislocation of vocabulary from its function and semantics, as happened with the rote learning of vocabulary and which was found repeatedly in the diary entries, will minimize

acquisition. The application of transferable knowledge will not take place in the process of learning the new language. This is one of the concerns related to rote learning. In the next section how rote learning is also a part of the examination system endured by Korean students will be discussed.

Theme 2 – National Examinations

“Testing, as a useful tool is sustaining the system of meritocracy and equality for all, is an unavoidable practice in modern democratic societies, especially in the field of education” (R18) (Y. E. Cho, 2007, p. 10).

The next diary entry demonstrates the wide use of testing in the Korean school in which the researcher worked. It is important to note that this practice was not solely done in this school but in many schools in which other English native speakers worked and which will be indicated in diary entry (D19) (p.115)

(D5)

Last week we had exam week. Apparently at the end of each month we will have 3 days dedicated to exams.

In general, there are 3 major exams: Daily spelling exam, weekly exam and a monthly exam.

Daily Spelling exam – Every day students have to learn how to spell 10-20 words, in which I read them out and the students have to spell them in their special spelling notebooks. Afterwards, they rotate the spelling notebooks clockwise or anticlockwise for the students to check each other’s spelling.

Weekly Test - This listening test has to be completed and handed in to the Korean English teacher on Friday. The test is about the weekly learnt unit. These tests can be found on the Internet at <http://www.ossclub.com/>.

Monthly Test – This test is made of 2 parts. The first is a speaking test with me the native English teacher, and the second part is a written test about the four units that were learnt during the month.

It looks to me like this marathon of tests is losing the idea of learning a second language. The students as well as the Korean English teachers are always in a state of studying for, preparing or checking exams. This distracts all parties from the main idea of this private institute, which is, having extra help in STUDYING English and not routinely testing the students.

31.09.2006 Researcher’s Diary

This diary entry demonstrates the ongoing examination processes that the students were going through in the private tutoring institute where the researcher worked. The researcher found it not to be beneficial for the students to be constantly tested as she viewed private tutoring as a tool to help students gain a better understanding of the English language by practicing the use of the language and not by continuously testing knowledge of it.

As mentioned before, in Confucian society, education is central to one's life. It contributes to the society one lives in as well as one's self education. It is important to understand the history of examinations and contemporary examination practices in Korea to correctly analyse the importance of the English language in such an educational system.

Entrance examinations are not new in Korean society. During the Korean kingdom (1392-1910), succeeding in the civil servant examination (*kwago* in Korean) was the aspiration of Koreans, as it transformed the lives of the individuals who passed the examination into lives of success, wealth and respect to the family lineage. "Neo-Confucianism, and the examination system became virtually the only route to high government office" (R19) (Seth, 2002, p. 9). As a result, the pursuit of education was constant in order to pass the examination and hence, improve one's life. "...During the last dynasty of feudal Korea (as in China) the ultimate goal of the gentry class was to pass the government examination to become civil servants. By passing the literary examination, one could accomplish everything" (R20) (H. J. Cho, 1995, p. 145). In order to continue with the investigation of examination practices in Korea, the research was focused on the Japanese colonial years (1905-1945). Throughout these years, the research found that primary education was offered to all Koreans while middle school, college and university education was conditional to success in entrance examinations for each level of schooling (R19) (Seth, 2002, p. 31). Competition for a place in these higher education institutions was intense as applicants outnumbered places, and the pressure evident in primary school students in Japan was transmitted to Korean students in Korea. "The scores on middle school entrance exams largely determined a young person's life chances" (R19) (Seth, 2002, p. 31). The exam had been intended to give students an equal chance to gain higher education, but instead created fierce competition between families with exam 'tunnel' vision.

The situation did not change with the establishment of the Korean state: "up until late 1960s, each middle school and high school, regardless of public or private, was allowed to choose students through a competitive entrance examination" (R21) (S. Kim & Lee, 2006, p. 562). Further investigation found that even when the government introduced the secondary equalization policy in 1969, where students were allocated to schools by lottery, the burden of private tutoring and entrance examinations was not relieved. In 1980, the government increased higher education enrolment quotas to create a better opportunity for Korean students with the elimination of enrolment quotas in 1995 except in the Seoul metropolitan area (R21) (S. Kim & Lee, 2006, p. 564). In the last sixty years, the government tried to change the entrance examination system eight times (R20) (H. J. Cho, 1995) in the name of an egalitarian education system and fairer opportunities for all Korean students.

The following diary entry demonstrates the impact of the College Scholastic Ability Test or CSAT examination on Korean students and teachers.

(D6)

In our school we have 3 classes that are dedicated to prepare the students to the university exam. I've only been teaching in this school for 6 weeks but I can feel the tension among the Korean teachers and the students preparing for the exam which is in two weeks time.

01.11.2006 Researcher's diary

This account emphasizes the apprehension that was felt by the researcher after a short time working in Korea. Students and teachers alike were pressured to succeed in the exam, as later the researcher found out, it determine the students' academic future and the Korean teachers' prestige. The next diary entry reveals the practice of examinations being a major part of other schools' practices.

(D19)

As we integrated in the expat community in our city, Jeonju, I found that other Native English speakers that teach the English language in private institutions similar to ours, are amazed by the amount of exams they need to conduct and the frequency of these exams.

16.12.2006 Researcher's Diary

The current College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT), the official, national college entrance examination since 1993, is controlled and administered by the Korean Ministry of Education (MOE) and it is taken nationally once a year, on the third Thursday of the month of November. The Exam is divided into three main areas: Language (Korean), mathematics/inquiry, and foreign language (manly English). University entrance is conditional on three criteria:

1. Secondary school grades.
2. College Scholastic Ability Test score.
3. Individual University entrance examination scores.

Eligibility for most universities is based on a combination of the first two components (R22) (Kwon & Park S. G., 2000). Until 1971, when the entrance examination was for middle school, the fifth and sixth grade instruction was directed at preparation for the exam. Later when the secondary school equalisation policy took place in 1973, the university entrance examination received the most attention and preparation for it started at lower levels until "most children began their private lessons and after-school classes in primary school, if not earlier" (R19) (Seth, 2002, p. 157). Lee and Larson (R23) (2000, p. 251) reported the practice of "...memorising answers to multiple choice questions and practicing solving problems that may appear on the university entrance examination". This practice, of

preparation for the examination goes further. When questions are asked by students they have to be associated with the examination, otherwise these questions will be perceived as a waste of time by both the Korean teachers and classmates. During the twelfth year of Korean secondary school life, "...students are given repeated school examinations, which may include 'weekly exams', monthly exams', 'mid-terms', 'finals', and 'university entrance practice exams'" (R23) (M. Lee & Larson, 2000, p. 251).

The following diary entry indicates a further concern about this.

(D20)

My year 7 students looked exhausted today. When I asked them what is wrong, they said that this week is preparation week for next week's examinations. I felt unease that I have to examine them the week after that.

13.11.2006 Researcher's Diary

This pressure on students created an educational environment which could be a fertile ground for mental depression. Lee and Larson (R23) (2000) found in their research that East Asian students showed more signs of depression than their US counterparts with links to the examination routines the students have to go through. "This high prevalence of depression is mainly blamed on the so-called 'examination hell' (or 'examination war') that East Asian adolescents go through while preparing for the competitive university entrance examination" (R23) (M. Lee & Larson, 2000, p. 250). The expectations of parents seemingly forced onto their children, together with the investment of time and money Korean families put into their academic training, creates great pressure on the students to pass the exam.

The next diary entry evidences this concern.

(D17)

I noticed that one of my students in year 7 did not come to class for the past week. When I asked the Korean teacher about the student, she said that the student's mother said she will not come to class in the next month because she cries a lot at home and feels enormous pressure with her studies.

03.06.2007 Researcher's Diary

The above diary entry demonstrates the pressure that year 7 students feel in Korea to achieve high grades and the depression it might inflict on them as a result.

To get a high score in the CSAT examination guarantees entry to prestigious universities. All these factors may contribute to students' possibility of developing depression. (R24) Lee's (2004) paper discusses the impact of this on the egalitarian policy. His findings indicate not only the failure of the egalitarian policy but also the intensification of the negative consequences of an examination-focused education system. The paper indicates that "the equalization policy has lowered

levels of academic achievement” (R24) (J. H. Lee, 2004, p. 221) therefore many Korean families are seeking an alternative education that will increase their children’s chance to get high scores in the university entrance exam.

The tendency of Korean families to provide their children with private tuition was found in a report published by Samsung Economic Research Institution. This report noted that Korean families spent US\$15.6 billion on English language tutoring in 2006 alone (R18)(Y. E. Cho, 2007), an amount of money that emphasises the value of English language education to Korean families.

The next diary entry will reveal the impact of exams not only on Korean students and teachers but also on schools and private language institutions.

(D7)

This month we have an added exam for the students, which is an exam that is administered by the head office, between all the franchises on Saturday to determine which branch is the most successful in educating their students. In other words, it is an exam to check if the students that are placed in classes by their level of English, cope with the learnt material. The exam is on Saturday, and I can really feel the buzz in the air for it. Our boss is really pushing the teachers to prepare the students for the exam by repeating the vocabulary they learned, saying over and over again the sentences taken from the conversations in their books, and at the end of each lesson, give the students a part of a mock exam the teachers prepared, based on exams from past years. The Korean teachers check the exams, write remarks about the students and discuss the situation of each class at the end of each day in a special meeting they have with the boss. As I understood it, this is a very important exam for the reputation of the school, as the results will be published nationally, and a good mark would give a lot of respect to the school and our boss.”

12.04.2007 Researcher’s Diary

This diary entry is congruent with diary entry (D6) where teachers’ prestige and an institutes’ prestige are constantly being examined. This diary entry also supports diary entry (D5) where the researcher observed tests taking place every month. This conflicted with her belief that students in private language tutoring institutes should practice the English language more.

Teachers have expressed their concern and frustration over the examinations, accusing them of creating a teaching style that is aimed to succeed in the exam instead of a process of learning. The upper grades of schools prepare students for multiple choice questions with a method “based on memorizing factual information” (R19) (Seth, 2002, p. 143). To further investigate the point of view of teachers in this issue, the researcher found ‘The South Korean Teachers and Educational Workers’ Union’ booklet. This union, which was established in 1989, as an illegal organisation but was recognised by the Korean government in 1999 writes in its booklet:

The need for reform is identified primarily on four grounds:
(1) education for the university entrance exam has forced

students to engage in inhuman competition; (2) education has become a tool for the will of the successive ruling regimes; (3) the educational environment is extremely poor; (4) the administration has repressed teachers' autonomy to an extreme.

(R20)(H. J. Cho, 1995, p. 153).

This expression of solicitude for their profession with the social and policy compulsions about the methods of their teaching produced a false situation where education for learning became second to passing the university entrance examination, as it continues to state "The education system has become merely a gateway to universities" (R20) (H. J. Cho, 1995, p. 153). Even university professors have admitted the system sets the students' minds to think too mechanically: "Many university professors think that ninth-grade students are better qualified than university freshmen to take various university level humanities and social science courses, because their minds have not yet been rigidified by intense, test oriented studying" (R20) (H. J. Cho, 1995, p. 149).

The following diary entry demonstrates that the practice for preparing for examinations is ubiquitous in private educational institutions.

(D8)

"Everywhere you look you can see an English private school and a lot of them have the signs of TOEFL or TOEIC. These schools claim to be authorised or specialised in preparing students for these exams.

09.05.2007 Researcher's diary

Another aspect of examinations in the English language was found in this research as mentioned in the above diary entry. Koreans undertake English exams such as the 'Test Of English as a Foreign Language' (TOEFL) for admission to universities and secondary schools and as part of their job applications for national companies (R25) (D. Shim & Park, 2008). To confirm this practice, the researcher found (R26) Guilloteaux's (2007, p. 18) document to note "The qualifications that they [Koreans] seek are those recognized by government offices and large companies."

Exams are a major part of Koreans' academic life. This practice is so powerful that it forced changes to the way the English language has been taught and learned in Korea. Teachers, students and parents are the driving force behind these changes, even though the Korean Ministry of Education tried in several ways to change the selection process for schools and universities. The university entrance examination, CSAT, has much influence on the way English language learning and teaching is applied in Korea, as the English language is one of the three main sections of it.

Exams are also part of the explanation for the impact on English language teaching and learning in Korea. In a Confucian society, such as Korea, education and social status are strongly connected. Therefore, success in exams can possibly mean a higher social status and higher paid employment opportunities. These aspects are

part of the motivation of Korean students to learn English, which might help explain the impact on the way English language is taught and learned in Korea, the next theme.

Theme 3 - Motivation

Motivation of learners in second language acquisition can be influenced by many factors both external and internal to the learner. Motivation impacts learners throughout the process of acquiring a second language and is the activating force for behaviours and attitudes towards the activities involved in learning a second language. Gardner (R27) (1985, p. 10) defined motivation as “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity”. This Canadian researcher, together with Lambert (R28) (Gardner & Lambert, 1959) laid the foundations for motivation research in the field of second language acquisition, when they divided motivation into two orientations: an integrative orientation and an instrumental orientation.

An Instrumental orientation is driven by the pragmatic benefits of second language competence for the learner such as a better career path, higher salary or travel. It is less interpersonal and more utilitarian as the learner sees the rewards of achieving proficiency in the second language. An integrative orientation refers to the positive tendency toward the second language community with the desire to ‘assimilate’ in the second language society, together with the “willingness to be like valued members of the language community” (R28) (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 271). (R29) Liuolien & Metiuniene (2006, p. 94) noted that an integrative orientation is interpersonal in its essence and promotes the will “to increase the affiliation with the target community”. Both orientations are important for the second language learner and they contribute to enhance motivation to learn a second language.

The following diary entry indicates evidence of instrumental orientation before this type of orientation was known by the researcher.

(D9)

“It looks to me like my students are learning English because they are pressured by their parents to study and because everyone else is going to private lessons, be it in English, Chinese, science or music.

20.03.2007 Researcher’s diary

The above diary entry demonstrates the social pressure Korean students are under to learn English. The researcher noted that her students’ academic life is influenced by family compulsions and the actions of peers. This demonstrates more of an instrumental orientation rather than an integrative orientation.

The concept of integrative orientation defined by Gardner and Lambert (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 12) as “reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group” has been expended by later work (eg. Yashima, 2002) to an ‘international posture’ rather than social identification and ethnolinguistic identity. In her study, Yashima (Yashima, 2002 p. 63) concludes

“The variables that directly influences WTC [Willingness To Communicate] in a L2 were L2 communication confidence and international posture, which encompassed intergroup approach tendency, intercultural friendship orientation, interest in international vocations and activities, and interest in foreign affairs”. Dörnyei and Csizer (2002) suggested that integrativeness is an internal process of identification within the second language learner’s self-notion as opposed to an internal process where the second language learner identified with an external reference group (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). These views are supported by the following diary entry in the Korean context as well as in diary entry (D13).

(D18)

My students in year 8 see the English language as a supportive instrument that will help them become diplomats.

13.06.2007 Researcher’s Diary

Similarly, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation refers to the motivation within the learner and external to the learner (Deci, 1975; H. D. Brown, 2001). Intrinsic motivation derives from the learner’s inner elements such as joy, interest and pursuit of knowledge while extrinsic motivation is related to the learner’s desire to profit from rewards attached to the second language “or experience attractive consequences that will arise from task completion but are separate from the task itself” (R26) (Guilloteaux, 2007, p. 49). These types of motivation should not however be seen as exclusive and may be more inter-related than expected.

(D10)

My students have spent all of last week in the local English village. The village is an imitation of what Koreans see as Western culture predominantly Anglo-American. The students get a mock passport which they get stamped when they enter the village and it indicates that from now on only English is used. The teachers in the village (some of them are our friends) are mainly North Americans as Koreans love their accent and see it as the standard dialect. Overall it seems to me that the students really enjoyed their week at the English village.

23.02.2007 Researcher’s Diary

The English village concept mentioned in the above diary entry and discussed later in depth enhances the promotion of the English language in Korea. During her English language teaching in Korea, the researcher found that the experience at the local English village was positive for her students. The aim of English village is to raise students’ level of intrinsic motivation while they experience western culture lead by native English language speakers.

Korean students demonstrated both an integrative orientation and an instrumental orientation. Integrative elements in Korean students to learn English are evident in the number of students going overseas to study English mainly to be ‘immersed’ in

the English language. (R25) Shim and Park (2008, p. 150) note that “sending children overseas is often considered to be the most desirable option for children’s English language learning”. Additional investigation found that in 2007 alone, over 29,511 school-aged children left Korea for overseas English studies (R30) (Trottier, 2008a). The need to tackle the flux of both funds and students to English speaking countries saw the idea of the English village. This idea was thought to be means for families to immerse their children in an artificial English language culture, especially for those that could not afford to send their children overseas (R31) (Trottier, 2008b, p. 44). English villages are “places where people can use the English language in a variety of contexts as well as experience English-speaking cultures. All this can happen right here in Korea” (R45) (Village, 2012)

This idea was promoted by politicians like Son Hakgyu, who ran in the elections for the Gyeonggi-do province government’s seat said: “sending your child overseas is too costly, and not sending your child breaks your heart...” with the promise to “build an English village where one can live with foreigners speaking only English, so that your children can receive an English education that is as practical as sending them overseas” (R25) (D. Shim & Park, 2008, p. 151). An investigation of English villages found that they are a simulation of a Korean understanding of an English speaking society with shops, restaurants, police stations, banks, hospitals and other facilities representing an imagined English-speaking society. The teachers in English villages are native English speakers or fluent Korean English speakers. Students spend between 1-12 days engaged in this replicated society. This is an experience-based learning approach in a simulated English speaking community without the need to leave Korea. English villages “... had designed programs in a way that they helped cultivate cosmopolitan qualities such as teamwork, tolerance, global etiquette which are indispensable for grow up as a citizen of the world” (R32) (Korea Press Foundation., 2007). This type of learning promotes intrinsic motivation, as the students are “learning English in an entertaining and friendly environment” (R32) (Korea Press Foundation., 2007). Some of the subjects taught in English villages are science, music, cooking, robotics, global awareness and drama (R30) (Trottier, 2008a, p. 62). The researcher investigated the approach employed by the English villages and found that it coincides with the holistic pedagogy advocated by (R33) Dewey (1916, p. 213) where “...doing becomes a trying; an experiment with the world to find out what it is like; the undergoing becomes instruction – discovery of the connection of things” which allows the students to gain knowledge because it is fun and interesting, hence intrinsically motivating the learners to acquire the second language.

The next diary entry will lead the discussion about Korean use of the English language in pop songs and culture that may indicate integrative motivation.

(D11)

“The song ‘Maria’ by Blondie was translated in part to Korean and apparently it features in a very popular Korean movie. It is very popular on the radio. My students did not believe me that the song is not originally Korean, so I had to bring the original song by Blondie to the class to let them listen to it.

11.04.2007 Researcher’s Diary

To find more evidence of integrative motivation in Korea, the research found that in Korean music, songs incorporated English to associate the singer with English culture and as (R35) Loveday (1996, pp. 132-133) found

Just because Nakayama's [a Japanese singer] songs contain a greater amount of code-switching, it should not be presumed that her fans possess a greater comprehension of English. Rather, the high degree of English contact should be interpreted as symbolic consequence of trying to establish a sophisticated image, which the associations of the English language are seen to be capable of providing.

This use of English is also apparent in Korean pop songs as was found in (R34) Lee's (2006) research. The integrative motivation to belong to the English pop music community creates a sense of youthfulness and a liberating way to express emotions as English communities are perceived as tolerant, individualist and progressive. In his research, (R36) Courtney (2008, p. 69) found "Korean tertiary EFL students... who possessed an open attitude towards the international community were more motivated in their pursuits to acquire English than those who possessed a less open attitude to the international community". These students who wanted to be part of the international community demonstrated integrative orientation as they saw English as the dominant language that can open communication between them and the international community.

(D12)

"I asked my students who are going to sit the university exam in two months, why is it so important to them to get a high score in the exam? Most of them saw it as a ticket to go to Seoul, the capital city, and study there. They see Seoul as the peak of their dreams, the city that if you want to succeed in life you have to study there. I think it undermined the universities that are in this city, Jeonju. One student explained that if he will get into one of the SKY universities he would be able to achieve everything in life. He will bring a lot of respect to his family, get a good job in a big company in Seoul and might live overseas. On top of that he would be able to marry someone beautiful.

17.09.2007 Researcher's Diary

The researcher investigated aspects of instrumental motivation to learn the English language in Korea and found that instrumentally, Korean students are motivated by the aspiration to get a high score in the CSAT examination. By doing so, they can gain entrance to a prestigious university as it is a social springboard in Korean society to upward social mobility, and the ability to obtain a government job or a job in one of the main companies in Korea (R20, R19) (H. J. Cho, 1995; Seth, 2002).

Korea's education system is often regarded as an exam oriented as was noted in documents produced in 1995, 1998, and 2002 (R20, PD1, R19) (H. J. Cho, 1995; OECD, 1998; Seth, 2002). As such, the exams are extrinsically motivating the

learners. However, goals that are driven by performance undermine intrinsic motivation by generating anxiety and pressure on the student and thus possibly disrupting the will to participate in tasks (Rabideau, 2005).

Koreans demonstrate widespread depression which may be due to the ‘examination hell’. East Asian students sit many exams during preparation for the competitive university entrance examination (R23) (M. Lee & Larson, 2000, p. 250). In their research, (R23) Lee and Larson (2000, p. 267) concluded, “We suspect that the Korean college entrance examination creates depression in many youth, partly because it generates this negative emotion”. (R37) Murray (2005, p. 78) noted that Korean middle school students were extrinsically motivated to learn English as she wrote “these Korean students were extrinsically motivated to perform in their English studies, and intrinsic motivation was not an important factor”.

The next diary entry provides further insight into Korean students’ motivation to learn English and the importance they give to the English language at a very early stage of their academic life.

(D13)

This week as part of the weekly speaking exams I asked all my students “what do you want to be when you are older?” I did not know what to expect but I was still surprised by the answers. Many of the students said they wanted to be a diplomat! When I asked why, they replied that they want to serve their country, to be able to live overseas and travel and on top of all of it to gain a prestigious job that will bring their family a lot of happiness. I find it an odd answer as I have never heard students in grades 7-12 thinking of such a profession. I don’t think this profession is on the agenda of students anywhere else and I was happy to know that English was perceived by my Korean students as an important tool to be able to fulfil their dream.

27.04.2007 Researcher’s Diary

Korea is a collectivist society and government control is one of the characteristics of it as was noted in (R3) Cheng (1990) and (R19) Seth (2002). As such, politicians are looked up to and are set as the ultimate example. During the investigation of the influence of politicians on English education, the researcher found that politicians have been advocating English language education as essential to Korean society. In 1982 the Korean president, Chun Doo-hwan declared in his public speech “I know that most other Asian countries are sending their students for English vacation tours so we must do the same here” (R38) (Prey, 2005, p. 54). This opened the gates for the outflow of Korean students to learn English overseas. More recently President Roh Moo-Hyun stated in April 2007: “English is a must in order to catch up with the stream of globalisation. The biggest competitive edge that Finland and other rapidly-growing advanced countries have is English-speaking people” (R25) (D. Shim & Park, 2008, p. 146). These statements emphasise the importance of English to Koreans in the effort to advance within the international community. They also stress the individual’s responsibility to the Korean state in order to make Korea a valuable member of the international business community.

The above motivational factors might give a possible explanation to the impact motivation has on English language learning and teaching in Korea. The information that was found indicated that Korean students were more instrumentally motivated than integratively oriented. Instrumental motivation was generated by the CSAT university entrance examination and the chance to achieve highly paid prestigious employment. Korean students were found to be more extrinsically than intrinsically motivated as they see the profit from English language learning, like higher social status and better employment opportunities.

Rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language impact on English language teaching and learning in Korea in various ways. All the participating actors in English language education in Korea are affecting these themes. The Korean Ministry of Education, Korean families, social structure of Korean society, teachers and students are all active contributors of the English language education in Korea. Therefore, they were all considered in the scenario building process that takes place in the next Chapter. In each scenario, the contribution and response of the Korean Ministry of Education, teachers, parents and students is thought about. The information obtained in the above three themes, helped formed an understanding of the processes that Korean society is involved in and influenced by. This facilitated the process of drafting, reflection and redrafting of the scenarios. The scenario planning technique created a constant thinking and implementing of ideas that were part of the three themes in the scenarios. This process led to the emergence of a Scenario Model for Educational Policy Development that will be presented in the concluding Chapter for the purpose of creating a new communicative tool in educational environments that might be helpful in implementing new ideas and improving the quality of education.

Chapter 5

Scenarios

In this section, scenarios will be drafted in accordance with the themes that have emerged in the discussion section. The scenarios will propose alternative realities for the purpose of expanding thinking about the situation of English education in Korea and stimulate ideas about possible changes to the Korean education system.

Scenario planning is a Method used by organisations to generate ideas about multiple future possibilities. Scenario planning is a process of thinking and reflecting that tries to ‘think the unthinkable’, however it does not try to predict the future but to enhance creative thinking.

At the end of a description of the three scenarios that were developed as a consequence of the primary and secondary research procedures completed in Chapter 4, an explanation of the processes of thinking about and writing the scenarios will be given.

Scenario 1

As previously discussed rote learning is deeply rooted in the Korean education system and it is evident in all areas of learning in the Korean curriculum. The practice of rote learning may be responsible for a minimum depth of learning during the activities that involve the processing of new information. This means that during the process of learning with the method of rote learning information is being processed on a lower level of brain activity and hence, requires a lower level of learning involvement and learners’ cognitive engagement.

In this scenario, the ‘unthinkable’ is the practice of rote learning no longer being available or required by Korean learners.

As the Korean educational system is already centralised under the Ministry of Education, a decree to abolish the practice of rote learning can be given and the introduction of analytical teaching can be required to take its place. The Korean Ministry of Education publishes books that are adapted to critical thinking with open-ended questions, project work, group work and inquisitive themes.

Teachers’ professional development programs prepare the ground for such a radical move, where there is no longer a teacher-centred approach as expected in a rote learning context but rather a student-centred one. A part of the teachers’ professional development process is to not only gain expertise about how to engage students in the promotion of individual thinking but also to preserve teachers’ sense of superiority so that the traditional Confucian construction of the teacher-student relationship can still remain. To do this teachers are prepared for the English language queries such as the function of different words in a sentence, English idioms, creative writing and being able to explain ideas and themes in English with minimum use of the Korean language. The Ministry of Education invest in teachers’ professional development allowing them to be ‘students’ in their own domains, and thus, create confidence within teachers that manifests in their classrooms. They become open minded teachers who are not afraid to be questioned by their students.

Passive unquestioning students are no longer part of classes, rather teachers invite students to think critically and creatively about the topics, themes and language use being investigated instead of fostering and rewarding the memorisation of information to be retained for later purposes of passing decontextualised exams.

Students are practising group work, where they can initiate new ideas to investigate and discuss in their groups during the process of learning themes and topics in the English language. Project assignments are part of the curricular in order for the students to grow and expand with their teachers' guidance. Students are engaged in the process of learning and as a result more intrinsic motivation is evident in the students as they enjoy school life and invest their spare time to complete relevant tasks. Students stay at school after school hours to complete assignments, discuss themes and the progress of projects, participate in after school group activities, and to socialise. The school operates not just as a classroom teaching establishment but also as a social centre for the students to use the school facilities such as computers, projectors, halls, gyms and sound systems to incorporate learning with social life.

The family unit in Korea is a strong and valuable one in the students' academic life, hence for the family to continue its important role, parents and families are encouraged to take part in school- community associations by organising presentations made by the students in various subjects. Family open days are quarterly events where students' families visit the school and witness the progress and ideas presented through different mediums and in different modes by the students. Academic competitions within the school and with other schools are supported by the community's participation. In this way, Korean families are part of the students' learning process as they are involved, encourage and support the students' learning process. Information from the elderly can be translated to English and included in presentations, so that even if older generations do not understand English, they can contribute to students' learning. Parents are an active part of students' learning outcomes and their comfort in the knowledge about their child's activities during and after school hours has a calming effect on the family. This new function of schools is supported and funded by the Ministry of Education and parent groups. The nomination of parents to monitor after school group activities strengthens the connection and sense of responsibility of the community to the education of their children. To do this the Ministry of Education provides special funds for schools who are taking part in this construction of the new relationships between student – family – school – and government.

This practice of involvement is to shift students from an individual academic life in which rote learning can be a tool to enhance one's knowledge independently and where students bear the full weight of gaining knowledge by themselves. Instead, the exhibition of knowledge in such new activities is reducing the reliance on rote learning and nurturing thinking skills that are practised throughout the year. The students are part of a team of 'new thought' and 'new practices' where group members are involved and contribute to the group's success. It might be that a student is weak in one part of the English language but strong in another, therefore support is provided and an overall feeling of attachment to the process of learning is achieved and contributes to students' sense of confidence in their use of the English language for they are not acting alone in this foreign language.

On some levels, the Korean Confucian heritage advocates a deep approach to learning. The implementation of this new approach of critical thinking instead of rote learning is not seen as an intrusive but as nurturing new structures for the minds of Koreans. Current Korean students, who will be the next driving force to continue the Korean economic success, are able to verbally communicate in English as an international lingua franca (Lesznyak, 2004), and it is part of the new method of teaching. Students are taught how to construct sentences that can express their thoughts, ideas and emotions in various ways and the memorisation of sentences with perfect grammar is no longer of such importance. Students understand that language is constantly changing and is actively adjusted to the situations they are involved in through critically thinking about the English language. As a result, students understand the importance of the daily use of the English language and are self-motivated to engage in situational conversations which could be monitored by the teacher.

However, as this scenario shift may be considered extreme, opposition to it is notably heard. The critics resist the move as a Western intervention into Korean life and fear the loss of Korean identity for both students and teachers. The critics see the situation of questioning teachers as a disrespectful act. Teachers are unable to accommodate various opinions, resulting in chaotic classrooms where the students are not well disciplined and even less well educated. As a result, the students are ill prepared for the university entrance exams, failing to fulfil their families' expectations of entrance to a prestigious university. The requirement of families to take a greater part in their children's education produces tensions between parents and children, as there is a gap between the level of English comprehension of parents and the level of English presented by the students. This results in disruption to family life and a threat to the filial piety advocated by Confucianism. Some critics maintain that the freedom given to students will result in lack of academic supervision, a disordered society, reduction in family quality time at home, and an overall loss of Korean traditions.

In summary, the tensions that are produced by this scenario are socially related as well as academically. On the social level, the Confucian value of superiors and subordinates (Hyun, 2001) is under threat in the classroom, in the family unit, and within students. On an academic level the issues are the introduction of: communicative method instead of rote learning techniques and, critical thinking processes of learning as a substitute for rote learning and exam preparation as the main learning objective.

At the end of this Chapter, commentary will explain the method that was implemented to realise this scenario and the ones that follow.

Scenario 2

The College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) is the university entrance exam taken by Korean students once a year and the results of this exam determine students' academic futures.

In this scenario, this key, consequential exam does not exist anymore.

The elimination of the college entrance exam created a vacuum in the academic selection process for universities. In order to select students for the most appropriate tertiary route, a new system of combining year twelve results (the matriculation score) with a Psychometric Entrance Test has taken its place.

The matriculation score accommodates the needs of four important agents in an educational context:

- Teachers, by being significant contributors to the process of learning.
- Students, by understanding the importance of learning as a process.
- The Ministry of Education, by administrating the exams in each subject.
- Parents by being supportive agents to the process of learning.

The matriculation scores reflect the importance of teachers' input as educators who build the knowledge of students on many levels. Teachers generate a broad knowledge of English through the teaching and practicing of syntax, lexis, phonology, morphology and pragmatics using communicative approaches. As a result, students are able to answer questions on different topics as their understanding of the functions of the language is based on a global comprehension of the use of the English language rather than specific textbook-driven pseudo-functions. The role of the teacher gains respect from the students as well as the parents and it is seen as being an aid to learning, as well as having guiding and directing aspects. Teachers are motivated to produce interesting ways to engage students to learn English in and out of the classroom. Their motivation is a product of the reputation of the school together with their own prestige as teachers. Students are keen on taking part in their classes and succeed in tests. Tests are now used for learning and not for normative purposes. As the methods the teacher uses to teach English are now idiosyncratic, teachers are motivated to gain as much knowledge in the language so that their students are able to accomplish mastery in the language with their assistance.

Students acknowledge the importance of a deeper understanding of the English language, as prediction of the topics in the final exams is almost impossible. Therefore, students develop a deeper approach in their attitudes to learning the English language. Students take an active part in the classroom by participating in class, contributing their ideas in discussions, and making inquiries of their teachers. This attitude of students to learning English is a result of the reliance of students to make sense of the correlations between the forms and the functions of the English language. Students understand that they have to practice the language in and out of class, not just as passive users, but also as active ones. Hence, reading and writing are mainly done as homework while listening and speaking take the main part of class time to allow students to practice the language with the guidance of the teacher.

The Ministry of Education administers the final exams in English, as in every other subject taught at school. This allows the exams to act as an objective tool for the evaluation of students' knowledge. In addition, the Ministry of education produces the exams as a product of a committee, a practice that helps monitor the level of

difficulty and make adjustments from year to year. The goals in the curriculum are to broaden students' comprehension and to prepare them to be citizens of the world. Therefore, an emphasis on communicative English is given both in schools and in the exams. The communicative ability of students is evaluated in two main areas of the exam, a listening section and a conversational section. The best practices in language testing will be incorporated into the newly devised test regime.

The matriculation score does not stand alone in the selection process for universities to further one's academic life. The 'Psychometric Entrance Test' is calculated in the overall score as well. This test is composed of three parts:

- Quantitative reasoning
- Verbal reasoning
- English language

The 'Psychometric Entrance Test' is administered at least five times a year to be able to manage the number of students wanting to take it. This practice also gives the students the chance to be examined more frequently so they are able to enter university as soon as possible. This move from the currently used normative performative test to validated, reliable aptitude tests, allows a better reflection of students' language abilities. The score allows universities to select the students according to their educational tendencies, and hence create a cut off point for each Faculty that is appropriate to the course requirements. An independent body to the Ministry of Education administers this test and because of that the test is not influenced by the Ministry's objectives, but rather is as equitable an instrument as possible. Consequently, assessment of students' abilities might be able to predict their academic success.

The calculation of both the matriculation score and the 'Psychometric Entrance Test' score into one score reduces the academic pressure on students that used to exist in the old system, with one specific exam on one specific date. Now any pressure is portioned throughout the final years of high school and the notion of the opportunity to repeat the psychometric test, allows students to have a long term view of their academic life with less trepidation.

This lower level of stress contributes to the reduction in students' clinical depression rates noted before. Students are taking part in leisure activities instead of devoting themselves daily to repeated exam practice. These activities contribute to students' positive approaches to study of the English language so that concentrating on the tasks involved to learn a language are possible with high levels of intrinsic yet instrumental motivation. In return, the students' English language acquisition is improved.

The money parents used to spend on English language tutoring is needed less than before and, parents are able to allocate resources to other dimensions of family life. The new system of two scores made into one releases parents from the need to look for alternative education to enhance their children's success in the CSAT. Parents are spending time with their children as supportive mentors to the students'

academic progress as well as contributors to their social and emotional stability, maturity and development. .

In the new system, teachers are not teaching in a style that aims to succeed in exams. Instead, teachers are developing methods of teaching as a process of learning. Teachers explain topics in various ways, stimulating students to seek knowledge about the use of the English language. The topics include issues from other subjects, such as humanities, science and physical education. In this new approach to teaching English, teachers, as well as students are able to identify with the language taught, as it is not an alien isolated subject. Instead, the English language makes sense to the teachers as it is attached to their previous knowledge and daily lives, helping them to teach the language in a practical way that motivates the students. This approach creates students who do not think mechanically and are able to use the English language in a beneficial way.

The owners of private institutions who were offering courses to gain success in exams in the previous educational structure oppose the changes. Many of the institutes closed as a result of falling demand for the courses offered. As the English language is being taught as a process and not as a mechanism to succeed in an exam, the need for after school courses is less than before. Consequently, a domestic economic downfall has emerged. Private institute owners were forced to close their schools, native speakers who were employed by these institutions were sent back to their home countries, local Korean English teachers and administrative workers lost their employment creating an increase in unemployment which in turn creates pressure on inflation and loss of confidence amongst foreign investors in Korea. The Ministry of Education invests more funds in teachers' professional development, new books and the development of new strategies and methods to teach English. These new expenses demand new budget allocations resulting in a higher distribution of GDP to education, a practice that is not welcomed by other ministries.

The main issue addressed in this scenario is related to the dependency of Korean students on the one exam, CSAT, to gain entry to university. The release of this dependency, with changes to the methods for learning and teaching the English language might reduce clinical depression of students, but can also bring economic concerns.

At the end of the next scenario commentary as to how the scenarios were set up and structured will be given. The commentary will try to outline the process of thinking during the formation of these ideas.

Scenario 3

English villages were first introduced in Korea to provide an alternative for students who went overseas in search of English education. This simulation of an English speaking society provides students with the opportunity to experience and immerse themselves in English.

In this scenario these English villages are the main source of education, replacing the traditional school system.

The success and popularity of English villages in Korea has led the government to make them the main setting for education based on the Korean curricula from primary through to secondary school. The government supported and financed the shift from the previous school system to establish the model of English villages as the new structure for schools. It converted most schools into English villages with the construction of new buildings to facilitate the new framework. This investment included the adaptation of the curriculum, preparation of teachers for the new system, and advertising campaigns for the public to understand the new approach to education. In relation to this, this new government's transparency gained public support.

Assessment for learning and not of learning partially substituted for the previous reliance on exams, with assessment being a combination of exams and projects done by the students. An ongoing evaluation of students' progress in class is also part of their final results. Students acquire the English language through challenges that are fun and interesting, emphasising study through experiment and experience. The connection to reality and relevance of the subjects being taught is strong and students are able to identify and reflect on themes as personal experiences. As projects are the main tool for assessment, students incorporate the arts with the English language to be able to present their knowledge. Music, films, theatre, plastic arts, design and models, and electronic media are some of the mediums students are using. This conjunction of the study of the English language and the Arts creates a sense of the 'glocal' (Wellman, 2002) as students take part in national and international collaborations and competitions between schools. Students are able to see themselves as part of the world society, they are understood by non-Koreans, and their ideas are well-conveyed. Their projects in different subjects taught at school, do not need adaptation to English and they are able to present them in different international settings. An exchange of knowledge and ideas is done between schools in Korea and outside of Korea. Students are travelling overseas to participate in presentations and competitions, bringing recognition and pride to Korea. These journeys are well covered by the Korean media, supporting the students and their sense of national dignity. Students from overseas come to Korea, carrying with them different concepts about themes they are invited to present. The interaction between Korean students and non-Korean students is informative and relaxed as the barrier of language is almost non-existent.

The Korean family which used to spend money on their offspring's English education is free of this financial burden. Families are involved with the students' school life as the processes of project based learning are comprehensible to them and they support their children's progress. Students have time to socialise with their families, a value that is well promoted within the Korean family.

The connection between the school and the family is strong. Parents feel that they are part of school life because they are invited to presentations, and they initiate many of the community fundraising activities for the students who are going overseas to participate in international collaborations and competitions. At these fundraising events, parents conduct karaoke competitions, Kimchi (Korean fermented cabbage) presentations, and sports competitions. This relationship between family – school – country is advocated in Confucian teachings in that a good family structure leads to a good country structure.

Teachers found the change to be difficult in the beginning. Once they went through professional development that helps them understand and implement assessment as learning, their motivation to teach with this new approach is well accepted. Teachers stopped relying on exams to give them an indication to their students' knowledge. Now teachers apply 'learning as process' to their teaching approach, allowing students to participate in reflection and correction of their own progress. The teachers' status was not damaged in the shift as professional development taught teachers how to lead open discussions in the classroom with respect for different opinions and the ability to hear and be heard by all participating students.

Opposition to the shift was mainly based on the wide use of the English language. Language identity disorder is one of the main fears of Korean mothers. The claim is mainly about L2 interference with their children's mother tongue since they are exposed to the English language from primary school. The importance of the Korean language is vital to Korean identity and this significance has long been preciously maintained. The intrusion of the English language into Korean life to such an extent created hostility among Korean nationalists who published articles on this subject, tried to stop the shift with rallies in front of the Ministry of Education and the parliament house in Seoul and by holding protests around schools. Although their actions had no effects, an overview of the new educational system is on the way, with a think tank formed of local and international educators and administrative personal to report on the effects of the change and to suggest modifications to it. The nationalists have already ensured their participation in the hearings and have promised to bring back the old system.

Commentary for the Scenarios

These three scenarios developed as a result of a thinking and reflection process. The method of scenario planning is not widely used in educational contexts except as a method in the classroom. The adaptation of scenario planning to educational contexts from the field of economics and business management, where it is used more frequently, was the initial purpose for writing these scenarios.

Scenario planning is a process involving group work, in which different actors in the function of the 'business' are invited to hear opinions, reflect and create new imaginative business realities. "The scenario process is best placed to identify the range of possible and plausible cultural interactions and to assess their impact on decision-making and analysis" (K. Van der Heijden, et al., 2002, p. 97).

As a structured analysis, the STEEP analysis is the most common application. It provides management with a framework to consider: Social, Technological, Economic, Ecological, and Political features in the business 'plan' (K. Van der Heijden, et al., 2002).

As a first step, the participating individuals voice their perceptions of the situation from their own perspectives. This exchange of information allows the participants to see the different aspects of the business reality they operate in. Hence, they are able to identify the key gaps in the understanding and knowledge of their organisation. Once comprehension of this information is achieved, a discussion for the purpose of investigation and interaction between the driving forces in the specific situations

can take place. While discussions are underway, the participants experiment with different possible and plausible outcomes.

In the three scenarios outlined above, a positive approach to scenarios was taken. “Positive scenarios can depict the interactions among the many, many parts of the education system: teachers, students, buildings, parents, the local community, new technology, the school-to-work transition, economics, etc.” (Ogilvy, 2006, p. 24).

The bird’s eye view of the scenario allowed the examination of themes that emerged during the analysis and discussion of the findings. The role of the Ministry of Education, teacher, students, school, family, community and possible criticisms and oppositions to the proposed changes were considered in each scenario. The scenario writing process in this section was a result of self-reflection and the rewriting of ideas. The approach of desk research (Van Notten, 2006) was taken in the analytical process when developing the scenarios. Individually drawing on literature analysis or archive research is at the base of this approach and was adapted in the process to outline the three scenarios. The simulated imagination in this process allowed the researcher to have a holistic view of the Korean English language education methods as they emerged from the analysis and discussion. Systemic reforms to rote learning, exams and motivational learning are proposed in the three scenarios. These allow decision makers to stretch their view of changes in a comprehensive way rather than in a straightforward solution to the problem. The three scenarios do not intend to be predictive of future trends or elements that will influence Korean English language education. In this research they are more for exploratory means, to raise awareness of different ends to an existing problem, to stimulate creative thinking and for the purpose of inspection of societal processes (Van Notten, 2006).

The problems identified in Korean English language education are related to the employability of a grammar-translation approach with the expectations of the outcomes promised by the use of more communicative approaches. This conflict creates tension between the actors taking part in English language education in Korea. The Ministry of Education, which is the authority that decides the methods used to teach English, is seemingly lacking understanding of the problems Korean English teachers face in and out of their classrooms. (H. J. Cho, 1995; Seth, 2002).

In addition, the pressures put on students to excel in exams may evolve into animosity towards the English language and the elevation of the instances of mental depression (M. Lee & Larson, 2000). Families feelings of compulsion to financially support students’ private tuition so they can gain extra help with the exams produces tensions within the family and in the social structure of Korean life (D. Shim & Park, 2008).

Scenario 1 abolished the use of rote learning in order for the students, teachers and the Korean Ministry of Education to be able to execute analytical learning process, individual thinking and students’ critical inquiry. The Korean Ministry of Education will adapt to the proposed remodeling of English education in Korea with changes to the curricula, teachers’ professional development and the exams that are administered. While the books published by the Ministry will be rearranged to emphasise critical inquiry tasks, students and teachers who will be the active users of these books will gain a better understanding of the English language and its

function. The consequential rise of active users of the English language will go align with the Korean government's view of the country being part of an international English community, societal values of Confucian heritage as learners will practise deep approaches to learning and students are more confident to use the English language as they are actively using it in the classroom and out. Notwithstanding the positive outlook of this scenario, nationalist Koreans may object to this change as they see it as a threat to the Korean language. In addition, if the English language is promoted in and out of schools, will this be a threat to teachers respect in class if they are constantly questioned sometimes are unable to answer question. There may also be a threat to Korean family life if parents are unable to participate in English language activities in and out of school.

The same tensions arise in by Scenario 2, which propose the abolisiom of the college entrance exam. In this scenario, the tensions are more economically related as a cycle of contracting of the English language teaching market can appear. The loss of jobs and private businesses which were part of the booming English exam preparation process forces the government to allocate more funds in the education sector. However, the new reality proposed in this senario reduces the pressur Korean students are facing throughout their schooling years. Depression amongst Korean youth is reduced in this scenario, Korean family life is restored to Confucian values as parents becom supportive mentors to their children and teachers feel more useful as they are teaching the English language and not how to succeed in an exam. The combination of exams to enter university creates a shift of thinking about learning processes.

Exploring these two scenarios and overlooking the possible positives and negatives in each suggested realities that created the thinking about Scenario 3, where a constructive change to the Korean educational system is suggested. The change to a schooling system based on the principles used to implement English villages results in a noticable effect across the curricula.

Scenario 3 stretches reality in various ways. First, school facilities are changed and by doing so an economic 'boom' is created with new jobs and demand for commodoties for school building restrucure and in school supplies. Second, assessment is done to promote learning and not high scores. Students reflect on their assessments and receive constructive criticism from their peers and teachers. By doing so, students are prompt to criticy think and inquire about their work as well as that of their peers and in turn are better prepared for exams as they see the learnt material in a holistic way. Cross-curricula subjects are incorporated in assessments which promotes students' understanding of the world around them and teachers communicate with each other across different subjects and faculties. Third, parents participation in school life is not only as payees but as an integral part of promoting and developing the connection between the community and the school. This is an important part of Confucian teachings and Korean values.

Korean identity, on the other hand, is at the base of opposition to this change and further thinking is required to be able to reduce language identity disorder that can lead to hostility among Korean nationalists.

Further thinking and reflection is also needed to address the challenges that the three scenarios proposed. They are flexible in their nature, therefore created to aspire forward thinking and generate changes.

Van der Heijden (2002, p. 189) raised attention to “scenario planning as an art rather than a science.” In pointing out this aspect of scenario planning, he gave the outcomes of the process an importance for “promoting strategic conversations within and around the organisation.” This was the aim of the three scenarios in this research. Instead of proposing solutions to the problems, the researcher is trying to extend thinking about the different aspects of the problems by stretching reality into three ‘unthinkable’ formulas for English language education in Korea. The stimulation of thinking about distant realities to the current one as noted in the previous Chapters can open a route to possible changes to the current situation. The researcher is aware that these are hypothetical scenarios rooted in reality, not just for the three themes. The Scenario Model for Educational Policy Development that will be presented in the next Chapter emerged when all three scenarios were completed and a tool to enhance communication between the participating actors in education in general in Korea and English education in particular. The processes involved in implementing the model involve the Korean Ministry of Education, teachers, parents and students. The communication between these groups might be helpful in implementing new educational ideas and improving the quality of education in general and English education in particular.

Chapter 6

Conclusion: Development of a Scenario Model for Educational Policy Development

Seeking an answer to how do rote learning, national examinations and types of motivation to learn the English language, impact on English language teaching and learning in Korea was the main reason for this research. As the research progressed, a second research question manifested ie. how can scenario building function as a new tool to explore the relevance of the three themes in the Korean context. An investigation of the historical, social, geopolitical and economic aspects of Korean society in relation to English language education enabled me to gain some comprehension of the Koreans' fascination to learn English. It was through personal experience as an English teacher in Korea and desk research of documents about Korean education in general, English language education in particular, and education policy practices that my understanding of Korean English language education was taken to a higher level. Qualitative interpretive research methods have allowed me to discover various features of English language education in Korea, while the information and data collected from diary entries of my professional experiences were a starting point for the research.

Documentary evidence that describes, explains or problematizes the major themes that emerged from the diary entries (rote learning, national examinations and motivation to learn English as a foreign language) was sought. For example, the practice of rote learning as a memorisation technique is a practice seemingly diametrically opposed to the critical thinking learning processes that are widely used in Australian schools (Queensland Government, 2007; Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Authority, 2008).

I searched for data about the socially grounded reasons for the prevalence of rote learning, the connection Koreans make between rote learning and success in exams, and the implications of rote learning on the outcomes of teaching and learning the English language. These technique of secondary or literature research created assimilations and tensions to affirm and contradict my diary entries. An ongoing reflective process continued as I gathered documents that prompted new ideas and guided my thinking into new directions.

Two sides of language teaching exist in parallel and sometimes in opposition to each other, the teaching of skills for linguistic competence and the teaching of skills for language performance. These profoundly different approaches to language teaching can be found in Korea in different forms. Exponents of the teaching of skills related to linguistic competence champion the development of language learning through knowledge of grammatical rules. The language learner is meant to become a conscious user of the language through control of linguistic rules. The user of the language is required to memorise the structures, vocabulary and routines of the language and is then expected to engage this memorised knowledge consciously.

On the other hand, the main aim of teaching language performance skills is for the development of language through the use of language to allow learners to function

in settings where the language is actually used, not rehearsed. The learning of grammatical structures is inductive as learners are focused on the function of the language in the target culture and actively interact with other students and teachers so they can creatively practise the language for meaningful purposes.

The conflict between the two approaches is evident in Korea. The grammar translation method, in which passages of language are translated from one language to another, rote learning, in which new vocabulary and full sentences are memorised without being comprehended, and the target of achieving high scores in the college entrance exams, are the main and expected outcomes of the teaching methods that focus on linguistic competence. The Korean government is trying to shift language teaching methods from an emphasis on linguistic competence to those related to the improvement of language performance by making changes to the sixth and the current seventh Korean national curriculum. For example, the hiring of native speakers in public schools in the English Program In Korea (EPIK) system is used to support and improve the spoken English proficiency of Korean English language teachers and to expose students to ‘native’ accents (English Program In Korea, 2010b). Additionally, the government supports and funds English villages, where students are ‘immersed’ in the English language through a simulation of an English speaking society, with native speakers as instructors (Korea Press Foundation., 2007). In these villages the students are encouraged to use English in authentic settings, following a communicative approach to the learning of skills related to language performance.

This conflict between the teaching of skills related to linguistic competence and language performance has generated three possible scenarios. A bird’s eye view of the scenarios enabled me to suggest variations to existing educational structures, based on the information gathered about Korean society and English language teaching and learning practices in Korea. The actors in each scenario were Korean English language teachers, Korean English students, Korean families, the Korean government, and opponents to the new proposed changes. During the development of the scenarios, I had to think about the possible reactions of each of the actors to the possible changes. I also had to reflect on the connections between the actors as they form the Korean society. Although scenario planning is a method used in a group think tank, I adapted the process as a method for constant reflection and redrafting of ‘how’ the actors will respond to the changes made to the system. Discussions with colleagues were a part of the development of the scenarios and led me to a “Scenario model for education policy development” that can be applied at various levels: government, school system, school administrators, and teachers.

It was not anticipated that the process of seeking answers to the two research questions, would result in a new model of educational policy development. The incorporation of educational scenario writing into a general approach to policy investigation has opened new ways of researching educational questions appropriate for both Korea and other countries. While being similar to other research processes such as action research and action learning, the inclusion of scenario writing not only concentrates attention of participants on current circumstances, but also provides a mechanism for considering future strategies.

The Scenario Model for Education Policy Development outlined in the diagram below is based on the work of Wenger and Snyder (2000) about ‘Communities of

Practice'. Initially the idea behind Communities of Practice was developed for business purposes but has been adapted to the educational environment to suggest a similar process of thinking and implementation of ideas. In essence, Communities of Practice are "groups of people informally bound together by shared expertise and passion for a joint enterprise" (Wenger & Snyder, 2000, p. 139). It is a practice that was in use for centuries e.g. in the form of artisan guilds in the Middle Ages. The participants of 'Communities of Practice' share their experiences and knowledge to gain better understanding of situations, solve problems, and help develop creative thinking for the betterment of a community. This free-flowing environment of ideas exchange and discussion is essential for the evolution of society in general and specifically with educational themes (Barab & Duffy, 2000). Outcomes of 'Communities of Practice' can "drive strategy, generate new lines of business, solve problems, promote the spread of best practice, develop people's professional skills, and help companies recruit and retain talent" (Wenger & Snyder, 2000, p. 140). In the educational context and in particular in Korea this type of model can enhance communication between the active participants in English language education in Korea and develop awareness of impediments for policy makers and policy implementers. The model suggests that people with interest in 'progress' and change will be the most welcome in the 'Community of Practice'.

This model may be especially important in the Korean educational context, as the Korean society is a top down society: hierarchal and Confucian based. The formation of an educational Community of Practice will consequently and necessarily include Ministry of Education representatives, municipal and provincial education office authorities, Korean teachers' union representatives, school principals, student representatives, and parents' association representatives. The combination of all actors affected by English language education in Korea is important, as it does not impose any external culturally influenced ideas if external advisers were asked to participate. The model was developed as data gathered and analysed during the course of this research exhibited tensions between various active groups in English language teaching and learning in Korea. Issues that came out of primary and secondary documents involved tension, miscommunication and distrust between, the Korean national curriculum and the teachers' union (H. J. Cho, 1995; Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation, 2002; Seth, 2002), Korean families and the Korean Ministry of Education (J. H. Lee, 2004), students and the Korean education system (H. J. Cho, 1995; Y. E. Cho, 2007; OECD, 1998; Seth, 2002) and the Ministry of Education and municipal or provincial office of education (Seth, 2002).

I conclude that the Scenario Model for Educational Policy Development is possible means to help resolve the tensions created by the above forces. At least the Scenario Model would develop an environment of communication, discussion, suggestion solutions and reflections about their effectiveness that could eventually contribute to the benefit of English language teaching and learning in Korea and could allow a combination of various goals to be achieved.

The Scenario Model of Educational Policy Development is composed of the following:

- Issues and protocols

- Clarification and review
- Scenario conceptualisation
- Implementation of policy

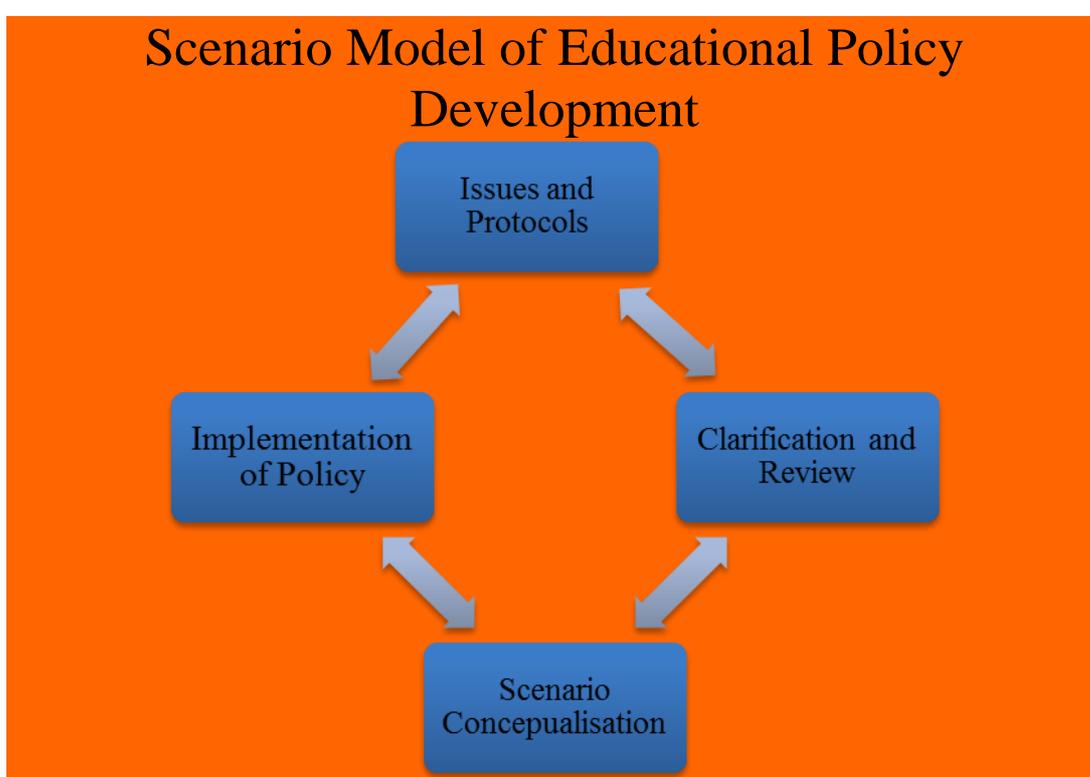
The first step to implement the model is acknowledgment of issues and protocols. This stage is important as it defines the direction of the thinking processes. Protocols can be accessed through formal publications while the issues are proposed by the participants of the thinking process, each with their own concerns. Establishing the issues and protocols that are under consideration focuses the attention of the group for the first cycle of the model. In the Korean example, a new curriculum for English education can be developed. The Seventh current curriculum can be accessed through the Ministry of Education and issues that emerged from the implementation of this curriculum can be raised for discussion. Each participating group will gather information for the next stage of ‘clarification and review’.

In the clarification and review phase, the information each group gathers will be presented to the participants. As each group has different concerns, information about the protocol is submitted from different points of view. During this stage, recurrent issues, problems and concerns are discussed and organised into themes. In the Korean example, a change of practice has already begun, as communication and exchange of concerns is being done and communication between the participating parties is achieved. Teachers can explain the difficulties to implement the communicative approach to English language teaching, students can describe their lack of interest in learning more communicative language when it is not tested in the college entrance exams, and parents can advise of the extra private lessons they have to pay for, while the Ministry of Education can explain its reasons for the change in approach to English language teaching. This would then provide data for the ‘Scenario conceptualisation’ stage.

The Scenario Conceptualisation involves the participant groups developing scenarios they think are suitable to solve the problems and issues raised in the previous stages. The scenarios are drafted as solutions that can be implemented and are not presented as extreme ‘realities’ that will not be accepted by one participating group or another, or that will be too difficult to implement. The changes proposed in the scenarios should satisfy more than one participating group, and while it might not satisfy all, the other participating groups should be able to understand the benefits that supposedly emerge from it. This is an important part of the Scenario Conceptualisation stage, as the model is based on constant thinking and reflecting so participating groups should not withdraw from the process because their ideas were not addressed. In the Korean example, teachers might draft a scenario where classes are smaller and professional development in communicative language teaching techniques is undertaken. The students’ group and the parents’ group might see an advantage in small classes but not in professional development programs. The Ministry of Education and the municipal officers’ groups might see an advantage in professional development but programs realise the expense of smaller classes. However, if all participating groups agree that some benefits can be raised from the scenario then the next stage can commence.

Implementation of policy is the stage where the scenarios become reality. The participating groups agree on the scenario with the most benefits to all participants and the implementation of this begins. A time frame is established to examine the new policy, while participating groups contribute to the implementation of the new policy as they acknowledge the importance of the process. At the end of the trial period, a new cycle of the model may begin, where new issues and protocols are examined by each of the participating groups.

As the development and evolution of systems should not stop, the cycle of the Scenario Model of Educational Policy Development can continue. It is important to keep information flowing between different agents of society or organisations, so that issues can be addressed and solutions suggested and trialled.



The journey of my research acquainted me with new ideas and possibilities of education in general and specifically with English language education. As a teacher, I understand better the forces in educational systems, schools and classes. The documents I gathered meant I had to confront different ideas about curriculum development, language teaching approaches, motivation of students and teachers and the complexity of a society that strives for and rewards academic success. My thinking about teaching and learning English has changed as I am able to observe the situation from the students' points of view and the teachers' points of view. However, further research is needed to accomplish an optimal balance between societal forces, policy makers' notions and outcomes of the combination of the two. Implementation of the Scenario Model of Educational Policy Development is one means to scrutinise the functionality of this model and to propose possible changes

that can enhance its utilisation. Further research is also needed in the areas of social change in Korea in general and curriculum changes in the Korean education ministry in particular.

Korean society is a fascinating combination of tradition, the will to progress, and the desire to be part of the 'global village' yet keep traditional cultural practices. It is important for me to remain abreast of the ongoing changes in Korea to be able to further my research and hopefully reveal unknown perspectives about Korea and English language education.

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