

**An Exploration for Globalizing Critical Pedagogy in the Korean Middle School Context:
Toward Critical Co-teaching Praxis between Local and Native-English-Speaking Teachers**

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**A Master's Paper
Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts in TESOL**

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Date

University of Wisconsin-River Falls

2011

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An Exploration for Glocalizing Critical Pedagogy in the Korean Middle School Context:
Toward Critical Co-teaching Praxis between Local and Native-English-Speaking Teachers

Pedagogy always represents a commitment to the future, and it remains the task of educators to make sure that the future points the way to a more socially just world, a world in which the discourse of critique and possibility in conjunction with the values of reason, freedom, and equality function to alter, as part of a broader democratic project, the grounds upon which life is lived. (Giroux, "Introduction" 2)

General Introduction

Korea is one of a few monolingual countries in the world. By virtue of a very high degree of congruity derived from the monolingual speech community, the Korean society officially acknowledges Korean as the only national language. Of course, a variety of Korean dialects exist in different regions, but they do not significantly hamper Korean people from communicating and interacting with each other. The low demand for learning another language for domestic communicative purposes may be one reason why Korean students cannot speak English well despite studying it for ten years at school. Nevertheless, English has played an exclusive gatekeeping role in Korea over time. It goes without saying that a good command of English is equivalent to obtaining a huge *cultural capital* or absolute power which can determine the success of schooling and the Korean society. Such a social phenomenon tends to serve as a catalyst for most Koreans to become fanatical about learning English and even to make a fetish of it, infected or doomed by so-called an *English fever*; consequently, Koreans have asked the

Korean public school system to take heavy responsibility for students' poor English competence despite the ten years of English education. Having paid no or substantially low credence to the public school system, a great number of Korean parents have sent their children to extra-curricular English institutes after school or even to English-speaking countries during vacation. Such an English obsession has subsequently conceived of the tragic dilemma of the *English divide* among students in association with parents' socioeconomic status.

The issue of the lethargic English education has been vehemently targeted each time a new government takes office. In the process of revamping English education policies, accordingly, two aspects have always been pointed out as essential: 1) teaching English through the medium of English only (TEE); 2) shifting a curriculum to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). With a focus on communicative competence, the government has adopted the Notional-Functional Syllabus for English since the sixth national curriculum in the 1990s while reinforcing the number of speaking-based training courses for local English teachers to carry out TEE and placing native-English-speaking teachers (NEST) in every elementary and middle school by 2010 (Chang 87). As if the linguistic immobility of English teachers is a major hindrance for facilitating students' English abilities and vitalizing CLT in class, the Korean government has extensively concentrated on strengthening teachers' English competence via diverse training programs. In the face of all the efforts and budgets, the Korean people keep critiquing the English education policy as a failure, and students still cannot speak English well.

As English teachers, linguistic skills and teaching techniques, indeed, are integral parts, and CLT might be an excellent approach to motivate students with a variety of activities and promote their oral competence of English. However, the biggest problem with the Korean

English education policies is the fact that by placing the criticism on English teachers, the government appears to scratch only the surface manifestation of deeper contradictions within the Korean educational system and society. Intentionally or not, the government has neglected the fundamental problematic issues of the educational system and the role of the English curriculum in it, being obsessed with the notion of *national competitiveness* enhancement in the global market. Ironically, English in Korea plays a crucial role in promoting *intra-national* competitiveness for success within Korea, rather than *inter-national* competitiveness worldwide.

Up to this point, English teachers are not entirely free from being guilty of charge. Although some of them are well aware of the systematic problems and disapprove them, they fail to act upon them for change. For the purpose of actualizing the real meaning of national competitiveness, the government should draw the problems of the system and its English curriculum in such teacher training programs and pay more attention to the *voices* of current English teachers than those of theorists, who barely have practical teaching experience. In addition, English teachers should abandon fatalistically pessimistic ‘cannot-do’ attitudes for change and actively participate in the training programs or teachers’ discussion clubs, in search of solutions or alternatives in the Korean English curriculum. In other words, pedagogical approach as to English education should be initially discussed prior to methodologies and linguistic skills. By discussing epistemological questions about English and its role in the Korean society, teachers need to delve into strategies for *glocalizing* the international language, English. Helping students claim real ownership of English, English teachers of Korea should endeavor for English education to empower Korean students to convey their thoughts and *voices* toward the wider society and the world. In this process, they also should not be negligent of improving their

linguistic skills and methodologies for the sake of enriching English classes.

In this paper, I suggest the application of critical pedagogy (CP) to the Korean context. Within the framework of CP, I will seek for the possibility of democratizing not only teachers and students, but also English classes, English curriculum, and further English language per se. *Critical pedagogy* can be defined as an approach to teaching and curriculum that “seeks to understand and critique the historical and sociopolitical context of schooling and to develop pedagogical practices that aim not only to change the nature of schooling, but also the wider society” (Pennycook, “Toward” 24). To critical pedagogues, the educational system is simply a political by-product reflecting the power-oriented societal dimension to maintain the status quo; impairing people’s perception of themselves as oppressed, it has subconsciously ‘educated’ them to be submerged in the culture of silence. In reaction against such an anti-educational phenomenon which internalizes the self-depreciation, Paulo Freire, the Brazilian educator who dedicated his life to the codification of CP, espouses that human’s ontological vocation is to be an active subject who takes action for transformation through the process of self-affirmation (*Oppressed* 52). On this account, CP encourages teachers to raise their ontological and epistemological awareness as educators and go beyond the idea of being good technicians in class. Acknowledging teachers as transformative intellectuals, CP urges them to empower students as agents by bringing local issues into class and presenting them based on the Deweyan critical task-based approach or the Freirean problem-posing dialogue, rather than traditional didactic methods. By doing so, teachers can stimulate their own as well as students’ critical reflections about the preexisting problems and act on them for fundamental transformation. Freire calls such a cycle of continual reflections and practices as *Praxis* (36).

In English language teaching (ELT), CP primarily prompts teachers to scrutinize English language in light of the historical, cultural, sociopolitical, and economic issues. Given the complexity of the role of English, CP asks teachers to surpass the view of English as “simply a means of expression or communication” as a *lingua franca* (Norton and Toohey 1). Aware of the interlinked facets of English and its underlying ideologies in ELT, English teachers need to approach ELT with more critical minds. Furthermore, CP keeps encouraging English teachers to interrogate the role of English in an effort to identify how ELT is involved with the reproduction of social inequalities in different contexts of the world; namely, understanding classroom practices via a macro level lens is the first step for English teachers to gain in-depth insight into “how the teaching of English can be undertaken as a pedagogy of possibility, an approach that challenges inequality in society rather than perpetuating it” (Pierce 403). In this sense, CP in English teaching should not be seen as merely a pedagogical method as to ‘how to teach English’ but as a social and educational approach which is concerned about how English learning can affect personal and social change (Crookes and Lehner 327). Neither any particular technique nor theory guarantees this empowering pedagogy; rather, CP is a way of doing the praxis with an attitude for the potential possibility of systematic transformation. In CP, English pedagogy should be focused on enriching not the English language but the education of a country; in turn, CP values glocalized English pedagogies in conjunction with local educational contexts.

Considering the worldliness of English as related to the language and power, CP regards English as inseparable from its many contexts. Rather than ‘just teach the language’, thus, English teachers should initially contend with an array of questions: the role of English in educational systems—to what extent does English play a deterministic role for academic and

social success in an educational system of a society, and to what extent does English contribute to reproducing and broadening social and cultural inequalities; English curriculum—whose English and cultures are given credence as norms in public textbooks; classroom practices—how should language teachers approach English in their teaching so as to demystify such complicated relations of English and local and global power and help students to understand them critically, and what approach should teachers employ to diminish or eradicate their and students' deeply-rooted inferiority to English, its native speakers and its local supporters, elites and develop English for students' own sake. In Korea, neither college curriculum in educating future teachers nor in-service teacher training programs pays much attention to the aforementioned politics of English. As a result, teachers have unconsciously contributed to perpetuating the norms of American or British English while devaluing the other world Englishes. In this respect, it is high time for the Korean government to turn its view to the fundamental matters of English language and its local English pedagogy.

Through this paper, I will highlight the necessity of applying CP in the Korean English educational context on three aspects: to overcome national inferiority attached to the Center English; to maximize students' class participation and improve their linguistic skills and simultaneously critical reflections; to surmount *washback* effect or teaching to the test through a systematic change. Firstly, I will suggest that the government should encompass world Englishes in an official Korean English curriculum and also employ English teachers from Outer Circle countries. Furthermore, EFL governments should make collaborative efforts to codify world Englishes and disseminate them to the world through such strategies as exchanging English teachers and conducting on and offline conferences. By prospering English with Englishes, the

English language can be democratized and achieve a sincere status as an international language.

With regard to classroom practices, secondly, I will suggest that class should be co-developed by the negotiation of teachers and students, from designing a syllabus to deciding class topics and even methodologies. In CP, students are as autonomous beings as teachers. Therefore, their participation is of primary importance in class. When students talk about their situations, issues, and interests in class, they are willing to take the risk of making mistakes no matter what language they speak. By applying CP to English class, accordingly, not only do students' motivation and class participation increase, but their linguistic skills and critical reflections become stimulated simultaneously. If necessary, they can be empowered to *talk back* for changing problems. In responding to students' *voices*, the government should take more responsible actions. Rather than placing blame on individual teachers or ignoring students' demands, it should begin with taking students' voices into account and discussing strategies for transforming some issues for the sake of Korean students.

In fact, the syllabus co-development reveals limitations to be applied in the Korean context because the government expects teachers to finish the government-produced syllabus throughout a year, and the completion of texts is not optional but more or less mandatory to Korean teachers of English. However, the government allows freedom in choosing a syllabus for co-taught classes by local and native-English-speaking teachers on the pretext of focusing on students' oral skills based on communicative language teaching (CLT). As mentioned previously, no single specific technique exists in CP. With critical reflections and attitudes, local English teachers should strive for appropriating any effective techniques or methods in light of teaching situations. That is, Korean teachers of English can incorporate the techniques of CLT within the

approach of CP aiming at raising students' critical reflections on local and global problematic issues. Dividing CP into the two versions, weak and strong, therefore, I will apply the weak version to solo-teaching situations and the strong versions to co-teaching situations in the Korean middle school context. Within the framework of CP, I will present two lesson plans of the solo-teaching based on a preexisting syllabus while introducing two lesson plans for co-teaching based on the strong version of CP, i.e., co-developing the syllabus with students. For the purpose of this paper, the critical co-teaching praxis will be more focused and articulated.

Lastly, I will elaborate CP as the only way to cope with washback effect in the Korean context. As students progress to high school levels, they tend to prefer teachers who can help them to reach their academic demands for the success in a local educational system, irrespective of traditional exam-oriented teaching methods; this tendency has consequently entailed *washback*, teaching to the test. This is the main reason why the Korean government encourages only teachers in elementary and middle schools to utilize the approach of CLT. This educational reality, however, has substantially overwhelmed students in the transitional phase from the middle schools to the high schools. After having been exposed to a variety of task-based activities of CLT, students should turn their focus on studying English for a college entrance exam, simply dealing with reading, listening, and grammar for tests. In an attempt to compromise with mundane academic demands for exams and at the same time, teach English within the approach of CP, therefore, I will associate the ideas of dynamic written corrective feedback and dynamic assessment with CP in the Korean middle school context. Through the procedures of presentation, writing, reading, and discussion dealing with their issues, students can be equipped with necessary linguistic skills for the tests and critical awareness about social

problems. In a nutshell, of primary importance to CP in ELT are twofold: improving students' linguistic skills in correspondence with local demands; and stimulating their critical awareness to recognize and tackle unjust problems for the ultimate goal of the social change. Even if the fundamental transformation may not be attained immediately, CP can guide the way where the Korean educational system should proceed and empower the next generation to pursue for it.

In this paper, I will first introduce the general educational concept of critical pedagogy (CP), regarding its historical derivation, meaning, and pedagogical approach of classroom practices and multiculturalism. Applying CP to English language teaching (ELT), I will discuss the implication of English as an international language and its corresponding issue of native-English-speaking teachers vis-à-vis their counterparts, non-native-English-speaking teachers in ELT. After introducing pedagogical principles of CP in ELT and the critical praxis of Wallerstein and Auerbach, a great number of case studies will be illustrated as good examples of CP in ELT. Given the ideological role of English in the Korean context, then, I will strongly underscore the necessity of CP and its appropriation in the Korean context. In this regard, I will present the methods of dynamic writing and assessment and appropriate them within the framework of CP in Korea. In the final part of practical classroom practices, I will provide two lesson plans for solo-teaching and two lesson plans for co-teaching respectively, and the co-teaching class will be based on a co-developed syllabus by the negotiation of students and teachers. Along with the visual representation of the classroom procedures, I will elaborate the concise steps of three co-taught classes.

Critical Pedagogy: General Education

Introduction

As an introduction to, preparation for, and legitimation of particular forms of social life, education always presupposes a vision of the future. In this respect a curriculum and its supporting pedagogy are a version of our own dreams for ourselves, our children, and our communities. (Simon 371)

In this statement of educational philosophy, Roger Simon emphasizes that education should be fundamentally concerned with giving students hope for the possibility of a better future, and its pedagogy should be supportive in that respect. His viewpoint then prompts questions of what pedagogy is all about and how it affects classroom practices. According to Simon, while *teaching* concerns “specific strategies and techniques” for achieving pre-determined learning objectives in classrooms, *pedagogy* involves all the aspects of educational practices in a society, such as curriculum content and design, classroom teaching techniques, and evaluation methods. More complex and extensive than teaching, therefore, pedagogy is closely related to historical, sociopolitical, and cultural facets of a society since the dominant classes prioritize and support their own pedagogy based on their educational policies. In this sense, proposing a pedagogy means proposing a political vision. Also, talking about teaching practices means talking about politics (370-371). As Berlin puts it, “a way of teaching is never innocent” in this respect (492). This view echoes Benesch, who states that one’s pedagogy is never free of ideology because subject matter, teaching methods, and assessment all reflect on one’s political visions (707).

Nonetheless, most teachers tend to pay little attention to pedagogy in their teaching contexts, or they accept the pervasive pedagogy as it is while focusing on teaching

methodologies exclusively. Nor is there sufficient epistemological consideration about the nature of knowledge which they are teaching. On the belief that education should be apolitical and ahistorical, some teachers purposely avoid dealing with fundamental social problems which determine the success of schooling of students, such as social inequalities, marginalization, and discrimination; consequently, they are unlikely to encourage students' human agency with a vision of hope for the future. Reagan, who disputes such technician approaches to teaching, urges teachers to be more attentive to the above-mentioned epistemological questions in implementing any pedagogical practice since "the way in which we think about *knowledge* and what it means *to know* is directly and necessarily linked to all aspects of how we teach" (51).

Of course, being good technicians with innovative methodologies is an integral part of teaching, and all teachers should strive for it. Moreover, students definitely prefer teachers who can deliver lessons with appropriate techniques. As mentioned above, however, the more important role of education is empowering students to be agents in the context of learning and providing them with the possibility of change. Prior to discussing teaching methods, teachers should consider and talk about ways to give students a commitment to a better future. In this regard, critical pedagogy (CP) urges teachers and teacher educators to primarily reflect on inequalities of power and false myths of equal opportunity in the social system and raise questions about its existing educational institutions. Ultimately, CP attempts to transform both education and the wider society through "a healthy skepticism" about unequal power relationship (Giroux, "Introduction" 1).

For critical educators, the basic principle of CP in class is to contemplate how they can make schooling more meaningful, critical, and emancipatory in order to contribute to building a

more equitable world, in which everyone can enjoy a real equal opportunity at the onset. Hence, critical educators raise questions such as: who produces knowledge in education and whose interest does the education serve; by serving whose interest, what teachers have done or are doing consciously or subconsciously; and what teachers can or should do to serve the general public's interest. Basically, these concerns of CP boil down to two micro- and macro-level questions: the ways to *empower* students to be active subjects in order to raise their *voice* towards schools and societies; and the ways to *empower* those who have been silenced and excluded to regain equal membership in a society. To empower students as critical agents, CP encourages that teachers should be able to provide students with skills and knowledge necessary to cultivate or expand their healthy skepticism about unjust social issues and offer them a space for an argument about what should be done to take responsibility of the present for a democratic future.

In this section, I will first introduce the historical background of CP in general education in light of Paulo Freire's educational perspective. Then, I will thoroughly explore the educational implications of CP from the viewpoints of CP pedagogues such as Apple, Shor, Simon, McLaren, and Giroux. In order to better understand CP-based classes, I will next examine the pedagogical approaches or strategies of CP. Furthermore, I will illustrate CP's approach to multicultural education in order to identify its position toward social diversities regarding race, gender, and social class. After introducing the concept of Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis for a more democratic class, I will discuss some limitations for the practice of CP in school. Finally, I will conclude that essential to expanding the approach of CP are two aspects: for teachers to teach

with a critical attitude and to share illustrative CP-based classroom examples with others by forming firm solidarity.

1. Historical Background of CP

The key concept of CP is in part derived from the ideas of Marxism in achieving social democracy and equality through letting the voice of marginalized people be heard. After the Cold War, the Modernist values were denounced as reductionalism, functionalism, essentialism, and universalism which disregard the relative experiences or truth of each individual, and such reflection gave rise to a range of critical theories such as *postmodernism* and *post-Marxism* from diverse marginalized groups (McLaren 124; Canagarajah, “CP in L2” 931-932). In viewing education as a site of conflict, those critical schools problematized existing concepts, oppressive structures, and hierarchies of knowledge which the education system had produced, and they attempted to reconfigure the practice of education (Usher and Edwards 3-4). CP has been also inspired by a number of anti-authoritarian and non-Marxist educational philosophies; such as John Dewey’s democratic education and alternative schools in the 20th century. Based on the Progressive Movement of the social Reconstructionism in the 1910s, Dewey advocated that schools should play central roles in promoting an equal society, and his educational perspective gave birth to alternative schools; for example, *Summerhills* in the 1920s and *Ferrer’s New Schools* in the 1930s (Crookes, “The Practicality” 335). Although the aforementioned approaches hold slightly different educational views, they all yearn for emancipatory and democratic education in which individual autonomy is respected. This viewpoint lies at the very heart of the critical theories and lays the foundation of CP in education.

Critical pedagogy (CP) for education was first inspired by the work of Brazilian educator, Paulo Freire. Concerned with uncritically-accepted contradictions, Freire initiated a literacy program for slum dwellers and peasants in Brazil in the 1950s in order to stimulate their critical awareness about their lives. As an educator of the oppressed, he believed that human vocation is to take action for changing perceived reality aimed at improving life conditions (Crawford-Lange 258). Having specified education as a political act, Freire relentlessly challenged the politics of the dominant class which reproduces and perpetuates the social inequalities for maintaining their status quo. To him, the purpose of education is to develop critical thinking for change. Therefore, Freire presents the people's situations to them as problems, and encourages them to perceive, reflect, and act upon their own "situationality" (*Oppressed* 90). Since then, Freire's educational philosophy has been developed into CP by many scholars: representatives of mainstream education are Shor, Simon, McLaren, Apple, and Giroux; advocates in English language teaching (ELT) are Crawford-Lange, Pennycook, Auerbach, Benesch, Canagarajah, Kumaravadivelu, Kubota, and Crookes.

2. Definition and Overview of CP

Critical Pedagogy can be defined as an approach to teaching and curriculum that "seeks to understand and critique the historical and sociopolitical context of schooling and to develop pedagogical practices that aim not only to change the nature of schooling, but also the wider society" (Pennycook, "Toward" 24). Essentially, CP taps into the unbalanced educational structures based on power relations; i.e., how the dominant elite have manipulated the reproduction of knowledge in education and molded their knowledge as a social norm for the

masses. Through the reciprocal exchange between teachers and students, McLaren suggests that people can think about, negotiate, and transform not only the power relations in classroom teaching practices, but also in knowledge production, school structures, and the wider community, society, and nation-state (121). For education to be a force in transforming social relations, he believes that it should be fused with revolution. In this regard, Simon regards CP as the pedagogy of possibility which enables people to enjoy the discourses of liberation and hope (370); it is the discourse of liberation since CP continuously asks questions to liberate the marginalized groups, and it is the discourse of hope since CP never ceases to strive for attaining social justice (Freire, *Freedom* 69-72).

To critical pedagogues, the educational system is simply a by-product reflecting the power-oriented societal dimension in which the rights of certain classes are systematically marginalized (Akbari 277). Having identified education as being political, CP pedagogues including Freire, Giroux, and McLaren, contend that schools have constantly acted as agents in the reproduction of social and cultural inequalities in support of the dominant forms of culture and knowledge (Freire, *Literacy* 39; Apple 33; Simon 371; Giroux, *Pedagogy* 72; Crawford 258; Shor 13; Pennycook, "Concept" 590-591) From this point of view toward schooling, Shor claims that there can be no neutrality in education considering the choice of books and topics for study, the preference of classroom discourse, the allocation of school budget, the issues as to employment or promotion of staff, and the administrative support for certain groups or policies (13-15). In seeking to overcome significant inequalities within a society concerning race, gender, wealth, and privilege, CP further brings a wider social context into the classroom based on the axiom of "what happens in the classroom should end up making a difference outside the

classroom” (Baynham 28). Giroux also argues that teaching and learning based on CP expand the opportunities for students and others to become social and political agents in a society (*Pedagogy* 169).

Taking the politics of education into account, Paulo Freire reiterates that education should not be understood as “an autonomous or neutral practice” because not only can education replicate the dominant ideology, but at the same time, it can empower those being educated and educators to negate or unveil the dominant ideology through critical awareness (*Literacy* 38-39). Indeed, the latter is a major educational goal of CP, and it can be achieved by the education of critical literacy according to Freire:

Literacy must be seen as a medium that constitutes and affirms the historical and existential moments of lived experience that produce a subordinate or a lived culture. Hence, it is an eminently political phenomenon, and it must be analyzed within the context of a theory of power relations and an understanding of social and cultural reproduction and production. (142)

As such, since language is dynamically interconnected with reality, “reading the word implies continually reading the world”; in other words, reading is not merely decoding the written word but understanding the intertwined facets of the word and world (29, 33). In this vein, critical reading can empower students to read the word in the context of the world. It promotes students to understand why certain ideologies come to prevail at certain times, and how people react against them to transform the world. To Freire, being a literate person means that with critical consciousness he or she will be able to use language to carry out *conscientização* or *conscienceitization*, which refers to learning to perceive the dehumanizing contradictions of

situation and to take action for social reconstruction (Freire, *Oppressed* 19; *Literacy* 159; Crawford-Lange 258). Along with critical reading, Freire points out that reading should be expanded to or conjoined with a writing activity such as the *rewriting* of what is read, in order to express or deliver one's thoughts to the world (*Literacy* 36).

3. Pedagogical Approach in CP

For the purpose of stimulating students' critical thinking and action, CP puts an emphasis on a *dialogical* approach by which having been merged as a teacher-student with students-teachers, both teachers and students construct a horizontal relationship and become mutually responsible for tackling hidden meanings of problems (Freire, *Oppressed* 67; Crawford-Lange 259). By posing two views of education as either *adaptive* or *integrative*, Freire rejects adaptive education by an analogy to banking (Freire 58; Crawford-Lange 259). In the traditional *Banking education* system, the teachers' primary concern is the transferring of fixed knowledge from the *central bank of knowledge* and depositing the information onto students. In this case, students become mere passive recipients and are not allowed to challenge the absolute authority of knowledge and the knowledge transmitters, i.e., teachers. It is obvious that students become less critical at the onset. Also, this traditional system neglects the roles of teachers, regarding them as simply knowledge delivers. Teachers, hence, are prone to fall into the net of the system and uncritically partake in the perpetuation of the dominant ideology by legitimizing the hegemony of the meritocracies. On the contrary, the *problem-posing* approach of CP is a form of integrative or transformational education, and it does not necessarily seek for the answers posed problems since its main purpose is raising students' critical awareness through the exploration of such

problems; in this respect, the problem-posing of CP differs from the problem-solving of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). CP's problem-posing dialogue begins with affirming human beings and their knowledge as uncompleted products in the process of *becoming*. Here teachers and students attempt to resolve the realities and contradictions of the world through a dialogical mode, rather than finding tangible solutions, which is the goal of CLT's problem-solving. Accordingly, the problem-posing education prioritizes a reciprocal exchange for students and teachers to interrogate, negotiate, and reshape existing knowledge, power, and conditions (Freire, *Oppressed* 72-73).

In such critical classrooms, teachers are perceived as *transformative intellectuals* who actively engage in enhancing students' participation as autonomous learners and linking students' self-reflective awareness to a commitment for transforming inequalities as agents for social change (Giroux, *Pedagogy* 103). In light of his educational practice of teaching academic composition in a university, Shor stresses that of vital importance to the problem-posing dialogue is a participatory class in which students rigorously take part. Thus, rather than providing a predetermined course syllabus, he invites students to co-construct it from writing topics to the rubric and methods of assessment through negotiation. In a lesson, he first asks students to make a group or committee presentation about an issue as related to their lives. After developing their writing critically outside class, students are asked to discuss the issue of the writing in class. To maximize students' participation, he adopts a variety of feedback methods such as self-, peer-, committee-, and teacher-editing in addition to individual or group conference at his office. He also gives students chances to rewrite or polish their essays for improving their grade. To Shor, a critical and empowering class begins when teachers endeavor to de-socialize existing knowledge

or local issues with critical distance from the students' viewpoint. Not only does this approach help students see themselves as knowledgeable people, but it also increases students' motivation with their experiences being contextualized in lessons (37, 119). Likewise, CP embraces learners' feelings, prior beliefs, reasoning, and experience into the context of class communication, by strongly denying decontextualized contents, divorced from learners' experience and local contexts.

For the construction of participatory classrooms on the problem-posing basis, teachers derive thematic and generative topics and words from students' daily lives and situate them in learning contexts. This *situated* teaching and learning are directly related to students' realities within and outside classrooms. Therefore, this situated problem-posing method enhances students' motivation to participate in lessons critically, and consequently helps them better understand the world around them. Such a process enables students to recognize social inequalities which they have been embedded in and empower them to seek for changing themselves and a community (Shor 44-45). For CP to be truly effective, students should be able to claim ownership of their classroom. It goes without saying that the primary importance to this issue of ownership is dealing with the real-life topics based on local communities. Moreover, it is a democratic and egalitarian classroom in which students can sincerely enjoy their ownership of lessons. By sharing their authority with students, teachers should invite students' participation in all the procedure of lessons, from planning a syllabus to deciding learning topics and materials, and even methodology. As human resources, students can make great contributions to teachers as well as their fellow students. Not only can they help teachers to facilitate classroom practices, they can also assist and have positive impact on their peers.

In an English class, for example, teachers provide some extensive thematic topics of local or global issues and let students negotiate and select their topic for group presentation. At the first day, teachers need to discuss the class rules such as the use of English, homework, and functionality for class time. Also, teachers and students should decide the types of assessment and their rubrics; CP denies a one-time pencil and paper test but asks teachers to implement diverse tests via diverse methods such as self-, peer-, and teacher assessment by a means of assessing students' potential. As a way of inviting students to determine proper methodologies for class, teachers can talk with a whole class, or by forming a think tank, teachers and students can review the pros and cons of certain methods and discuss effective ways in applying them in class. As recipients of education, students can give teachers more objective views which contribute to improving the quality of lessons. This method also allows students to feel the strong ownership of the class since they are co-constructing it with teachers. Indeed, teachers should change the members of the think tank on a regular basis by a means of providing students an equal opportunity and maximizing their participation. In addition, the power of peer-assisted learning should not be neglected. Enhancing a sense of collaboration, it can diminish students' view which regards their classmates as competitive counterparts. Also, individual assistance can promote students' academic achievement; especially in a big class which teachers cannot give each student more attention.

Not only does such a participatory approach of CP specify both teachers and students as equal subjects in the context of education, but it also reinforces students' motivation, sense of responsibility, and autonomy concerning learning to a great extent. In CP, the power relationship in the classroom can be re-conceptualized; from the dichotomy of students being passive and

teachers authoritative to both of them being more equal.

4. CP's Critical Multiculturalism: Educating cultural diversity

As illustrated above, the curriculum in CP is mainly constituted with students' experiences, perceptions, interests, and their lives within and outside classroom. In ESL classrooms, particularly, those stories which students bring to classrooms reflect on their diverse racial, ethnic, cultural, sexual, and linguistic backgrounds. CP urges that such "cultural diversity" should be acknowledged and profoundly appreciated in sociopolitical contexts (Simon 373; Shor 46; Giroux, *Pedagogy* 235). Having demonstrated the complexity of multicultural education, Kubota identifies three kinds of perspectives, conservative, liberal, and critical in accordance with the ways to approach the issue of diversity (31).

The conservative approach to multiculturalism views cultural differences "as a cause of societal divisiveness" and fundamentally rejects multicultural education in advocacy of assimilation (Giroux, *Pedagogy* 236; Kubota, "multiculturalism" 31). That is, cultural difference should be assimilated into a common culture. Secondly, the liberal approach to multiculturalism specifies that all people share "common humanity and natural equality," whereby they should have an equal opportunity for success in a society, regardless of their race, culture, economic status, and gender (Kubota, "multiculturalism" 32). In other words, since market economy creates an equal opportunity, success is available to everyone who works hard no matter which social classes they come from. In this regard, Giroux contends that this optimistic view fails to take into account the unequal social, economic, and political conditions from the starting point (*Pedagogy* 246). Instead, this ideological realm contributes to consolidating the justification of

the taken-for-granted privilege by the dominant elite.

Contrary to liberal multiculturalism, critical multiculturalism begins with the appreciation of dynamic and diverse culture among different backgrounds. Based on the power relation in a society, it examines such issues as how and why certain racial and other groups have been discriminated against or oppressed. Furthermore, critical multiculturalism explores the possibility of counter-hegemonic struggle with a counter-discourse as a way to achieve social justice. Giroux, who calls critical multiculturalism *Insurgent Multiculturalism*, encourages rigorous pedagogical practices for teachers and students to engage in critical reflection on a variety of cultures in a society (*Pedagogy* 247).

Recently, the number of multicultural families has been substantially increased in Korea due to various reasons such as the importation of foreign laborers and match maker-mediated international marriages for those males who cannot find their mates in Korea. As a result, the term multicultural families usually refers to either Korean husband or wife who has got married to those who are from South East Asian countries such as Vietnam and the Philippines or from China. In corresponding to such a social trend, the government and the offices of school districts have paid attention to educating multicultural families Korean and Korean culture, but with a focus on assimilation, they have not made a systematic effort to understand different languages and cultures of the multicultural families or educate Korean people about the cultural diversity. Even if they approve of the cultural differences, their attempts remain only superficial, just like the standpoint of the liberal multiculturalism; that is, their efforts pay little attention to empowering the low socioeconomic status of many multicultural families. Consequently, multicultural families strive for being assimilated into the Korean society. Although they are

successfully assimilated into the society, they hardly cast off from their current position in the social hierarchy, the class of labor. Indeed, the Korean government should acknowledge the diversity of multi cultures, and local educational offices should also introduce it to students and parents by including this issue in school textbooks. According to the approach of CP, the more important task is to empower those multicultural families to be equal members of the Korean society. In class, teachers need to raise students' critical awareness about how Koreans have discriminated against foreign labor workers and their children based on the discourse of the mono-lingual and cultural Korea and the sense of Koreans' superiority to them in association with national economic power. Diverse methods can be utilized to raise students' critical awareness; teachers can prompt students to make group presentations or participate in role plays in order for them to experience and sympathize with multicultural families. Moreover, teachers and students should discuss ways to change such a distorted social system and conduct walking campaigns to achieve a sincere democracy. More essential is exploring ways of empowering those marginalized foreign workers to talk back against authority. Many critical Korean teachers need to volunteer for or participate in this process, considering the statement of CP that education plays a crucial role in empowerment,

Rather than "merely celebrating differences or assuming a priori that all people are equal" (Kubota, "multiculturalism" 37), critical pedagogy (CP) is more interested in deep-rooted questions and inequality of multiculturalism on the pretext of a democratic society. CP regards that the taken-for-granted norm of the democracy, equal opportunity to everyone, in fact, does not apply to everyone; some minority groups in a society are still being discriminated. In this respect, CP focuses on reeducating the general public for them to reflect on what they have

learned and how they have been trained by school textbooks. Throughout classroom practice, CP encourages teachers to analyze not only the dominant-produced text books, but also the structure of classroom discourses for the sincere democracy in class. In the following section, I will explore the counter-strategies of CP in deconstructing the predominant discourses in the textbooks and classes.

5. Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis

Discourse refers to stretches of language above the level of the sentence in conversations or written texts, and *Discourse Analysis*, therefore, examines the superficial and underlying relationship between the discourse and the social context in which it is utilized in such as communication or written texts (Kumaravadivelu, “CCDA” 458). In *Critical Discourse Analysis* (CDA), the term discourse analysis is regarded as a form of social or discursive practice (Cots 336), which is concerned about what verbal, nonverbal, and interactional resources people employ in language practice, and how such resources are involved in creating the societal meanings of communities in a society. Accordingly, CDA attempts to discover how discourse is constructed, maintained, and reproduced in relations of social power and ideologies. If necessary, the ideological awareness through CDA entails the transformation in discursive practices for greater social justice (Fairclough, *Discourse* 10). For example, by analyzing discourses between employers and employees, in particular, labor workers, CDA focuses on revealing an authoritative role of employers in discourse and discusses ways to democratize their relationship in discursive practice. As for differentiating discourse analysis from being critical and non-critical, Cots presents systematic tables as follows:

What is discourse?	
Critical view	Non-critical View
Ideologically determined ways of talking or writing about persons, places, events or phenomena.	Stretch of language perceived to be meaningful, unified and purposive.
A mode of social practice that is both structured by a society and, at the same time, contributes to structuring that same society.	Different ways of talking / writing about (and structuring) areas of knowledge or social practice (e.g. medical discourse, ecological discourse).

Table 1. Critical and non-critical views of discourse

What is discourse analysis?	
Critical view	Non-critical View
Analysis of how texts work within specific socio-cultural practices.	Description of natural spoken or written discourse.
Explanation of how discourse is shaped by relations of power and ideology and, at the same time, is used to construct social identities, social relations, and systems of knowledge and belief.	Study of what gives a stretch of language unity and meaning.

Table 2. Critical and non-critical views of discourse analysis (339).

The crucial difference between critical discourse analysis (CDA) and non-critical discourse analysis is that the former probes discourse in conjunction with political power and ideology. In other words, CDA is more interested in analyzing the hidden agenda or meanings of discourse which serve to perpetuate the political hegemony of a certain class while marginalizing others in a society. As illustrated previously, critical pedagogy regards that education plays a crucial role in keeping the vicious circle of an unjust social stratification rotating, considering the fact that the dominant discourses have mainly constituted discourses in class. In this regard, Pennycook views a classroom as a complicated cultural arena in which diverse forms constantly collide (“Toward” 26) while Kumaravadivelu sees the classroom as a “minisociety” whose discourse is “socially constructed, politically motivated, and historically determined” (“CCDA” 458, 472). Indeed, the English classroom is not exempt from such a political ideology.

In an attempt to more democratize discourses in class, Kumaravadivelu conceptualizes a framework of *Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis* (CCDA) which delves into classroom discursive practices and formations of not only teacher-student discourse and student-student discourse through class interaction, but also the discourse of school textbooks which are published by the government in light of local and global issues. The main purpose of CCDA is encouraging teachers to reflect on their own classroom discourse and appropriate dominant textbooks by looking for insights in the worldview behind texts. In this process of CCDA, teachers should and can become pedagogically independent critical knowledge generators (473, 475).

According to Kumaravadevelu, what makes a text critical does not depend on how authors construct its content, but how teachers and students collaboratively deconstruct it in class

(479). In an English class, teachers can prompt students to discuss how the textbooks depict the role of gender, race, and class and social issues such as poverty, history, and human right. For instance, English teachers in Korea can talk about Korean reunification in light of the contents of history or social studies textbooks and both South and North Korean governments' reunification policies and their current relations in that respect. Based on the results of CCDA, English teachers can ask students to investigate the hidden policies of the two governments as a group project. Another example is to draw students' attention to examine the hidden inequality in constructing some historical places such as the Pyramids, The Great Walls, and Taj Mahal. Most textbooks portray those places as simply beautiful; however, critical teachers need to guide students to see hidden issues via a critical lens: who really built those places; whether they volunteered for construction or were forced; whether they were paid appropriately; what happened to those who had accidentally died in construction and to their bereaved families. In order to connect the history to the present, teachers can ask students to act as labor workers and discuss what they have felt after a role play. Furthermore, teachers can encourage students to think about similar issues in a current society and explore what people can do to make a better world.

As Kumaravadivelu stresses, the essential needs of instructional strategies to implement a critical class are for teachers to improve both linguistic skills and critical reflexivity at the same time (479). As English teachers, a good command of English is indispensable, and they should make strenuous efforts in studying ways of stimulating their and students' English skills. Accordingly, critical teachers should try hard to balance the two competing demands in class: the need for helping students to become more proficient in language and the need for raising

students' critical awareness and providing space for their voices to be heard. In critical pedagogy (CP), there are no representative teaching methodologies now that every class situation varies. Given current teaching situations, therefore, critical teachers should make the most of every technique from a traditional Grammar Translation Method to Communicative Language Teaching. More importantly, critical teachers need to share their classroom methods with others and discuss their pros and cons in order to popularize the approach of CP in class.

6. Critiques of CP

Through the process of self-reflexivity, critical pedagogy (CP) has in part been severely challenged by critical pedagogues in education who situate themselves within the field of CP, in an attempt to precisely construct and implement it while considering the fundamental issues. Many pedagogues have argued that most of the discussion on CP has been limited to its abstract philosophical rationale, and not much effort has been made to bring it down to the actual classroom practice. Ellsworth critiques CP as an abstract utopian approach which fails to provide practical implications or suggestions in the contexts of classroom; for CP to be useful, it needs to avoid dogmatic prescriptions (306). Backing Ellsworth's viewpoint, Gore pinpoints that CP has paid little attention to the ways of locating its practices in educational settings (61), and Lather urges critical intellectuals to shift their attention from macro level to micro level (180). In pointing to the characteristics of education in postmodernism as "not simply a body of thought, a way of theorizing, but also a way of practicing" (1), Usher and Edwards attack CP to be curiously silent in classroom practices haunted by the emancipator possibilities of education (4, 218). For the purpose of making explicit connections between theory and practice, a great

number of local-based case studies in application of CP should be actively introduced.

Furthermore, Gore encourages CP to present better contextualized practice guidance for the teachers whom CP hopes to empower, or who CP hopes will empower students. (68)

With regard to the key assumptions of CP such as *empowerment*, *student voice*, *dialogue*, and even the term *critical*, Ellsworth contends that they are only “repressive myths” or “surface manifestation of deeper contradiction involving pedagogies” which still function for perpetuating relations of domination in classrooms (298, 320). Even with CP, classrooms are not safe spaces for students to speak out or talk back about their experiences of oppression (315). Accordingly, the dialogic approach only gives “the illusion of equality” without attacking the fundamental problem of imbalanced relationship between teachers and students in classrooms; that is, leaving the superiority attached to teachers intact (306). Placing the notion of empowerment under suspicion in the similar vein, Gore also argues that agents of power and power as property are two fundamental issues (57).

The first issue concerns who are the agents of empowerment and who takes the role of empower-er to empower others. Generally, CP conceives the teachers as the empowering agents for the students, and it, therefore, depicts “the teacher’s role as crucial and sometimes even as omniscient” (Gore 57). This unbalanced power relation may immediately polarize into the active empower-er *us* and the passive empowered *them*, subsequently misleading *us* to have a didactic attitude of ‘what we can do for you!’ (Gore 61). Given the fact that inequality in power is a permanent feature, teachers still retain the authority in the classroom. Obviously, the possibilities for empowerment, therefore, are limited in classrooms (Johnston 560). Along with undemocratic relationships between teachers and students, another question arises in relation to teachers’

gender, race, and class; that is, what kind of teachers are manifested as agents of power in the discourse of CP. In this account, Ellsworth points out that the discourse of CP is largely male-oriented so that it fails to embrace the different voices of gendered teachers (310). Disputing CP as “a site men have constructed to serve themselves”, Lather also posits that the relationship between feminist and masculinist discourse in CP should be reconfigured (177-178).

The second issue deals with its fundamental characteristics of power. In the discourse of CP, power is portrayed as property, something the teacher has and can give to or share with students (Gore 57). In applying Foucault’s notion of power as “circulating” or “exercised” rather than “given” or “possessed”, Gore claims that instead of the logic of the *give and take*, empowerment in CP should be reconceptualized as teachers exercise their power to help students exercise their own power on particular sites. Echoing Gore’s viewpoint, Johnston also states that “power is not shared like a commodity” (560). With respect to empowerment, two questions should be taken into account. The first question concerns “empowerment for what”? For this question, CP has constantly envisaged superficial macro level-based answers with a focus on broad social transformation (Ellsworth 307), which appears to be juxtaposed with teachers’ micro-level demands. Similarly, Gore also states that as long as the discourse of CP remains on the level of theoretical rhetoric, without placing the classrooms at the center, it cannot be regarded as true realization of emancipator or liberatory discourse (60). The second question is concerning the extent to the meaningful empowerment. As Lather puts it, “too often, such pedagogies have failed to probe the degree to which ‘empowerment’ becomes something done ‘by’ liberated pedagogies ‘to’ or ‘for’ the as-yet-unliberated, the ‘other’ ” (169).

Having identified little systematic examination or attempt of CP to problematize its

underlying inequality (309), Ellsworth urges that CP should make empirical efforts to reformulate unbalanced power relations by launching such an analysis or program (306). Gore also pinpoints that CP needs to pay more attention to the “microdynamics of the operation of power” because empowerment is determined by teachers who are actualizing the discourse of CP in classroom practices (59-60). The role of critical teachers is helping students to see an issue with various perspectives existing in a society; therefore, teachers in CP should be cautious not to consider themselves as almighty or powerful beings who believe they are always right, and students should follow them. Even if students hold completely opposite perspectives on some issues, and those perspectives are not corresponding to those of CP, teachers in CP should not try to persuade students into their beliefs. Rather, they should create safe environments where students can share their stories comfortably, and their stories are attentively heard. The structure of power between a teacher and students can be more equally reorganized when students’ autonomy is highly respected by teachers in class. In this regard, critical teachers should initially reflect on the structure of power in their classrooms and discuss with students or other teachers in search of ways to truly appreciate students as autonomous. Unless this structure of power in class is thoroughly examined, emancipator space still remains problematic even within the framework of CP.

Discussion and Suggestions

In principle, crucial to critical practice is the self-reflexivity of teachers in the process of integrating their thoughts, desires, and actions in classrooms. The realization of teachers’ limits allows them to ask students with a humble attitude ‘what can we do for you?’ rather than to

proclaim 'what we can do for you!' (Gore 62). In order to achieve social equality, of primary importance is attaining real democracy within the classroom by acknowledging and respecting students as independent subjects who can make their own decision; therefore, critical teachers should not push or force their political views onto students but help students take up their own perspectives through critical discussion about problematic issues.

All education is political, and all schools are sites of cultural politics. In turn, the politics of traditional mainstream pedagogy is also as political as that of CP; the difference between the two is that the former has subconsciously forced its political views to students through school textbooks in order to obtain and maintain their political hegemony in a society. For CP not to stay as a political doctrine, as many critics point it out, teachers and scholars in the practice of CP should find ways of mapping micro and macro relations with more concentration on classroom practices. Through forming a solidary network, local and global teachers need to actively exchange problematic issues and their solutions, teaching materials and methods, and strategies to democratize classes. Good examples of such a network are cyber space discussion in Internet homepage or blog, the conference of local or international teachers' unions, and the publication of journals and practical reference books which present specific classroom methods of CP.

In this regard, critical scholars should endeavor to disseminate the approach of CP by publishing not only theoretical books of CP, but also practical class method-oriented books or journals based on field research with teachers in search of pedagogical feasibility of CP in a public school system. Having studied strategies to overcome the limits of CP applying to the public school system, scholars should inform effective methods to in-service teachers through newspapers, Internet blogs, books, leaflets, or conference. Some critical teachers claim that more

CP-based alternative schools be founded, but such an idea has immanent problems; the high expense of running those schools may increase the tuition of students and give a chance to a few affordable students. Accordingly, the consequence of the alternative schools tends to juxtapose the ideas of CP, providing equal opportunities of education and educating general public for the change of social system. Therefore, critical teachers and scholars should be more engaged in exploring applicable ways of CP in the public school system. Scholars can suggest or invite teachers to discuss how to adapt a certain method in dealing with an issue depending on different subjects; furthermore, teachers need to collaborate to bridge each subject in light of the approach of CP. For example, an issue tackled in a history class can be taught in an English class. Since students are familiar with the issue, they become more motivated and autonomous in expressing their thought in English, rather than memorizing pre-written dialogues unrelated to students' current situations. On this account, national curriculum developers should create a curriculum incorporating or relating all the contents of school subjects in conjunction with teaching procedures.

Moreover, scholars and teachers should have regular conferences to exchange views on from teaching methodologies to educational policies and social issues and act for the fundamental change in the form of campaign and individual or group protest; "Not just passively unwilling, but actively willing to say so in public" (Said, *Representations* 23). For instance, Korean national standard tests result in lining up school districts in accordance with students' grades and making the result public. Consequently, district supervisors and school principals enforce teachers to teach students to the test, and even elementary school students should remain in school for extra studies until seven p.m. Critical teachers and scholars should not ignore this

anti-educational stifling phenomenon. Rather, they should vigorously act on it in diverse ways; teachers can conduct an individual protest in front of the school main gate to inform students the unjust reality of the exam and encourage students as test subjects to discuss the meaning and pros and cons of standard tests in class. In order to raise the critical reflection of the general public, teachers can do walking-campaigns in downtown and distribute leaflets. Also, they can conduct a survey of citizens and deliver its result to the government, educational offices of school districts, mass media, and schools. By challenging the specific undemocratic exam method, the entire exam system in the Korean educational context can be fundamentally changed; that is, achieving the ultimate goal of CP, the transformation of the system.

Along with the formation of solidarity, educating teachers are also indispensable to raise their critical epistemological awareness as teachers. Pre-service and in-service teacher educators should encourage teachers to think and question about the nature of knowledge and its role in a society based on historical, political, and cultural facts before talking about teaching methodologies. In an EFL situation, for instance, college professors need to include the politics of the English language in a regular course and discuss with students how the spread of English as a lingua franca has affected EFL learners, what consequence it has brought about in EFL, and how EFL teachers should approach English in class for the sake of students.

As Canagarajah puts it, CP is not “a set of ideas, but a way of ‘doing’ learning and teaching” (“CP in L2” 932). Pennycook also reiterates that CP is all about teaching “with an attitude” to help students gain belief in themselves and their own abilities to make changes in their lives; hence, this premise of CP does not necessarily require a change in teaching methodologies (*Critical Applied* 173). In other words, teachers do not need to arrange desks in a

circle for discussion if the reality of local educational contexts does not allow this method in class, considering classroom roles and teacher-student relationship, etc. Rather than being technicians and apprentices in class, what is more essential to CP is for both teachers and students to be critically aware of issues surrounding them. Of course, the approach of CP seems to be more or less abstract to teachers, but in education, such critical attitude is an integral part to provoke an initiative for altering an unchallenged system. As Luke and Gore point it out, CP is not “a single-strategy pedagogies of empowerment, emancipation or liberation” (7). When both teachers and students are willing to read the world from a variety of perspectives and think beyond the common assumptions in everyday life, it goes without saying that they are contributing to empowering themselves as subjects of education and also overcoming CP’s repressive myths as simply a doctrinaire. By doing so, CP can become more democratic and liberating as it claims to be.

In the next section, I will explore the approach of critical pedagogy (CP) in English language teaching (ELT) in three aspects: theoretical, pedagogical, and empirical framework. In the theoretical aspect of CP in ELT, I will discuss epistemological issues of the English language per se focusing on sociopolitical and cultural politics of English. Then, I will specifically identify correlation of ELT with the global spread of English from the perspective of CP and its by-product, the pervasive ideology of so-called *Nativespeakerism*. That is, how ELT has influenced in perpetuating imperial English of the Center in which English is spoken as the first language while granting a normative statue to native speakers of English. In the pedagogical framework of CP in ELT, I will explain CP’s four pedagogical principles based on Kumaravadevelu’s principles of *Postmethod*, along with Wallerstein and Auerbach’s pedagogical praxis, illustrated

in their two books for critical practicum: *ESL for Action* and *Problem-posing at Work*. In the empirical framework of CP in ELT, I will examine two kinds of illustrative case studies of CP's critical practices. After introducing English teacher' training programs based on CP, then, I will move to classroom practices, both in the contexts of English as Second Language (ESL) and English as Foreign Language (EFL). In the final section, I will conclude this part two by presenting some suggestions in order to sincerely actualize the approach of CP in ELT.

Critical Pedagogy in English Language Teaching

1. Theoretical Framework

1.1. Implication of the Spread of English as a *Lingua franca*

The concept of CP has been around for some time in education, but it has been recently explored in the practice of English language teaching (ELT). In language education, CP aims for learners and teachers to primarily achieve some critical distance from language use in order to acquire the two broad levels of understanding: conscious awareness in the cognitive sense and critical awareness in the deeper sense to critique the politics of language as related to its choice and variation (Wallace 241). Such critical language awareness should be developed by considering social and historical contexts in which language is being used (Farielough, *Critical* 2-3). In this regard, Canagarajah distinguishes the concepts of critical thinking and critical practice and suggests the critical practice as the main purpose of CP; *critical thinking* is “an individual activity, divorced from an active engagement with social positioning” while *critical practice* generates students’ critical insights into querying for their social and historical positioning in reflection on their life experience, with practical struggles for social change integrated (“TESOL at Forty” 15-16). Accordingly, critical practice is equivalent to Freire’s term, *Praxis* which represents the cyclical mode of critical reflection and practice or action (*Oppressed* 36).

In ELT, however, professionals have made less or no effort to raise the critical awareness toward English per se. From a behaviorist orientation to a pragmatic perspective, the dominant principles in the discipline have led ELT professionals to pay more attention to language teaching methodologies about what goes in the classroom in favor of an over-simplistic functionalist

attitude toward the global spread of English as *natural, neutral, and beneficial*: English is a *natural* result of globalization; English is a *neutral* medium of communication with no cultural or political issues attached; English is a *beneficial* language since it improves inter-national or intra-national cooperation (Pennycook, “English in the world” 79). This perspective overlooks the complex implication of the spread of English in relation to the postcolonialism and neocolonialism by objectifying English as a value-free ahistorical and apolitical entity in a singular reality; more simply, what on earth was English selected as a *lingua franca*?

As to the imperial image of English, Searle argues that English has been “a monumental force, institution of oppression, and rabid exploitation” subjugating black people, low-class workers, and the colonized with its racist and imperial message (qtd. In Reagan 68). Rebuking English as a *Trojan horse*, Cooke also claims that English is “the property of elites, expressing the interests of the dominant classes”, and such high status is permitted not by the social foundation on which English is based but by the nature of English. In this regard, Reagan adds that since “English is not capable of taking action or making decisions”, the language of English is not to blame, but the blame should be placed on the speakers of English who have wielded the imperial power by their political institutions (48). As if a tool is used by people for the unethical purpose, then, it becomes no longer innocent. The innocence of English has been tainted by its speakers with the imperial power. Regan further points out that the objectification of English as non-political leads teachers to misunderstand the nature or construct of English as a single entity and to inevitably reify English itself, the component of English and the related skills and concepts in English teaching and learning (46). Consequently teachers not only mainly focus on technician approaches in English teaching and learning, divorced from wider educational issues,

but also reinforce linguistic legitimacy of English over other languages by depriving human beings of linguistic rights (Reagan 49-50; Philipson 67, 93-98).

This ideological phenomenon has been critiqued by Skuntnabb-Kangas as *Linguicism* which is defined as “ideologies, structures, and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (material and immaterial) between groups which are defined on the basis of language” (437). In other words, the unequal paradigm of the dominant and dominated prioritizes the learning of the dominant language at the expense of local vernaculars, consequently perpetuating the monolingualism which allocates the dominant language as a normative standard for the purpose of inclusion in a society. As a subset of Linguicism, Philipson disputes the contemporary English ideology as *English linguistic imperialism* which represents the dominance of English over other indigenous languages, and it clearly manifests how hierarchies of language substantially involve in the reproduction of status quo (47). Based on his dichotomy of *Center*—in which English is the primary language and *Periphery*—in which English is the second or foreign language, Philipson argues that the Center has prioritized the learning of its English which maintains the Periphery in a state of dependence on the Center in pursuit of homogenization of world culture with its English (17-23).

From the view of a *poststructuralist* theory in which the discourse of language is the reflection of the social existence and reproduction beyond its abstract structure, Peirce regards English as “a site of struggle over meaning, access, and power”, and therefore, English is no longer neutral (404-405). Pennycook also points out that “the world is in English” in consideration of political and historical interrelationship with the spread of English and the discourses of such as development, democracy, capitalism, and modernization; that is, many

discourses of global power have stimulated the spread of English, and the spread of English has stimulated those discourses vice versa (“English in the world” 85-86). In this sense, he concludes that the claim which “the spread of English is natural, neutral, or beneficial” should be placed under scrutiny (“English in the world” 83).

In many cases, a good command of English symbolizes that one has social mobility for success in EFL societies: Korea, Japan, China, and Taiwan. This social mobility is conceptualized by a French sociologist, Bourdieu as *cultural capital* which refers to essential advantageous abilities and skills for social success. Reflecting accessibility to English on socioeconomic status, indeed, children from dominant elite groups tend to obtain more appropriate cultural capital of English for school success than that of children from marginalized groups. That is, their habitus, endowed by parents’ socioeconomic status consequently is inexorably interlocked to their cultural capital. This structural disparity is a determinant manifestation of which the incompatible habitus hampers the two different classes from being socialized at the onset (62). Through a cognitive process of English as the most significant cultural capital for success in EFL societies, people have made a fetish of English and granted English of the Center a normative status without extensive critical recognition. Bourdieu considers such a collective misrecognition as *symbolic violence* which serves to validate English of the prevalent schooling system in people’s consciousness (51). More precisely, the symbolic representation of ‘English equals American English’ has subsequently committed symbolic violence to the EFL societies (Lin 394-395). According to Philipson, this symbolic violence results in disseminating five unchallenged tenets as related in English education in the EFL societies as follows:

- 1) *the monolingual fallacy*—English is best taught through the medium of English only
- 2) *the native speaker fallacy* – the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker of English
- 3) *the early start fallacy* – the earlier English is taught, the better the results will be
- 4) *the maximum exposure fallacy* – the more English is taught, the better the results will be
- 5) *the subtractive fallacy* – If other languages are used much, standards of English will decrease. (185-215)

In a Korean society, for instance, the government has forced teachers to teach English classes through the medium of English and hired native-English-speaking teachers only from the Center countries such as America, England, and Canada, in order to place them into public schools. Based on the belief that ‘the earlier, the better’, the government lowered the age of learning English to the third grade in public elementary schools and is planning to lower the age to the first and second grade level. Following the social trend, Korean parents have sent their young children to English-speaking countries in the hope for them to obtain the pronunciation of the Center English as early as possible. Having established an English-only Zone at schools, the government asks teachers to increase the rate of English exposure such as allowing English only in such rooms. This policy appears to turn some students more silent since their low English competence prevents them from expressing their thoughts. Although students can communicate in English, their limited linguistic competence allows them to process their thoughts less cognitively. Rather than conversing about some topics with appropriate expressions to their ages, they tend to talk the way most kindergarten children do. Considering language has a great effect on one’s cognitive development and behaviors, the English-only policy should be fundamentally

reconsidered. Moreover, the English-focused curriculum entails the decrease of other foreign language education in public schools; hence, many foreign language teachers have changed their subjects to English or Korean. The aforementioned examples clearly indicate the nature of symbolic violence conducted by English in the Korean society.

Obviously, English has granted privilege to certain groups of people while marginalizing others who do not have as much access to English learning. In this sense, Philipson's critical reflection upon linguistic imperialism seems to make an extensive contribution to unearthing the mechanisms of ideological control of English from the macro-societal perspective. However, his rhetoric of linguistic imperialism tends too simple, unilateral, deterministic, and insensitive to the many aspects of English other than domination. Following his perspective, English should be rejected by all means. Not only may this view impose "a false sense of guilt" on English teachers that they have rendered the imperial language to students (Canagarajah, "On EFL Teachers" 207), but it also romanticizes the gatekeeping nature of English in a society. Without the cultural capital of English skills, students are unable to meet social expectations. Furthermore, as Canagarajah pinpoints, linguistic imperialism overlooks the values of local communities in which linguistic and cultural conflicts are significantly mediated through filtering dominant discourses with critical consciousness. Canagarajah refers such a critical praxis to *linguistic hybridity*, and it is concerned about enriching the context of English teaching with diverse localized Englishes ("On EFL Teachers" 207). To go beyond the view of linguistic imperialism, Auerbach, an active critical pedagogue urges that English teachers should be more attentive to and participating in the reexamination of English-only policy regarding the micro-level classroom interactions because classrooms are ultimate driving force for a social change (11).

Up to this point, critical pedagogues call for critical language awareness to illuminate the complexity of the English ideology, highlighted by the macro perspective of LI and to search for ways to decolonize, contest, and change practices of its domination in micro-structural domains. Fairclough suggests that critical language awareness is “an urgently needed element in language education ... [and] a prerequisite for effective democratic citizenship” in order to achieve empowerment (*Critical 3*). According to Pennycook, this empowerment enables teachers and students to grapple the cultural politics of English teaching and subsequently to take critical linguistic actions; that is, by teaching and learning the standard English in judicious and critical ways, using it to critique its power relations, and transforming its linguistic norm to represent themselves and others (*Cultural Politics 315-318*). Similarly, Canagarajah points out that while the uncritical use of English leads to domination, and avoidance of English leads to marginalization, critical negotiation leads to empowerment (*Resisting 176*). With microsocial level of everyday life as opposed to the macroscopic theoretical perspective, Canagarajah describes how teachers and students in war-torn Sri Lanka culturally and linguistically resist the colonial nature of English by appropriating it locally. He further maintains that “the solution is not to run away from politics but to negotiate with the agencies of power for personal and collective empowerment” for a richer educational experience (197). Also, he urges teachers in the practice of CP to raise their critical consciousness about such a reproduction process in order to interrogate the hidden meaning of curriculum, relate learning to the larger socio-political contexts, and encourage students to critique taken-for-granted issues by actively participating in learning (14). Aware of “sufficient contradictions within institutions” through self-reflection, students can be empowered to reshape their new identities and regain their voice and agency (22).

Although Pennycook and Canagarajah have turned their views to a micro-level class from macro-level theory and emphasized the importance of a critical attitude in teaching English in local contexts, their ideas of CP are still extremely abstract that both of them fail to present specific class-oriented teaching guidelines to teachers in class practice; that is, so, what should teacher do in class? Both of them encourage teachers to empower students by negotiating or appropriating English, but they do not suggest illustrative methods regarding how to empower students and which methods teachers should employ to negotiate or appropriate English in class. As mentioned previously, the worst stumbling block of CP is insufficient classroom-oriented data despite abundant macro-level theoretical critiques. Consequently, teachers have a few or no practical ideas about how to implement CP-based English class in light of the English politics; in other words, teachers need more specific ways of how to conjunct local agendas in teaching English and what procedures and methods should be adopted in order to raise students' critical awareness and at the same time improve their linguistic skills. Many critical pedagogues mention that there are no specific methodologies in implementing CP in class because every classroom situation is different. Nevertheless, classroom teachers and their educators need detailed materials which can guide them in practicing CP-based class. Simply, they want to know what to do in their class. At the end of this section, I will first present illustrative case studies of CP and suggest more specific ideas and methods of CP in EFL situations.

Prior to empowering students, of vital importance to CP is empowering local English teachers to overcome an inferiority within themselves in association with English of the Center, aiming at no longer conveying the deeply-rooted inferiority to students. Therefore, not only should English teachers understand the spread of English critically, but they should also obtain

an equal status as English teachers in ELT around the world; that is, all of the English teachers should be able to claim the ownership of English. The fact that English is an international language means that English does not belong to any specific countries but belongs to everyone who speaks it. Nonetheless, many EFL countries still contribute to perpetuating English of the Center by employing teachers from only the Center countries, irrespective of their teaching experience or educational philosophy. For example, English Program in Korea (EPIK), which involves in employing native-English speaking teachers to place them into Korean public schools, specifies that the essential qualification of teachers is where they are from; those who are from America, England, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, and recently South Africa are eligible for applying for the job, and those who are from South Africa are mostly Caucasians (EPIK , “Eligibility”). In case of Japanese Exchange and Teaching program (JET), it started to hire teachers from Outer circle where English is officially spoken such as Singapore and India, but the number of teachers from the Outer Circle is still a few in comparison with a majority of teachers from the Center (JET, “Current Statistics”). Even if ones are from the Center, they might be initially profiled unless they are Whites; that is, many EFL countries prioritize so-called Caucasian Americans to Asian or African Americans.

In the following section, therefore, I will focus on the controversial dichotomy of native speakers and non-native speakers, derived from the norms of the Center in relation to language and power. From the perspective of CP, I will thoroughly illustrate how such an issue has reproduced a global inequality to non-native-English speaking teachers while having granted a normative statue to native-English speaking teachers in ELT. After exploring several macro-level suggestions, offered by the CP pedagogues, I will suggest ways to democratize English and

teachers in EFL situations.

1.2. Native-English-Speaking Teachers vs. Non-native-English-Speaking Teachers

The issue of *Native-English-Speaking Teacher* (NEST) and *Non-Native-Speaking English Teacher* (NNEST) has generated a controversial debate in the past, and it still continues to do so internationally. Many researchers demonstrate that this politically- and ideologically-oriented dichotomy endows tacit superiority and authority to NESTs while demoralizing the value of NNESTs in language teaching milieus (Widdowson, “ELT” 338; “The Ownership” 387; Rampton 97; Liu 88; Holliday, “Nativespeakerism” 385; Brutt and Sammy 415; Philipson 199; Amin 580; Tang 577; Kubota 9; Norton 423; Cook, “Going beyond” 188; Kachru, *The Alchemy* 3-5; “Models” 50; Canagarajah, “Interrogating” 78). For the purpose of supporting both NESTs and NNESTs as equally valuable English teachers, it is worthwhile to identify their distinctive characteristics and pedagogical implications respectively with regard to linguistic, sociopolitical, and educational perspectives within the framework of critical pedagogy.

From the traditional standpoint, the *native speaker* is defined based on his or her biological background; that is, the very first language acquired in infancy grants a role as its native speaker (Bloomfield 43). In turn, the native speakers of English are those who have subconsciously acquired English as their mother tongue. Given some characteristics of the native speakers involved, Cook points out that the subconscious and intuitive knowledge of language can be acquired only by the native speakers who utter the language as their first language. Accordingly, L2 learners can never obtain the statues of the native speakers (“Going beyond” 187). This *bio-development* definition (Davies 156), however, entails dubious questions. In the

case of childhood bilinguals or trilinguals, it is unclear to pinpoint which language plays the role of their first language (Medgyes, “When the Teacher” 430). In this regard, Gupta suggests that the biological yardstick is the most practical on the condition of acknowledging childhood bilinguals or multilinguals (366); for instance, children who learn two languages simultaneously from birth become the native speakers of two languages.

Another straightforward criterion concerns a geographical orientation, i.e., the place of one’s birth. Those who are from English-speaking countries, therefore, are native speakers of English. Medgyes raises two fundamental questions as to this perspective. First, language is not a sole determiner of one’s identity. For example, what about a child who was born in America but moved to Austria? Is he or she a native speaker of English? Second, the geographical division of English-speaking countries is not clear-cut (“When the Teacher” 430). Which countries fall into this elusive category? What about those countries in which English is the second language? On this matter, Kachru classifies countries into three groups in accordance with the function of English: *Inner Circle* in which English functions as the first language—British, America, Australia, New Zealand; *Outer Circle* in which English functions as the institutionalized second language, often in case of postcolonial nations—Nigeria, India, Singapore, etc; *Expanding Circle* in which English functions as a foreign language in highly restricted domains—Korea, Japan, China, etc. Based on his visual representation, Kachru demonstrates that since English is spoken worldwide, it does not belong to specific countries (“Institutionalized” 211). Therefore, it is pointless to identify English-speaking countries.

With respect to more precise syntactic analysis of linguistic corpora, Chomsky defines the *idealized native speaker* as “a speaker-listener in a homogenous speech community who

knows its language perfectly” (qtd. in Hymes 269) excluding, for example, “a speech community of uniform speakers, each of whom speaks a mixture of Russian and French” (Chomsky 17). In profound consideration of disadvantaged speakers, Hymes contends that such a monolingual indication is prone to neglect all the difficulties that a group of heterogeneous speakers confronts (270). Correlative to Hymes’s standpoint, Bourdieu warns that Chomskyan *competence* simply converts the concepts of legitimate discourse into universal norms of correct linguistic practice (44). In the same vein, Canagarajah argues that Chomsky’s view of native speakers may yield the superiority and authority of native speakers of English at the expense of childhood bilinguals or multilinguals who simultaneously produce both indigenized English and local vernaculars in postcolonial nations (“Interrogating” 78). As a result, the Center English may be only regarded as sophisticated while the Periphery English imperfect or uncivilized. This is the same case of the subconscious discrimination of a variety of local dialects in a language by their own homogenous speech community; hence, those who speak local dialects are considered uneducated or unsophisticated, and people try hard to eliminate their dialectal accent. Having diminished the use of local dialects, this obsession with a standard language has entailed the extinction of many dialectal words or expressions.

With voicing concerns over the Chomskyan scope of native speakers for linguistic analysis, Ferguson states that “the whole mystique of native speaker and mother tongue should probably be quietly dropped” (vii). In an effort to abolish the implicit colonial ideology over the native speaker and at the same time promote the international ownership of English, Rampton introduces the term *language expertise* (97). Kachru also creates the term *English-using speech fellowship* to avoid an *us-them* divide (“Sociolinguistics” 79) and continues to legitimize locally

Nativized World Englishes in ELT as opposed to a normative and monolithic Standard English (*The Alchemy* 31; “Models” 36). Similarly, Widdowson reiterates the nature of the Standard English as a *gatekeeper* for the dominant elite minority (“Ownership” 381). On stressing English as an international language, he also argues that “it [English] is not a possession which they [native speakers] lease out to others, [sic] while still retaining the freehold. Other people actually own it” (“Ownership” 385). Norton also posits that “English belongs to the people who speak it, whether native or nonnative, whether ESL or EFL, whether standard or nonstandard” (427) in support of Bourdieu’s view; the legitimate speakers of English are the ones who can claim the ownership of English (422).

Given the complexity of this issue involved, critical pedagogy claims that the dichotomy of native-English-speaking teacher (NEST) and non-native-English-speaking teacher (NNEST) be thoroughly discussed in the sociopolitical and sociocultural perspectives as related to the spread of English. In identifying the colonizing Western *Center* and the being-colonized *Periphery*, Philipson challenges the validity of the *native speaker fallacy* which only serves the interests of the Center by a means of perpetuating the misconception that NESTs are the ideal teachers of English (199). Pennycook pinpoints that the colonial constructions of the *Self* and the *Other* have aroused a fundamental ideology attached to the NESTs vis-à-vis their counterparts in ELT (*Cultural Politics* 22). Having designated NESTs as the most valuable teachers, the Self attempts to essentialize, polarize, and stereotype the Other with chauvinistic and Eurocentric narratives of *Orientalism* (Kubota 10), which refers to “a Western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient” (Said 3).

Furthermore, while Jenkins contends the notion of non-native speaker being

anachronistic (8-9), Holliday raises a vehement criticism about the pervasive ideology of so-called *Native-speakerism*; NESTs represent “a ‘Western Culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English teaching methodology” (“Nativespeakerisms” 385). In consequence of this prevalent labeling of NESTs being superior to NNESTs in language use and teaching, NNESTs have been discriminated against in their job opportunities by being initially profiled (Liu 98). Commonly, their good command of English and teaching experience are overshadowed despite there being “no intrinsic connection between race and ability” in teaching (Amin 580). Nevertheless, Medgyes takes the more or less different position that NESTs are apparently distinguishable from NNESTs in terms of linguistic competence. Accordingly, NESTs are “perfect language models” who fulfill the linguistic deficiency of NNESTs (“Native” 346). Disputing the idea of native speakers’ linguistic superiority only imposes L2 learners’ linguistic inferiority, Cook urges that the achievement of English learners should be distinctively appreciated as *multicompetent L2 users*, rather than failed native speakers (“Going beyond” 185).

Suffice it to say, NESTs and NNESTs differ in many ways; fundamentally, NESTs acquire English intuitively while NNESTs learn it consciously. For the sake of effective language learning and teaching, therefore, the pedagogical implication of both teachers should be considerably explored to the extent of what they can offer in the classroom. As far as NNESTs are concerned, NNESTs can function as successful role models of students and predict students’ difficulties in English learning in light of their own language learning experience. Also, NNESTs can effectively utilize L1, in particular, for tackling difficult grammar points (Medgyes, “Natives” 346-347; Tang 578-579). In co-teaching situations with their native-English-speaking

counterparts, NNESTs' familiarity with the local educational paradigm can lead to the most advantageous pedagogical direction corresponding to local educational syllabi and examinations (Tang 579). Regarding NESTs, Barratt and Kontra claim that not only do NESTs offer both NNESTs and students a better opportunity for learning appropriate vocabulary and idioms with reference to specific contexts but for understanding different cultural aspects of a target language community as well. Through active interaction, NESTs can also encourage students to use more English (20).

As Medgyes puts it, the more proficient speakers do not necessarily correlate to the more efficient teachers ("Native" 348). That is to say, NESTs are not always ideal teachers in the classroom. Widdowson also warns against the delusion that native speakers make good teachers ("ELT" 338). Evidently, successful multilingual teachers can provide learners with more effective learning strategies via their learning experiences than monolingual speakers (Medgyes, "When the Teacher 437; Cook, "Going beyond" 193). Taking this into consideration, NNESTs should attempt to obtain a good command of English while NESTs should endeavor to learn another language to get a better picture of language learning and teaching. Needless to say, both NESTs and NNESTs should make a strenuous effort to enhance their pedagogical skills.

Furthermore, the government institutions of EFL countries should have more open-minded in employing assistant language teachers; English teachers from Outer Circle such as Singapore, India, and the Philippines, should not be initially profiled. In fact, the excessive value of national economic power in the global era has imposed many people in Korea, Japan, and Taiwan the false sense of superiority to those from India and the Philippines; this tendency results in employing people from the third countries as only labor workers despite their high

educational backgrounds. By hiring them as assistant English teachers in the public school system, people in EFL can relinquish or abolish their false sense of superiority since the profession of a teacher is highly respected in EFL in consequence of Confucian culture. In addition, the government can hire one and half or two Outer Circle teachers with the same amount money for a teacher from the Inner Circle; therefore, this policy can contribute to downsizing class substantially. Moreover, students have more opportunities to be exposed to a variety of Englishes from lexical expressions to pronunciation. In EFL, English is taught for international communication, which means communicating with people from all around the world, not just with people from the Inner Circle countries. In this sense, hiring more diverse teachers can serve in democratizing not only English language per se, but also the views of the general public. To correspond to such a change, teachers from the Inner Circle should be more flexible in accepting others' Englishes. In other words, they should attempt to learn different Englishes and teach them in class.

Some people might be concerned that in the long run, the diversity of world Englishes can prevent people from international communication. Given the situation of America and England, such a concern seems unproblematic. Although America and England have been apart over 200 years, except for some lexical difference, they have no difficulty in communicating each other. In the 21st century, it goes without saying that Internet functions connecting the world as one, and English lies at the very heart of this international connection. Therefore, teaching a variety of Englishes has less chance to block global communication. Rather, it can substantially contribute to democratizing English as an international language. In this respect, scholars such as Kachru and Kubota, who teach America and come from India and Japan respectively, have

delved into this field by publishing a quarterly journal, 'World Englishes'.

Along with hiring teachers from the Outer Circle and teaching their Englishes, I suggest that the governments in Outer or Expanding Circles create a joint program to exchange English teachers. The benefit of being an English teacher is that one can go and teach English in other EFL countries as well. For example, a Japanese English teacher can swap his or her school with a Korean English teacher. This exchange program can grant students not only to learn more diverse cultures in English class, but to be exposed to different world Englishes. Furthermore, when teachers follow the approach of critical pedagogy, dealing with local controversial issues in English class, foreign English teachers can have an access to and better understand the social issues and culture of that country in which they are currently involved. Prior to applying for this exchange teacher program, English teachers should improve their English linguistic skills and at the same time a target country's language and culture; essential to teaching are understanding students and local cultures.

In classroom practices, the value of students' L1 should not be underestimated. On this matter, Cummins points out three false inter-related monolingual instructional assumptions and encourages the reconceptualization of bilingual education in English class. The following are three false assumptions: English lesson should be carried out in English only; translation from L1 to L2 or vice versa should not be allowed in class; L1 and L2 should be kept separate in immersion and bilingual programs ("Rethinking" 222-223). In his different article, Cummins also incarnates that the monolingual policy of teaching English through the medium of English only can contribute to not only spawning the above-mentioned problematic assumptions, but also reinforcing the superiority of native-English-speaking teachers to their non-native counterparts.

More seriously, the degradation of the advantageous role of L1 can undermine students' L1 identity substantially ("Multilingualism" 320). In the latter section of basic pedagogical principles in CP, I will delve into this issue more profoundly.

Paradoxically, contradictory power provokes critical awareness to resist it "since power can never be exercised without contestation" (Canagarajah, "On EFL Teacher" 213). In other words, a critical response to the problems bestows the transformative empowerment for change. What needs to be a priority is for both NESTs and NNESTs to recognize the political ideology attached to the contradictory dichotomy and confront or negotiate it with critical awareness in teaching practice. Indeed, the terminologies we use also matter since the negative affix of 'non' can label non-native-English-speaking teachers as less qualified. Replacing or abolishing the terms, however, may obscure the issue instead of solving fundamental problems. Hence, the shift of the terms should be simultaneously carried out with the shift of the distorted conceptions toward the issue. Currently, co-teaching programs between NESTs and NNESTs have caused a dramatic growth in cross-border education in the contexts of EFL. In class, teachers' 'nonnativeness' should not be a criterion in defining good teachers. When NESTs and NNESTs mutually strive to maximize their strengths associating with a profound complementary partnership, both of them can serve as equally effective teachers and contribute to flourishing English classes to a substantial extent.

2. Pedagogical Framework

2.1. Basic Pedagogical Principles of CP in English Education

As for language teaching, critical pedagogy (CP) pays more attention to relationships

between language learning and social change since the second language can enable learners to practice the ways of understanding themselves, their societies, histories, and possibilities for the future (Norton and Toohey 1). By connecting the *word* with the *world*, CP seeks to extend the language class to the social, cultural, and political context through dynamics of language use. In this regard, Kumaravadevelu urges English teachers to go beyond teaching methods and suggests the concept of Postmethod, derived from critical pedagogy. *Postmethod* consists of three essential pedagogical principles: particularity, practicality, and possibility. *The pedagogy of particularity* refers to promoting a context-sensitive pedagogy based on local situations and particularities, by rejecting a predetermined set of topics. *The pedagogy of practicality* means that teachers should theorize and develop their own teaching philosophy from their experience and implement classes in association with their own theory. *The pedagogy of possibility* indicates that language education should go beyond its narrow view, focusing on learning of linguistic functional elements in the classroom because language learning involves a variety of aspects (“Postmethod” 538-544). Adding one more principle, participatory engagement for action to Kumaravadevelu’s principles, I will explore four pedagogical principles of CP in teaching English in the following section.

2.1.1. Participatory Engagement

CP regards both students and teachers as autonomous individuals with authority in class. With stressing the importance of learners’ autonomy, Kumaravadevelu categorizes it into three sub types: academic autonomy for becoming effective learners with intrapersonal learning strategies and styles; social autonomy for possessing the interpersonal ability as cooperative

members of a classroom; libratory autonomy for raising the ontological and epistemological awareness about the sociopolitical problems and inequality. Along with the other two autonomies, Kumaravadivelu pays more attention to the promotion of the learners' libratory autonomy since it empowers them to be critical thinkers for change. Accordingly, he encourages teachers to deal with heated local issues more rigorously in class ("Postmethod" 547). In the same vein, Widdowson also points out that learners' autonomy can only be enhanced when they have their authority in the class, and the authority can only be imposed when they participate in the process of learning from selecting learning materials to designing a syllabus based on their own experience ("Comment" 67-68).

For facilitating students' autonomy, therefore, Pennycook suggests teachers "to put the curriculum in the hands of the students" by decentralizing decision-making regarding content, teaching methodology, and even testing of a course ("Introduction" 336). To avoid being entrapped into the danger of laissez-faire in implementing CP, teachers need to appreciate the above-illustrated Pennycook's point precisely; that is, the student-centeredness of CP does not mean that students do whatever they like to do in the classroom. By sharing mutual teacher-student authority, both of them should actively participate in co-developing a course syllabus through dialogic negotiation during the entire period of the course. With stressing the notion of participatory action research regarding their own local problems for change, Auerbach also mentions that when learners actively participate in producing the curriculum and materials via studying their situations, the language-learning context is authentically communicative; not only is learners' motivation facilitated, but they also learn skills which can be applied in other contexts ("Participatory" 696). Along with the co-construction of the syllabus, teachers should

present students' situation as a problem to prompt students' participation in each class period through such as research presentation, discussion, and writing as regards contextualized local topics.

2.1.2. Particularity

When students' feelings, beliefs, experiences, and interests are not included as a part of the class, students regard the class as being decontextualized from their point of view; in turn, their motivation cannot be easily geared. In addition, since learners do not have authority in the decontextualized class, their autonomy is evidently discouraged, and consequently, they cannot claim the ownership of the class. On the other hand, the contextually-situated topics which are meaningful to students can highlight learners' autonomy through the process of L2 learning and also contribute to the improvement of the lives of those who are normally excluded in ELT topics.

As to the ways that teachers can make their classes more critical, Akabari presents three kinds of local context-based suggestions. Firstly, transforming classes should be based on students' local cultures (278). Some suggest that the familiarity of L2 culture be instructed in L2 class; however, this assumption might be applied for only those who are in ESL situations. Currently, English is an international language. This means that English no longer belongs to any specific nation, but it belongs to everyone who speaks it. In EFL contexts, therefore, teachers should focus on empowering their students to express their own local cultural values in English. By doing so, not only can students better understand their own culture, but they can also overcome a sense of inferiority toward the Center. Secondly, students' real-life experiences and concerns should be more delved into in the class (280). That is, relevant contents or topics to

students should be incorporated into an English syllabus as a way of increasing students' motivation and participation for change. Furthermore, teachers should help students to be aware of issues which socially marginalized classes possess; such as poverty, disabled and old people, and homosexuality (281). By presenting controversial topics, students can recognize, confront, and act on them. Also, those who have never been Othered or socially isolated can have an insightful opportunity to see the world critically.

As mentioned previously, CP regards education as very political. Even topics such as shopping, travel, and food should go beyond their neutrality in conjunction with local contexts in order to stimulate students to realize the problems in which they are embedded. With respect to the topic, travel, for example, English teachers can ask students to choose a country where they want to go and create their itinerary. Through the survey of wishful countries, teachers can raise a question of why they want to go there and discuss stereotypes as related to some countries and culture within inner selves. Teachers can also prompt students to consider the social stereotype of a certain country; for example, while the term, Native American exists in America, why is not there such a term of Non-Native American? Additionally, English teachers can also talk about the hidden politics of some famous historical sites based on students' itinerary; as to how the dominant class forcefully ordered and maltreated the general public to build the Great Wall or the Pyramids.

2.1.3. Practicality

CP in ELT is concerned with developing students' language abilities through the process of critical discussion, reading, and writing reflecting on locally-situated topics, materials, and

methods which facilitate students' interest. Having viewed CP as a new paradigm for teaching English, Canagarajah stresses that all the activities, skills, proficiencies, and standards should be situated in the social context and explored in relation to power ("CP in L2" 932-933). Pennycook also argues that teachers should strive to validate local forms of knowledge in ELT, rather than adopting "totalizing or universal discourse" of the Center ("Concept" 613). In other words, teachers should make strenuous efforts to develop their own theories, methods, and materials based on their and students' experiences and local situations such as classroom roles, teacher-student relationship, and class size, in lieu of accepting the less relevant approaches and materials derived from the Center. In this regard, CP excels the simplistic one-size-fit-all beliefs, even for its representative form of 'dialogue'. For example, 'discussion' is believed to be the best educational method in much of North American CP, however, this dialogical approach has less pedagogical feasibility in some cultures with big class (Pennycook, *Cultural Politics* 318-319).

Since each classroom is different, it should be approached in different ways with thorough consideration of local contexts. As for making the approach of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) becoming-appropriate classroom methodology, for example, Holliday proposes that teachers add more cultural-sensitive features to it through ongoing ethnographic action research in local contexts (*Appropriate* 177-178). In general, crucial to CLT is the improvement of students' oral skills in correspondence to native speaker contexts of use. However, this approach has revealed a great deal of difficulties in applying it in the Korean context; in its monolingual culture, Korean students are unlikely to communicate each other in English, nor they often have the opportunity to interact with native speakers of English. Up to this point, the notions of communicative competence and authenticity should be reconceptualized

in the Korean context. Rather than oral skills, reading abilities should be more emphasized as communicative competence, and reading-oriented local materials and methods should be extensively developed in support of improving students' communicative competence in this regard. That is, English teachers should attempt to create more local-specific materials instead of teaching commercially-produced books which disregard localness of learning and learners' needs, and they should interact with other English teachers by exchanging their reading materials and teaching methods through Internet sites, journals, or conference. Moreover, the government should not hesitate to include such controversial local issues in official English exams for entering colleges.

Along with locally appropriate methodologies and materials, CP encourages teachers to value students' L1 as a resource in order to maximize their L2 learning. As Freire puts it, the native language enables students to perceive their world and confront the dominant class which has imprisoned them in silence (*Literacy* 158-159); therefore, negating the L1 equals negating students' linguistic human rights by perpetuating inequities in the broader social context (Skutnabb-Kangas and Philipson 446-447; Auerbach, "Reexamining" 30). In the process of the L2 identity construction, the negation of the L1 can result in causing students' inferiority as related to the L2; that is, prioritizing the L2 over the L1, thereby it can grant superiority to native-English-speaking-teachers vis-à-vis their non-native counterparts (Cummins 320). From the perspective of CP, the identity of L1 plays a crucial role in empowering students to become their voices recognized and respected for social transformation. In teaching L2, accordingly, the first step is to respect students' L1 as a way of respecting their identity and value (Akbari 278).

For L2 learners who share the same L1, co-switching is a normal feature; *code-*

switching refers to changing L1 to L2 in a discourse level during conversation. While speaking in English, students converse in Korean all of sudden. Given the common tendency of code-switching in EFL situations, Cook argues that the judicious use of L1 can facilitate the L2 learning, and students can be effectively scaffolded; for instance, giving instructions for activities, explaining delicate grammar points and abstract vocabulary, and interlinking the knowledge of L1 and L2 (“The First Language” 418). Regarding the L2 learners as multicompetent speakers, he further urges the deliberate exploitation of L1 since the L2 learners differ from monolingual native speakers in the cognitive processes (“Go Beyond” 185). To effectively exploit students’ L1, I suggest code-mixing as preferable in EFL situations. *Code-mixing* means that in a sentence level, students use words of two languages to express their thoughts. While speaking or writing in English, and when students confront some words which they are unfamiliar or cannot remember instantly, they utilize Korean words, equivalent to English counterparts. By doing so, students become less concerned and uncomfortable about using English in class. In terms of utilizing code-switching or code-mixing, however, it is crucial for teachers to remind students of two aspects: no overuse of Korean words; and self-study in search of English counterparts as homework.

2.1.4. Possibility

As illustrated previously, CP seeks for the possibility of social transformation for a more equalized future. In this respect, language teachers should bring generative themes from the wider society into their classes. They should strive to incorporate the issues from students’ day-to-day lives in order to enable them to think about their situation and explore possibilities for

change. Furthermore, teachers should connect the community outside the classroom with learning inside the classroom; for example, encouraging students to participate in community events and publishing students' works and distributing them in the community. Through these activities, students can realize that what they have done can function as a catalyst for the change of the community; consequently, they can better appreciate CP as the pedagogy of possibility.

In CP, teachers are autonomous individuals who possess competence and confidence to pursue a continual process of self-autonomy and self-development. In L2 classroom, therefore, they should create and re-create their pedagogical beliefs based on the parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility. That is, teachers should decentralize decision making by inviting students' participation, acknowledge the significance of learners' experiences and interests in local contexts, and empower students to enjoy the possibilities for social change. In the next section, I will illustrate more concrete praxis of CP mainly based on the two books of Wallerstein and Auerbach: *ESL for Action: Problem Posing at Work*; and *Problem-Posing at Work: Popular Educator's Guide*.

2.2. The Praxis of Wallerstein & Auerbach: Applying the problem-posing dialogue to ELT

The problem-posing approach of critical pedagogy (CP) is to stimulate teachers and students to reflect and take action against problematic issues for change. Namely, it aims at inducing their participatory praxis to the maximum. The *Praxis* of CP surpasses practice or action since it encompasses a continual cycle of reflection on the actions for transformation based on the self-reflective dialogue (Freire, *Oppressed* 66). The rationale of the praxis is well developed in Kerfoot's curriculum cycle. In his curriculum framework for participatory ESL

education in the South African context, Kerfoot invites students to negotiate learning goals and contents in all the learning phases of the cycle.

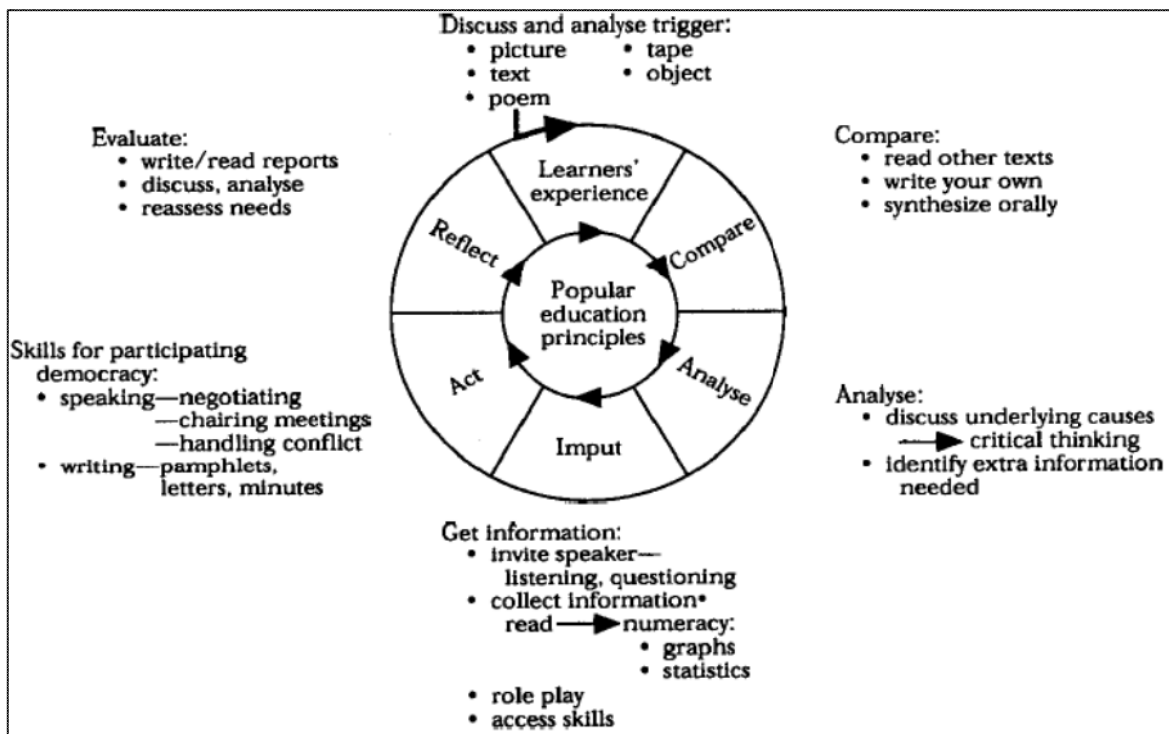


Figure 1. Participatory ESL curriculum in the South Africa context (437)

Similarly, Wallerstein presents more simplified version of the praxis cycle in her co-written book with Auerbach, *Problem-posing at Work*, the practical CP-based teacher guidebook. She suggests the cyclical model of *Listening* for generative issues, *Dialogue* for critical discussion and reflection, and *Action* for connecting the classroom to the real world as the most effective procedure for praxis (13). The following is the visual representation of her praxis model:

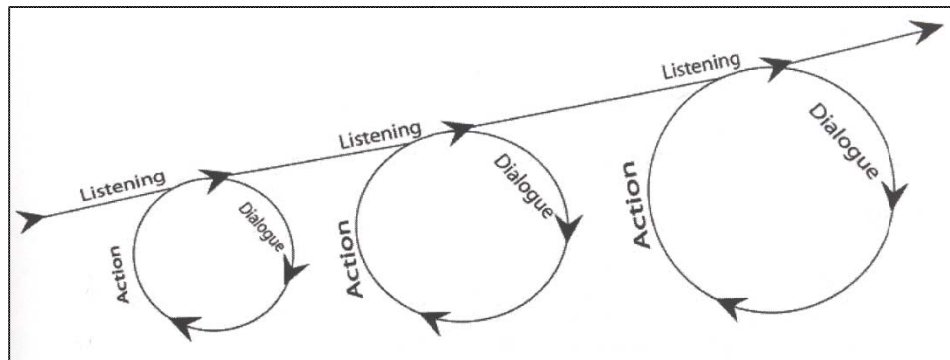


Figure 2. Wallerstein's cyclical model (13)

As Freire utilized picture codes for the listening process in his early work, Wallerstein also shows pictures to students and employs a five-step questioning strategy following her teaching cycle: 1) describe what you see; 2) define the problem; 3) share similar experiences of your own lives; 4) question why the problem occurs; 5) strategize what you can do about the problem. For the first step, *Description*, teachers can ask students to describe a picture based on their viewpoints. The second step, *Problem definition* is to inspire students to see what is beneath the picture by asking what is really happening in the picture or what you think each of the people in the picture is thinking. The next step, *Personalization* is to draw students' situations and experiences as related to the picture into the class dialogue so as to increase their class participation. Obviously, most students talk when the class discusses something related to their lives. The fourth step, *Socialization* is to encourage students to analyze the problems in the picture in a wider social context. In this phase, teachers can question such as why such problems exist in communities, and how people have reacted on them. For the last phase, *Strategies*, teachers can ask for solutions or develop effective strategies for change that students think would make sense (37-38). As for the above-mentioned five-step procedure of CP, Shaffer calls it by the acronym, SHOWeD—See, **H**appen, **O**ur lives, **W**hy, evaluate, and **D**o (qtd. Wallerstein and Auerbach 37).

The following is an example of Wallerstein's flow of CP in English teaching. In her workshop for five Indochinese and Latino high school girls, she used a picture of two faces: a toddler boy looking down through a cyclone fence and a high school aged girl holding him, staring at the same fence with a scared eye. In the dialogue below, Wallerstein is called by her first name, Nina:

Nina: What strikes you about this picture? (What do you **See** here?)

Students: Oh, he's sad, he's looking down, he wants to get out.

She's sad also.

...

Nina: How are thy trapped? (Moving toward, What's actually **Happening**?)

Students: Oh, She's looking back at the gate, looking to where they could be, where they want to be.

Nina: What could trap her?

Students: Having no job, a bad relationship, no relationship. Having nowhere to go, needing money. There's lots of reasons. They can't reach for happiness, for a future.

...

Nina: Have you or people you know ever felt like this? (**Our lives**)

Students: All the time, (one girl says), all the time. Everyone has to feel this way.

...

Nina: Let's talk about your high school. What makes people feel sad there?

Students: Poor administration, not qualified teachers. We've been with a substitute all

year; school conditions. Like, there are no stalls in the bathroom; they're locked up. Only one bathroom is working.

Nina: What else makes people feel sad in high school? (Begin to move towards **Why**)

Students: Students not feeling they're heard. Students don't care, they feel it's not going to change for a long time.

...

Nina: What made it possible for you guys to change and feel like you can make a difference? What has changed you? (A **Do** question)

Students: You have to experience things for yourself. I've been close to teachers. I always have been. They've helped. Support.

...

Nina: So it helps to have a group and support. You said supportive adults, but also support of your peers.

Students: I started in a tutoring program for kids. I didn't realize but they looked up to me as an example. I'm a leader. Setting personal goals and meeting them makes you feel you can do more and more bigger things. (43-45)

In addition to the use of pictures, other visual tools such as movie clips, slides, and drawings are effective for the problem-posing approach. In the case of movie clips, for example, teachers can show students the two complete opposite clips of different camps regarding a same issue and invite students to discuss pros and cons depicted in each video. Whether students opt for the perspective of a conservative camp or progressive camp, teachers as co-learners should bear in mind that they by all means eschew imposing their political vantage points on students.

In CP-based class, written dialogues, role plays, or case studies are also core learning techniques to build up students' critical awareness and recognition for change. In particular, the technique of role plays allows students to experience real-like situations; they can sympathize with suffering people in the past and present. Another good material is life texts, i.e., realia such as newspaper articles, community leaflets, community leaders' speeches, and advertisements. In ESL situations, those authentic materials for English class are not hard to get. After adapting them in accordance with students' linguistic levels, teachers can use them as learning sources.

In EFL situations, however, it is not easy for teachers to obtain English versions of those life texts. Nor is it simple for local English teachers to adapt them to English class even if such English texts are given. Most local English teachers feel insecure of their English competence and concerned about making mistakes in their class materials. At this point, the mutual collaboration of local English teachers and native-English-speaking teachers is of primary importance in the EFL milieu. As critical pedagogy (CP) develops, local English teachers need to bring many kinds of real texts into English class in order to raise students' critical reflection on what is happening around them. To achieve the goal of CP and at the same time to eliminate local English teachers' linguistic insecurity, the role of native-English-speaking teachers as co-teachers is extremely important. As both English teachers can co-translate or co-adapt the local texts into English, they can co-contribute to improving the quality of the texts and at the same time, decreasing the amount of time in creating the texts.

As for more advanced English learners, teachers can guide them to create their own learning materials. That is, teachers can ask students to write their own stories and use them as a catalyst for inspiring other students. By reading their peers' works, students can not only be

highly motivated in learning English as well as subjects, but also become more confident with full of self-efficiency; since my friends do it, I can do it as well. After reading aloud and discussing the issues of their peers' writings, teachers can prompt other students to write about their own experiences in similar situations. At this phase, it is important for teachers to provide appropriate feedback to students' writings regarding accuracy, fluency, and critical reflection. In CP, students' linguistic skills are considered as important as their critical reflection because such skills bestow students an essential cultural capital for social success. Without socially-demanded English competence, students will be continuously marginalized from their communities, and such a consequence is not what CP is pursuing. As mentioned earlier, CP aims at empowering students to talk back against authorities in a society. To talk back, students need to empower themselves first, and critical education lies at the heart of this process. Responding to students' works in this regard, teachers' comments should help students improve their grammatical and lexical accuracy and appropriate rhetoric of the texts associating with the development of their argument. Given considerably large class in the EFL situations, native-English-speaking teachers can substantially reduce the huge burden of feedback which local English teachers confront.

With respect to students at the beginning level, they surely have difficulty in expressing their thoughts in English. However, their linguistic incompetence is not the manifestation of which they are incapable of thinking critically; they only have limited linguistic competence in communication. Teachers' mission, hence, is to help students transform their stumbling blocks into the stepping stones for success. According to Wallerstein and Auerbach, a beginning level class may not go through all the five steps of problem-posing cycle in English, but they can respond to questions in the first three steps of SHOWeD; that is, what they see, what is really

happening, and how they can apply this to their lives (*Problem-posing* 55). Also, teachers should not restrict students to speak English only because their first language can evidently facilitate the acquisition of the second language and critical analysis of texts. Through the negotiation with students, teachers need to set the guidelines for the native language use in the classroom.

The book of *ESL for Action*, which is the first edition of *Problem-posing at work* and also co-written by Wallerstein and Auerbach, is an adult-oriented ESL classroom reference book, providing a clear-cut direction in teaching English within the framework of CP. In this regard, all the dialogues and even examples of a grammar exercise are all meaningfully contextualized to students' lives in the hope that the integration of rules and practices into activities motivate students' learning. For instance, the following is a dialogue of Lesson 1, *Jobs at Home and Jobs in the U.S.* in Unit 2:

Interviewer: Tell me about your work experience.

Le Minh: In my country, I was a college math teacher. I taught math for ten years.

Interviewer: Have you ever worked in a hospital?

Le Minh: No, but I like to work with people.

Interviewer: There is an opening in the kitchen. Are you interested?

Le Minh: I guess so. (16)

After the dialogue with an interviewing picture, *Questions for discussion* follow in the cycle of SHOWeD such as what students previously did in their home countries, whether they think non-Americans should start at the bottom, and what they can do to get a better job. In the next stage of *Thinking Activities*, students are asked to rank their choices from one to five on an individual and group basis concerning what Le Minh should do. Then, teachers ask students to

make a class job chart in comparison with jobs at home and jobs in the U.S. and discuss the criteria of decent jobs. For the grammar lesson, which is integrated through communicative exercise, students are expected to learn comparative and superlative adjectives in this lesson. By presenting many adjectives such as hard, safe, clean, and difficult, teachers ask student to make them into comparative and superlative; for instance, factory work is *harder* than teaching, or *the worst* job I ever had was cleaning houses in the U.S. For the next Action Activities, the book provides students to think about when they look for jobs in terms of experience, skills, education, and preference. After introducing effective reading strategies, the book gives an overview of the U.S. immigration patterns as a reading material with follow-up questions for discussion (16-24). Although this specific Lesson one of Unit 2 does not contain, the other Lessons have the sections of *Student Action Research* and *Logs* at the end of the Lessons. The former, research activity is to promote students' classroom practice by investigating outside the classroom while the latter, writing activity is to give students' last opportunity to reflect on what they have learned in class and what they should do in the future (xi). The contents of the Lesson one are provided in Appendix 1.

In the following section, I will present two kinds of case studies in association with critical pedagogy: teacher training programs and classroom practices respectively. After explaining the approach of CP regarding teacher training programs, I will first introduce the survey result of Brazilian English teachers which was conducted prior to revamping their curriculum based on the approach of CP. Then, I will illustrate CP-oriented graduate-level courses in Hawaii, Hong Kong, Canada, and Korea, aimed at raising teachers' critical awareness about English per se and local issues. In the next section, I will present illustrative case studies of

class practices within the framework of critical pedagogy.

3. Empirical Framework

2.1. Teacher Education Programs: Educating teachers to teach back

2.1.1. CP's Approach in Teacher Education: Beyond the limits of theoretical discourse

With regard to teacher preparation programs, Freire stresses that the form of training programs should not be limited to the technical preparation of teachers but should “be rooted in the ethical formation both selves and of history” (*Freedom* 23). However, current teacher pre-service and in-service training programs by and large focus on improving only linguistic skills and teaching methodologies, with no consideration of epistemological awareness of problematic issues of English as related to power. In rebuking such training programs as “narrowly technical”, Philipson urges that ELT training programs should pay more attention to “the social and cognitive prerequisites for learning”, in an attempt to help local teachers to understand the role of English teaching and to invent their own theories in consideration of the locality, rather than accepting theories, anchored in the Center (256, 258). Reagan also puts an emphasis on fundamental epistemological questions of English language which allow teachers to conceptualize and understand the construct and nature of the language in critical ways and directly determine the pedagogical practice of how they should teach. By rejecting predetermined “cookbook teaching style”, he further adds that learning should be situated and contextualized since knowledge is developmental, dynamic, and negotiable in social and cultural contexts (51-52).

Concerning the fact that young teachers are trained “only to be employees”, Crookes

advocates that teacher education programs be more engaged in shifting teachers' perspective and self-images to the critical practice of CP, in order to deal more oppositionally with pre-existing systems ("The practicality" 336). As mentioned previously, CP's intention in examining the implications of the English ideology is not to discourage teachers' English teaching; such a solution can cause even more serious problems to both teachers and students realistically. Rather than limiting access to English, CP encourages teachers to critically negotiate or appropriate English teaching, considering local contexts for the ultimate goal of the change. In this respect, Pennycook proposes that English teachers be actively involved with a critical pedagogical approach to take up local forms of opposition and help students to formulate the critical counter-discourses in English by a means of resisting the discourses of the Centre ("English in the World" 87). To empower students for creating counter-discourses, Pennycook suggests teachers to validate students' knowledge and cultural resources and to facilitate language skills within the framework of CP. In this regard, he further outlines questions for teachers to *self-reflexively* or *self-critically* ask about their educational practice in an effort to go beyond their roles as merely classroom technicians:

- 1) Under what conditions can induction into a new language and culture be empowering?
- 2) What kinds of curricula will allow students to explore critically both the second language and the second culture?
- 3) How can one validate and explore students' own cultures and experiences through the second language?
- 4) How can students pose their own problems through the second language?
- 5) How can one validate students' voice when the means of expression of that voice may

be very limited?

- 6) How can one work with limited language yet avoid trivializing content and learners?
- 7) How does one balance the need to explore critically the forms and implications of standard languages and the need to empower students by teaching that standard language?
- 8) What are the interests served by functional proficiency-based language programs?
- 9) What would popular multiculturalism actually look like?
- 10) What are the implications for other languages, cultures and forms of knowledge, of the worldwide spread of English?
- 11) In what ways can educational technology limit and in what ways expand the possibilities of SLE students?
- 12) How can teachers (and students) escape the prescriptive force of prespecified content and methods?
- 13) How can teachers and students gain control over the evaluation process?
- 14) What are the interests served by the knowledge produced by applied linguists?
- 15) What are the implications of the use of information-processing and computer metaphors in second language acquisition theories?
- 16) What are the effects of the preponderance of second language theory being produced in the particular context of North America?
- 17) How does the political economy of textbook publishing affect SLE?
- 18) How is the gendered division of the workforce in SLE perpetuated?

(“CP and SLE” 311-312)

Such interrogations above should be extensively tackled not only in teachers' pre-service programs in college, but also in teachers' in-service programs for those who are currently involved with a teaching profession. These CP-oriented programs can help teachers raise their critical awareness in teaching and learning, formulate the conceptual framework of CP, and implement this approach in an actual classroom teaching. In the following section, I will introduce CP-based English teacher training programs in different countries, in order to bridge theory with practice to go beyond the limits of theoretical discourses of CP in ELT.

2.1.2. Case Studies of CP-Based Teacher Education Programs

Cox and Assis-Peterson: Critical pedagogy in Brazilian English teachers

Prior to the application of Brazilian new National Curriculum Parameter, which is based on the approach of CP, in 1998, Cox and Assis-Peterson conducted a survey of forty Brazilian English teachers—6 college professors, 12 private language school teachers, and 22 public secondary and elementary schools, to find out how well they understand CP in English teaching. The survey proceeded into two ways: interview regarding teachers' teaching philosophy and their view of CP in English teaching; written comments concerning both integrative and political motivation of English as an international language. With respect to their familiarity of CP, the majority of 35 teachers confessed they had never heard of CP previously, and even among the rest of 5 teachers, only 2 teachers were well aware of CP in relation to English ideology. Considering Paulo Freire, the father of CP, is from Brazil, this result is ironic and disappointing. As to the question of English as an international language, most teachers commented that English is indispensable for social success. They even considered themselves as a symbol of

prestige since they help students to be successful in the global era.

In their paper, Cox and Assis-Peterson conclude that most Brazilian teachers of English are unaware of CP. For CP to be more practical in Brazil, they encourage teacher educators to intensify the debate of English politics within the framework of CP, aiming at unearth the taken-for-granted myth of English as neutral, natural and beneficial. They also urge teacher educators to question dominant principles, methodologies, and curriculum in pre-service English teacher courses at college and deconstruct the prevalent ideologies of English through the negotiation with students. To empower students, of vital importance is empowering teachers.

Crookes and Lehner: ESL critical pedagogy teacher education course

At a graduate program in the University of Hawai'i in 1995, Crookes and Lehner offered a course in reflection of critical pedagogy (CP) to those who were preparing for being ESL or EFL teachers. Given the historical stream of English teacher training programs, Crookes and Lehner argue that such programs, being strongly attached to linguistic skills rather than to educational philosophy, have failed to direct English teachers to tapping into sociopolitical issues, which are a central part of education within CP. For the simultaneous development of students' linguistic skills and critical reflection for action, Crookes and Lehner pinpoint that essential to the dissemination of CP is raising teachers' critical awareness through training programs now that teachers teach the way they have been taught.

In an attempt to improve student teachers' understanding of CP in English teaching, the two teacher educators ask students to reflect on the relationship of English and power through critical reading and apply the approach of CP to their teaching contexts in search of its

pedagogical feasibility. Throughout the course, the two teacher educators and student teachers co-construct the syllabus by negotiating from learning contents to learning forms. In addition, Cookes and Lehner try not to take the floor in order to facilitate the flow of discussion of students in class. Pointing at students' pessimistic attitude as a huge hindrance in implementing CP, Cook and Lehner suggest that students' teaching contexts per se be presented as problems for them to go beyond the 'can't do' attitude above all. For CP to be vitalized in class practice, therefore, Cook and Lehner point out that the CP practitioners should start from improving the common understanding of CP at pre-service and in-service teacher training programs.

Lin: Introducing a critical pedagogical curriculum in a Hong Kong teacher education course

In the graduate program of Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Second Language (MATESL) at the City University of Hong Kong, Lin developed an elective course of *Language, Culture, and Education* in 2003, designed to introduce critical pedagogy (CP) in English teaching within the educational framework of Hong Kong. Adopting James Gee's *Social Linguistics and Literacies* as a basic reference book for the course, Lin also supplemented an article regarding the cultural incompatibility of the communicative language teaching approach in China. Since students, who were mostly schoolteachers, confessed some difficulty in comprehending Gee's book, Lin, regarding herself as a linguistic and conceptual broker, put an effort to make concepts more accessible for them; such as presenting examples from the local context to illustrate the difficult concepts. By contextualizing the approach of CP in the Hong Kong context, schoolteachers participated in discussion rigorously with lit-up facial expressions and verbal criticism against the educational system in Hong Kong.

For the purpose of coping with schoolteachers' pessimism and frustration as well as bolstering their pedagogical awareness of CP, Lin publicized their critical project writings for the course in TESL-HK, a newsletter for English language teaching professionals in Hong Kong. The following are the example project reports of students included in the newsletter: a critical analysis of the sexist, racist, and classist stereotypes in English textbooks in Hong Kong; a survey of teachers on teacher stress and their working conditions in schools. With reflections on her less self-reflexive attitude at the course, Lin suggested that both teachers and students openly discuss and negotiate teaching styles or methods to go beyond the hierarchical institutional power relations between them. In addition, Lin stressed the necessity of developing teachers' own course reading materials which encompass respective local contexts, rather than adopting less contextualized theoretical books just as she did for the course.

Goldstein: Using an ethnographic play for critical language teacher education in Canada

Responding to the complexities of linguistic, cultural, and racial differences in multilingual schools, Goldstein utilized the form of a play at an in-service teachers training program. The ethnographic play, "Hong Kong, Canada", written by Goldstein herself, is based on conflicts in an English-speaking Canadian high school in which a great number of immigrant students from Hong Kong have recently enrolled. Albeit English is prioritized, many Hong Kong students continue to speak Cantonese in and outside classroom; this phenomenon consequently aggravates the relationships not only between school teachers and Cantonese-speaking students, but also between other English-speaking students and Cantonese speakers. This play ends with a teacher's final warning that she is going to urge the principal and vice principal to devise a

school language policy which allows English only at school.

Through reading and performing the play, Goldstein encouraged language teachers to identify linguistic and cultural dilemmas which U.S. immigrant students face at school and to discuss ways to resolve such thorny issues within the discourse of critical pedagogy (CP). Most of all, Goldstein expected teachers to have an opportunity to critically engage in linguistic privilege or capital which monolingual English speakers possess and sympathize with linguistically unprivileged immigrant students. By posing common but untouched problems in the form of a play, Goldstein tried to raise a schoolteachers' critical eye about prevalent contradictions at school. The following is the procedure of class based on the play.

After reading or performing the play aloud, she asked her students' emotional responses to the play such as what made you feel angry, sad, or bad and what challenged something you believed about students, teachers, or schools. Then, she asked students to identify the catch-22s faced by each of the characters in the play. For example, although some Cantonese students wanted to speak English at school, they could not because they were afraid of being ostracized from their community. For the next activity, Goldstein encouraged students to mull over some advantages and disadvantages of English-only policy and effective ways to alleviate the racial and linguistic tensions at school. Based on the group or whole-class discussion, she asked students to add their own ending to the play. Finally, Goldstein concludes that the form of a play can maximize teachers' engagements, and such engagements are essential to the approach of critical pedagogy since teachers realize the importance of creating safe and equitable learning environments for second or other language students in U.S. schools.

Sung: Glocalizing critical pedagogy in a Korean teacher education course

As an example of EFL teacher training programs, Sung implemented a graduate-level critical English language teaching (CELТ) program for six years in Korea in the hope that students can use English as a critical tool which contributes to constructing and distributing their knowledge to transform their communities and world more equitable. Given the dearth of both students' English proficiency and critical awareness about English teaching, the CELТ program allowed the use of Korean in order to facilitate students' participation in class discussion even though English was mostly used as a main medium of instruction. This English-oriented program was also designed to give ill-prepared native-English-speaking teachers an opportunity to better grapple English teaching in Korea. Another distinctive feature of the CELТ program was the use of multimedia to prompt students to share their own knowledge and understanding with others in the world.

The curriculum of the CELТ program was developed under the framework of critical pedagogy (CP). On a yearly basis, therefore, the faculty and students revised the curriculum in light of their interests, opinions, and experiences. At the beginning, the CELТ program provided students basic three courses specifically geared from CP: *Postmodernity and English Language Teaching* to investigate various pedagogical issues and practices from the perspective of postmodernism and critical postmodernism; *Critical Sociolinguistics* to examine the role of language learning, in particular English in a wide society; *Methods of Alternative Inquiry* to stimulate students' qualitative research methods such as content analysis and discourse analysis. As of 2006, more CP-oriented courses were introduced, and among them, *Introduction to Critical English Language Teaching* and *Cultural studies in TEFL* stood out because the former

course gave students an overview of English teaching-related research from the CP standpoint while the latter course helped students to analyze various forms of texts in search of hidden ideologies and meanings within them. In addition to designated texts, student-chosen topics were also adopted as learning sources throughout the course such as the possibility of reunification of North and South Korea or the local environmental issue of saving Dong River. Most classes moved along by students' analysis, discussion, and presentation. In doing so, students as current or future teachers not only learned English, but also had a more critical eye to see various sociopolitical and sociocultural issues. Moreover, they were empowered to understand the meaning of English as related to power and further appropriate English in the Korean context.

2.2. Classroom Practices:

2.2.1. ESL

Rivera: A community-based approach to critical pedagogy

During the period from 1990 to 1996, Rivera applied the approach of critical pedagogy (CP) to El Barrio Popular Education Program which is a community-based adult ESL education program in New York, and many students of this program were ill-educated women, mostly from Puerto Rico or the Dominican Republic. Serving as the executive director and educational coordinator of the program, Rivera attempted to integrate Spanish-language literacy, English learning, computer and video technology, and popular research into this ESL program in light of CP. Here, *popular research* indicates that students engage in the production of their own knowledge by investigating and analyzing problems in the communities in which they are embedded. To encourage students to bring their real life experiences into the class and discuss

them critically, the use of students' native language was also allowed during class. On the pretext of effective and critical bilingual education, this program incorporated the two languages, Spanish and English into the curriculum. Accordingly, the program employed bilingual teachers, who were capable of teaching in Spanish and English and who were in similar situations with their students; such as former students of this program and same community members.

After having discussion in class, teachers asked students to decide topics as related to their lives and conduct investigations on problematic issues in their communities. Then, students learned how to use tools of videos and computers in assistance of a local television station in order to develop data into the form of documentary. In a group, students actively analyzed collected data and made presentation to the whole class. Later, some of students' documented videos were broadcasted on public-access television to expand the class action research to larger communities. At the beginning of the course, students complained about research-based CP approach since they expected to sit in rows and see a teacher in front of the class; most adult learners preferred to learn through the procedure of how they had learnt at their school days. As time passed by, however, students became advocates of the new CP approach with the realization of they actually owned the class. Reflecting on the program, Rivera states that every student can claim true ownership of the class within the framework of CP.

Benesch: A dialogical critical thinking for the course of English for academic purpose

Moving from theory of critical pedagogy (CP) to practice, Benesch utilized a dialogical approach to critical thinking for an English for academic purposes (EAP) reading and writing class in 1998. The method of the dialogical critical thinking refers to the exchange of diverse

viewpoints about controversial social issues and the thorough study of them to look for hidden fallacies in common arguments. According to Benesch, this approach can ultimately promote students' sense of tolerance and social justice since it enables students to see a variety of perspectives and further think beyond the taken-for-granted assumptions and presuppositions in a society. In this sense, Benesch brought the brutal crime of the 1998 murder of Matthew Shepard, a gay U.S. college student as a classroom topic and invited students to discuss the issue of homosexuality in light of their experiences.

After reading the news article about that murder, students first expressed anger, concerns, or fear of homosexuality; in particular, male students who were confined within a traditional notion of heterosexual masculinity. During the discussion, Benesch as a facilitator and intervener encouraged students to elaborate their opinions or examine certain normative beliefs further in order to balance students' contributions and teacher's challenges. As for teacher's challenges, Benesch intervened the class discussion twice: to question on the common assumption on the homosexuality; and to consider the social origins of the fears about the homosexuality. On reflection the course, Benesch concluded that the critical dialogue can give students an opportunity to explore their views more deeply and consequently, enhance the understanding of human complexity.

Norton and Vanderhyden : Teaching English through Archie comics

Norton and Vanderhyden seek for ways to validate students' knowledge of popular culture within the framework of critical pedagogy (CP). The social and cultural texts such as comics, TV dramas, and pop songs, which are authorized by youth, are integral for ESL students

to gain access to the social networks of their first language peers. According to Norton's research with immigrant adult women in 2002, English learners feel excluded, silenced, or disempowered when they fail to partake in conversations as for the topics of popular culture in a society. In this view, ESL young students are not exempt; they also take risk of being negated or silenced at school. Along with the issue of disempowerment, popular cultural texts make students' learning more authentic in association with a wider society, and their visual representation also increases students' motivation substantially. Furthermore, such popular materials correspond to the concept of the literacy in CP, which conceives of literacy not just as reading and writing but as a social practice, which must be understood in the wider social context to make sense of the world.

In order to confirm the value of English learning based on popular cultural texts, Norton and Vanderhyden conducted a questionnaire and interview-based study to gain insight of the linguistic and social effect of a popular comic book, *Arch*. The researchers chose the Archie comic because of its continual popularity among students; it had attracted the attention of millions of preadolescent children, not only from in North America, but in diverse countries around the world for over fifty years. The study included fifty-five students in Grades 5, 6, and 7 at Mountain Elementary school in Vancouver, Canada from 1998 to 1999, and this school was extremely culturally diverse. The result of the study highlighted that The Archie comic contributed to the development of students' English literacy competence due to its simplified and contextualized vocabulary along with colorful pictures. Also, it facilitated students' understanding of Canadian culture and peers since it was derived from real life that they encounter every day. In consideration of the fact that the Archie comic provided ESL learners the breakthrough of rich interaction with their Anglophone peers, Norton and Vanderhyden

concluded the Archie comic accessible, engaging, and beneficial. Critical literacy refers to not only words on the book, but also social relationship and community practices. In this regard, Norton and Vanderhyden suggested that teachers and parents should have more open-minded to adopting various popular cultural texts in the multilingual classroom. By doing so, ESL students can be no longer silenced or disempowered at school.

Morgan: A community-based grammar lesson for an ESL adult course in Toronto

In an ESL adult course for a Chinese community center in Toronto, Morgan utilized the issue of the Quebec referendum, an election for Quebec's independence, as a learning source as a way of conceptualizing the course in a broader term as a social practice, underlying critical pedagogy (CP). More specifically, he attempted to raise students' critical consciousness with reference to pedagogical grammar lessons, each of which was significantly contextualized into students' lives. Taking most students from Hong Kong into account, therefore, Morgan encouraged students to appreciate the Quebec's trial in conjunction with the China's reacquisition of Hong Kong in 1997.

For the first lesson, Morgan brought in an article from a local newspaper and tackled new vocabulary such as *sovereignty* and *independence* through a L1-based activity. Then, he read the article with students and ensures whether students understood the text. The next day, students read an article from a local Chinese press and compared the two different perspectives from the two newspapers regarding the same issue. To begin the grammar lesson of modality forms on the following day, Morgan first taught personal and impersonal forms of attribution as well as degrees of probability in the present and past; for example, *I'm certain* that the Canadian

economy will improve and Relations between Quebec and Canada *are likely to* be difficult. After the discussion of the model sentences, Morgan asked students to adopt the learned modal forms to talk about the result of the referendum vote in a group. He further urged students to write predictive sentences as to Hong Kong's future in 1997 in the forms of the modality. The following are examples which students have created: *we are absolutely sure* that China is going to take over Hong Kong in 1997; *Canada is not likely to* treat Quebec as an equal partner in economic and political affairs. The case of Morgan's grammar class gives a clear picture of how CP can empower ESL students as subjects of an embedded society. Even through teaching a grammar associating with critical awareness, the transformative possibilities of pedagogy increase to a great extent.

2.2.2. EFL

Ghahremani-Ghajar and Mirhosseini: A dialogue journal writing for Iranian high school students

Based on an ethnographic research, Ghahremani-Ghajar and Mirhosseini investigated the pedagogical feasibility of dialogue journal writing within the framework of CP in the Iranian context. To them, writing is regarded as a critical EFL literacy practice which raises students' critical consciousness since it can function as a stimulating tool to explore social problematic issues and take action for change. In this sense, Ghahremani-Ghajar and Mirhosseini assured that dialogue journal writing enabled teachers and students to engage in written conversation in English through the process of opinions or responses exchange, and they applied this method to a private Iranian high school, situated in northern Tehran during an academic year from 2001 to

2002.

On a weekly basis, students were asked to write their journals in English, regardless of topics and the accuracy of grammar and spelling. They were even allowed to utilize Farsi words in case if they do not know the equivalent English words. Basically, teachers encouraged students to focus on expressing their thoughts and feelings with limited linguistic competence at their disposal. Then, teachers provided feedback of students' journals, more focusing on the content; they commented on students' view points and asked them with thought-provoking questions in order for students to think more critically. If necessary, teachers also gave students direct or indirect form-focused feedback.

The analysis of the one-year journal writing project showed that as the students continued to write, they tended to proceed from descriptive and personal writing to critical and creative one. In the last quarter of the year, eighty-two percent of the journals were either critical or creative writing. This stream of change clearly indicates that dialogue journal writing contribute to improving students' critical perspective, which is a major goal of critical literacy in CP. More importantly, Ghahreman-Ghajar and Mirhosseini concluded that since dialogue journal writing empowered students to move beyond Utilitarian view of English and explored their worlds with the words through a more critical lens, this writing method manifested the salient pedagogical applicability of CP in EFL situations.

Cohen: Learning English through a national parliament election in Mongolia

When a parliament election campaign was in full swing, Cohen, an American professor taught an English course under the title of *The Election: Learning to Choose* at the National

University of Mongolia in 2004. By integrating the local political agenda into the English course, Cohen set two major goals: helping students understand the basic principles and history of Mongolian democracy via the analysis of current political campaigns; and improving students' linguistic competence in preparation for graduation exams in speaking, grammar, and essay writing. Ultimately, Cohen attempted to empower students to make their own choices as political agents in the society, rather than being swayed by others.

To begin the course, Cohen first divided students into two political camps and asked each team to brainstorm the campaign pledges based on what they had witnessed through various media. As the debates progressed slowly, Cohen spent much time in each class reviewing the vocabulary and grammar necessary for argumentative speaking. For the next phase, Cohen asked students to research the historical study of Mongolian elections by a means of helping them realize how previous elections had influenced the current political climate, which might affect the results of the upcoming vote. Through this research project, Cohen asked students to read four articles regarding the elections and also interview older family members. For the purpose of facilitating students' English speaking and writing skills, Cohen asked them to write two kinds of essays: descriptive by summarizing what they learned; and argumentative by discussing how they felt. As the election drew nearer, Cohen turned students' attention to analyzing the campaign strategies of both major parties. By doing so, Cohen expected students to recognize the power of political propaganda in election. Responding to the issue of students' linguistic competence, which is one of top priorities in English class, Cohen asked students to translate advertisements and articles dealing with the election, with a focus on the most common lexical and grammatical patterns of campaigning. By studying vocabulary and grammar via such a minicorpus analysis,

Cohen ensured that students were able to learn authentic English related to their local context. Lastly, the students made group presentations based on their research by videotaping or note-taking. They also conducted a brief survey on voter preference or opinion about the result of election.

It is not important whether the students' prediction for the election was correct or not in this case. More importantly, this case provides critical teachers a clear-cut guideline the way to approach teaching English by drawing local issues to the class. In this regard, the next Fredricks' case is similar to the Cohen', and both of them were also native-English-speaking teachers working in EFL situations.

Fredricks: English Reading Clubs in Tajikistan

As an American English language teacher, who speaks Tajik and Persian, Fredricks developed English reading clubs in Dushanbe, Tajikistan in 2007. Considering the majority of Tajiks are Muslim, Fredricks employed the approach of CP in his reading programs in order to effectively and critically respond to the cultural clash, which English education was suspected to bring into a society. That is, Fredricks assumed that the dialogical mode of CP could facilitate students' critical appreciation regarding the value of diverse cultures embedded in reading texts, in conjunction with the culturally-intertwined Tajikistan society with various ethnic groups such as Tajiks, Uzbeks, Russians, and Kazakhs. As a result of being a former member of Soviet Union over many years, Tajik people view Russian as sophisticated language whereas Tajik as a street language. Although Tajik was announced as an official language in 1989, and teachers have been encouraged to use it more than Russian, teachers' linguistic insecurity and very few textbooks

and materials in Tajik seem to hinder Tajik language from being popularized in the society.

Much like Russian education, Fredricks believed that Tajikistan English education was also potentially imperialistic so that it may subjugate students' own languages, cultures, and identities. In this regard, Fredricks strongly advocated that the CP's self-reflexive dialogue about English texts could empower students to precisely comprehend authors' motives and messages and further explored the relationship of English and power in order to critically accept others' cultural values for developing theirs. As to the issue of book selection, Fredricks went through the process of negotiation with students since they are the owners and subjects of education. Considering Tajikistan's historical, cultural, and linguistic link to Iran and Afghanistan, he first brought a diverse group of novels which were directly related to current students' lives: *Shabanu*, a novel about the transitional phase of Muslim girls and the roles of their parents in a region in Pakistan; *Life in the Villages*, a story about the social and cultural contrasts of men and women in rural and urban communities respectively; *Hatchet*, the tale of an American boy who survives after his plane crash; *Reading Lolita in Tehran*, the story of a female professor and her students during the Iranian revolution; *A Kite Runner*, a tragic coming of age novel about loyalty and friendship of boys who grow in the middle of ethnic tensions in Afghanistan.

After reading, students shared their traumatic stories related to the books and discussed how they can or should deal with these confronted issues to build a better future. Also, they talked about the stereotypical images of ethnic people in some books, written for English-speaking audiences based on the discourse of Orientalism; for example, students argued that the Iranians were more negatively depicted much in the same way of novels written by many Western authors. In response to this issue, Fredricks encouraged students to mull over how to

accept English and its culture into their own culture. Evidently, the example of Fredricks implicates that even EFL instructors, who have little knowledge about local students' culture, can utilize the approach of critical pedagogy in English class. As Fredricks retrospects, the CP-based reading clubs can facilitate non-local teachers to understand and learn much about their local students' cultures and thoughts and vice versa; both of them can acquire in-depth understandings of each other's worldviews. Recently, the number of native-English speaking teachers has been substantially growing in EFL contexts, and most of them are uncertain about how to teach English in those contexts. Rather than employing Western-oriented approaches, it is worthwhile for them to take Fredricks' case as a guideline and teach English in light of local contexts. Such localization is also the main goal which critical pedagogy is pursuing.

Shin and Crookes: Exploring the feasibility of critical pedagogy in Korea

In 2001, Shin implemented two CP-based classes in a Korean middle school and high school respectively. Due to the limitations of applying the dialogical approach of CP to regular class hours in an existing curriculum, Shin instructed a small group of twelve ninth grade girls for an afterschool class at Seoul. Throughout fourteen class periods, Shin and students opted for the issue of cultural stereotypes and conducted a research project regarding 'travel plans', followed by discussions and group presentations based on student-produced materials. Shin also communicated with students via e-mail in English to build up rapport as well as promote students' English competence. Out of fourteen, six periods were allotted to develop travel plans and presentations, and Shin mostly focused on raising students' critical reflection of the stereotypes within themselves. In creating the group traveling itinerary, for example, as most

students hoped to go to Western countries such as America or England, Shin encouraged students to think about why they prefer those super powers to so-called the third countries such as Thailand, or Vietnam. She also related this issue to Koreans' superiority and inferiority and asked students to reflect on the fundamental causes of such a national complex in light of historical facts. As discussion and reading move along, Shin presented related English vocabulary and expressions with contextualized examples into students' lives. After the course, students stated that not only was their English competence enhanced, but they also had a more critical eye to appreciating the world.

In the case of high school, Shin co-taught approximately twenty-eight eleventh graders with a Korean English teacher, Jinho at a foreign language high school; accordingly, the students' English competence tended to be more advanced than those from general high schools. During sixteen class periods, the two teachers instructed a regular English course of 'English Culture' twice a week, and the school curriculum allowed English only in this class due to its speaking-oriented purpose. First, the two teachers provided the generic theme of 'Current Korean culture'. In groups, then, students negotiated to narrow down to a specific research topic and prepared for group presentations. Responding to the presentation, each student made contribution by participating in a group discussion and finally wrote their perspectives about the issue.

The major goal of the class was to promote students' critical reflection on culture, rather than reaching an agreement on the issue of the Korean culture. In the first lesson, hence, the two teachers asked students to decide the best representative of the current Korean culture in groups. The following are the examples of students on the question: social and educational issues such as early English education, early studying abroad, college entrance exam, cram schools, and plastic

surgery; unique aspects of Korean culture such as public bathrooms and dog-meat soup; contemporary teenage culture such as cell phones and popular culture. Since most students were under strong pressure for the national college entrance exam, they seemed to be reluctant to do extra out-of-class assignments. Nonetheless, the students highly valued the dialogical approach in discussions since it fostered their critical thinking and also enabled them to have a second thought about the taken-for-granted issues more critically. In addition, the presence of the two teachers allowed students to enjoy more diverse perspectives as well as English.

Discussion & Suggestions: Beyond class and within class

Considering the ideologically and socio-politically intertwined facets of English in the 21st century, English language teaching within the conceptual framework of critical pedagogy (CP) should be extensively discussed in the wider world context, rather than being restricted in the level of a country. More specifically speaking, all of the EFL and ESL countries should form rigid solidarity and make collaborative efforts to legitimize a variety of world Englishes from Inner Circle to Outer and Expanding Circle. Such solidary endeavors can embolden the general public to move beyond the sense of inferiority and superiority, deeply-rooted within ourselves in relation to language and power. Language is constructed and keeps evolving in historical, social, and cultural contexts. Degrading locally nativized Englishes as broken, dialects, or creoles evidently runs counter the ecology of language. It is nothing but an anachronistic and chauvinistic view, derived from the discourse of Eurocentric Orientalism. Dialects refer to modified versions of the so-called standard language, and both of them share the same cultural background in a country. In this view, world Englishes should not be devalued as modified

versions of Inner Circle English since all kinds of Englishes possess distinctive cultural characteristics.

We as English educators and linguists should strive to surpass such a standardization of English which specifies Inner Circle English as normative only. That is to say, we should have more inclusive and pluralistic than traditional and monolithic view of English. Obviously, it is extremely complicating and even overwhelming since we have all got accustomed to the so-called English of Inner Circle for many years. It is natural that teachers are more prone to teach what they have been taught at school. As critical educators, however, we should be able to cut the vicious circle of granting one specific English a normative status in class practices, and this cutting should begin with the systematic development and codification of world Englishes for classroom practices.

For the first step, therefore, critical practitioners should contribute more articles, delving into the relationship of English and power and the counterstrategies for English teachers, in mainstream journals like *TESOL Quarterly* or *Applied Linguistics*. In this regard, the 1999 autumn issue of *TESOL Quarterly* should be highly appreciated since it has served as an epoch-making catalyst in bridging critical pedagogy with English teaching. Furthermore, more critical journals should be issued and distributed to English teachers. *Critical Language Learning*, *World Englishes*, and *Asia EFL Journal* are currently in circulation, but localized critical English journals lack in numbers substantially. Consequently, the concepts of critical pedagogy (CP) and world Englishes are still foreign to a great number of English teachers. Through case studies in various contexts, linguists, teacher educators, and teachers should collaboratively work on corpus analysis of world Englishes in comparison of each English and introduce clear-cut guidelines for

classroom practices by utilizing the dialogical problem-posing approach of CP.

To begin with, English teachers all around the world should learn and teach world Englishes in class. Native-English-speaking teachers need to abandon the narrow perspective regarding their English as standard and learn and teach the other Englishes, starting from lexical levels. Some English teachers raise concerns that the diversity of world Englishes might eventually become a huge hindrance for an international communication. We live in the 21st century, which Internet connects the world as one, and English plays a crucial role in this process of globalization. Accordingly, the introduction of world Englishes in class does not become a stumbling block of the international communication. Rather, it can be a stepping stone in enriching the world with many kinds of Englishes with diverse lexicons and rules. This is the most fascinating aspect of language ecology. We often hear such discourses as ‘I prefer American English to British English’ or ‘I like British English better than American English’. Someday, we might be able to hear a talk like ‘I like Indian or American English better than Singapore English’. Of course, this argument itself is inappropriate since it fails to encompass different cultural values of each English, but in a sense, such an argument seems welcoming because it acknowledges Outer Circle Englishes as a kind of English. This more equalized awareness of teachers and students is what CP is pursuing in the dimension of English teaching.

As illustrated above, the solidary efforts of English teachers are of primary importance to teach English based on CP. By forming international and national network systems, teacher should share not only their classroom experiences, but also teaching methodologies, materials, and lesson plans. They can exchange information through class observation, conferences on and offline, blogs, and journals. For the radical change of classroom level, English teachers

themselves can be directly exchanged internationally, and I suggest it as the program of *Exchange Teachers*, just like the convention of *Exchange Students*. More specifically, this program encourages the international exchange of public school English teachers in Outer or Expanding Circle. To teach English, for example, a Japanese teacher of English comes to Korea while a Korean teacher of English goes to Japan. This program allows students to experience different Englishes, teaching methods, and culture. The fact that the exchanged teachers can teach English as well as their mother tongues is also a strong advantage of the program. Most of all, it can help students realize the precise role of English for talking with people from other countries, not just for talking with Americans or English people. Many conditions should be discussed for the effective implementation of the program: teaching experience; teachers' basic command of students' first language; the period of exchange; teachers' salary and accommodation. In this regard, the cooperation of governments in EFL is indispensable.

In addition to exchanging English teachers, the employment of native-English-speaking teachers should be reconfigured in light of the CP's understanding of native-English speakers. Not only should the EFL governments stop profiling non-Caucasian teachers from the Inner Circle countries, but they should also hire more professionally-trained English teachers from the Outer Circle countries such as India, Singapore, and the Philippines. In doing so, students can be exposed to diverse Englishes and cultures, and they can also have a more democratic attitude toward races. For Korean instance, since most people from the Outer Circle countries engage in labor work in Korea, many Koreans, in fact, tend to have a sense of superiority to them. By accepting them as someone who teaches us, the anachronistic superiority can be diminished or hopefully vanished for good. Another advantage is that since they have also learned English, they

can better understand students and English learning. From the perspective of the EFL governments, they can save huge amount of educational budget. Due to relatively inexpensive wage of the Outer Circle teachers, the governments can hire even two English teachers by spending equivalent amount on employing one Inner Circle teacher; more teachers are needed to downsize big classes in EFL. More importantly, teachers' experience can contribute to improving the quality of classroom teaching to a greater extent. Currently, Japan is the only EFL country which has employed Outer Circle teachers. Although the number of the Outer Circle teachers is incomparable to that of the Inner Circle teachers, Japanese trial gives a meaningful lesson to the other EFL countries. According to English program in Korea (EPIK), it allows the status of native-English speaking teachers to those from only America, British, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, and recently South Africa. The Korean government needs to have more open-minded and critical understanding as to the prevalent ideology of Native-speakerism.

Responding to the more democratic employment of English teachers, it is important to develop contextualized local curriculums and teaching materials which encompass more multiple Englishes and cultures as a means of going beyond *Americanism*, having conquered most EFL textbooks over time. In case of Korea, American English, culture, and people have been depicted as the authentic representative of English in the government-produced English textbooks and English tests such as college entrance exams and Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), which serves as a rigid yardstick in a job market. In 1999, a new test for Korean English speakers, called Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University or TEPS, was invented, but it also fails to include such diverse expressions or pronunciation patterns of world Englishes.

To really meet its ultimate expectation of English for international communication and delivering Korea to the world, the Korean government should make strenuous efforts to adopt more CP-based approach, from illustrated characters to Englishes in the textbooks and tests. Illustrating the role and meaning of English in Korea at the beginning of the textbooks, then, the contents should be expanded into from Koreanized to global issues such as historical, political, cultural, and social agendas; such as reunification of Korea, Korea's unique culture, the cultural politics of English, human rights, world poverty, and wars around the world. In this regard, it is very important to incorporate the contents of the other subjects into the English textbooks. For example, once students form schemata about the possibility of reunification of South Korea and North Korea in history class, and they, then, are asked to express their thoughts in English, not only can the quality of class discussion be improved, but students are also more motivated since they talk about something they are familiar with. In order to maximize students' participation in English class, English teachers should create activities to teach appropriate vocabulary and structures in accordance with students' English proficiency levels. Moreover, the solidarity of teachers of different subjects is significantly indispensable. Going beyond the textbooks, teachers should continue to bring controversial current local issues into class discussion as supplementary materials. Teachers should bear in mind that students are also agents of a community in which they are going to reside for the next generation. What is happening currently should be critically and precisely taught to them. If necessary, teachers should empower students to take counter-measures for change. English teachers should not be exempt in this process. To enhance their strengths as local English teachers, they should gather more often in pursuit of the educational knowledge and the good command of English, and native-English speaking teachers should not

be excluded in such associations or clubs.

As mentioned previously, teachers very likely follow the educational views and teaching methods which they have been taught at school, and such a familiarity hinders them from examining wrong practices more critically and further taking innovative actions against them. Having been exposed to American English only at school, for instance, many Korean teachers of English tend to confess difficulties in understanding native-English-speaking teachers from other than America. In lieu of making an attempt to cope with unfamiliar accents, they prefer American teachers of English from the first place, and this phenomenon continues to provide a normative status to American English and American teachers of English as well. To disseminate the framework of world Englishes and Outer Circle English teachers, accordingly, the first task should be transforming the stereotypical standpoints of local English teachers as well as native-English speakers.

Furthermore, the education of the general public is also essential. The ideas of world Englishes and Outer Circle English teachers are unfamiliar to most of the general public, including students' parents; therefore, they may find those stances very radical or even ridiculous and unacceptable. Through teacher and parent conference days, both local and native-English-speaking teachers should make greater efforts to justify the rationality of world Englishes and clarify the incorporation of the world Englishes not subtractive but additive in the EFL milieu. That is, it does not mean the removal of American or British English in textbooks, but the addition of more Englishes to them in order to flourish national curriculum, corresponding to the globalization. On the level of government, mass media is an effective tool to reach the general public.

Washback effect or teach to the test has become one of the most popular debate topics to most EFL Asian countries such as Korea, Japan, and China. As EFL teachers, we all clearly know that this thorny issue continues to exist unless the educational systems are immensely reshuffled. In a Korean proverb, there is saying ‘breaking a rock with eggs’, which discourages people from the beginning. Such a pessimistic cannot-do attitude is the one we as teachers should confront initially. When a majority of teachers realize the existing problems and stand up against them, we can break or even fragment the big rock of the conventional system. We as English teachers in EFL can transform English from a necessary evil to a necessary good and from obsessive English fever to productive English passion. Of course, we may not reach our goals immediately, but we can propose a direction for the next generation where to go. Myles Horton, the founder of the Highlander Educational and Research Center which has had a great impact on civil rights, labor and environment movements, states that if we believe we have a goal that we can achieve in our lifetime, then it's the wrong goal. Once we decide what our vision is, hence, all we can do is ‘just hack away on it’ (qtd. Auerbach and Wallerstein, *Problem-posing* 6). Echoing his view, Auerbach and Wallerstein also reiterate that “the point of an ideal is **not** to reach it, but to let it guide our journeys” (*Problem-posing* 6). Even if we cannot or will not fulfill our goal in our life time, we as teachers should not give it up but keep pursuing it. Our trials will bring positive accumulative effects in the future. The goal of critical pedagogy may sound ideal and unattainable, and the ongoing project may also sound frustrating. Nevertheless, we should hold on to and believe the power of critical pedagogy. The following is the main reason why we should employ the framework of critical pedagogy in classroom practices and actively partake in long-term struggles:

Why in the world does it matter? Kids matter. That's why. Our future matters. That's why. It is as simple as that. It is also something we all know. This is serious business we are talking about here. Students and teachers are hurting. We in education are a mirror of society that is more and more polarized. (Wink 165)

In the next section, I will seek for the pedagogical feasibility of CP in the Korean context. First of all, I will try to clearly identify the role of English in Korea in light of the history of English education which manifests the relationship of power and language. Then, I will examine how the paradigm shifts of syllabi and English education policies have affected teachers' pedagogical approach, teaching attitude, and classroom practices. This will be followed by a discussion of the limitations of the Centre-oriented methodologies, *Communicative Language Teaching* in Korean classrooms. As a way of appropriating CLT in Korea, I will suggest to incorporate CLT with the approach of CP and divide this combination into two versions of weak and strong; the weak version of CP deals with teaching English based on a predetermined government syllabus whereas the strong version of CP concerns teaching English based on an emergent syllabus. Then, I will explore their pedagogical possibility in two teaching situations: solo-teaching by local English teachers and co-teaching between native-English-speaking teachers and local English teachers. While employing the weak version for school text-based solo-teaching classes, I will adopt the strong version for co-teaching classes, which enjoy more freedom in selecting teaching materials. That is, the co-teaching enables teachers to co-construct their own syllabus based on students' interests and local issues.

Critical Pedagogy in Korea

1. The Status of English in Korea: From the Past to the Present

Korea is one of only a few monolingual countries in the world. Now that Korean is the only national language and at the same time mother tongue to all Koreans, the Korean society shows a very high degree of congruity as a speech community. Of course, a variety of Korean dialects exist in different regions, but they do not significantly hamper the Korean people from communicating and interacting with each other. This may be one reason why Korean students cannot speak English well despite studying English for ten years at school.

Albeit such a linguistic reality in Korea, most Koreans are obsessed with learning English and are even fanatical about it. In the end, English dooms Koreans to make a fetish of it with the infection of an *English fever*. Responding to this phenomenon, Bok-geo il, who is a Korean novelist, proclaimed a proposal to enforce English as an official language in preparation of the globalized world in which ethnic languages might be extinct, succumbing to the power and prestige of English. He further argued that after co-adopting Korean and English as official languages for the time being, the government should eventually take the initiative to establish English as the only official language in Korea (Yoo 7). In reaction to his extreme stance, however, a strong nationalism had been reformulated in support of the Korean language, subsequently triggering heated debates nationwide. In 1998, *Chosunilbo*, which is one of the largest newspaper companies, even conducted the Internet poll concerning the *for or against* of adopting English as an official language in Korea. The result showed that among a total of 37,000 participants, 45.1 % was supportive while 54.9% was against the proposal (Kim, “37,000 Citizens”). Two years later since the first poll, *Weekly chosun* conducted another Internet poll in

2000, and the survey showed a steadily growing rate for legitimizing English as an official language in Korea; out of 3,000 subjects, 53 % was supportive whereas 40% was negative (Choi, “Koreans’ Concern”). Despite the limitations of the Internet poll method, the results evidently indicate the conscious shift of Koreans in prioritizing English at the expense of their ethnic language, Korean.

Historically, the language, Korean had been threatened by outer forces over time. In an effort to gain independence away from Chinese characters, the Korean writing system, *Hangul* was invented in the 15th century. However, it had not been extensively utilized since the dominant noble groups in a social stratification continued to favor the use of Chinese characters. In the early twentieth century, the Japanese rule served as a catalyst for Koreans to reconceptualize *Hangul* as an essential resource to resist the Japanese policy of linguistic assimilation which fundamentally prevented the use of Korean. During this colonial period, *Hangul* contributed to embolden Korean cultural and linguistic nationalism beyond the social hierarchy, and this was the reason why Koreans strenuously preserved *Hangul* at the cost of many lives (Yoo 5). However, it is questionable why Koreans themselves currently try to commit linguistic genocide of their ethnic language in favor of English. The following is the historical background of English education in Korea in search of the motives of Koreans’ obsession toward English, even by discarding their own language.

As the Chosun dynasty opened its door to some Western countries, the demands for interpreters were accordingly increased for global commercial trades and diplomatic relations. For the purpose of meeting the socio-political needs, foreign languages were instructed in two kinds of institutes: public schools and missionary schools. Starting from the first public foreign

language school, *Dong moon hak*, which was founded in 1883, *Yuk Young Gong Won*, and the *Public Foreign Language School* were established in 1886 and 1893 respectively. Apart from the two schools which were allowed for certain high social classes, the *Public Foreign Language School* unlocked its academic door to every citizen following the socio-political movement of *Gapokjungjang* to break away from the stratification in the Korean society. To get a high rank in the Korean social hierarchy, people started to study English to enter the school. With respect to the missionary schools, their academic opportunities were not limited to certain classes, but since their purpose was to propagate Christianity in Korea, English was not a major means of education (Chang, 84-85).

However, the boom of English education encountered with a huge stumbling block, the Japanese annexation; this period was a dark age to English education in public schools. Having forced missionaries to return to their countries, the Japanese government banned Koreans on travelling or studying abroad. In addition, Koreans had to learn English through the medium of Japanese from Japanese English teachers. Under the heavy surveillance of the colonial period, however, some Koreans tended to fuel their enthusiasm for English at night schools, which were confidentially established by Korean intellectuals (Chang 86).

Shortly after the independence of Korea in 1945, Korean War broke out between Communist North and Capitalist South in 1950. More precisely speaking, the ideological tension between U.S. and the Soviet Union during the Cold War swept through the Korean peninsula. After the war, the advent of the U.S. trusteeship was enough to bring about a substantial *American English wave* in South Korea. In order to keep its hegemony on Korean Peninsula, the U.S. organized the dominant class into American-friendly elites who studied in America or

possessed a high-level English proficiency (Shin 77). Korea's unequal alliance with the world Super Power and its military and economic aids, made Korea subordinated to America as its neo-colony. In particular, its linguistic and cultural imperialism empowered English to be a gatekeeper to climb on the bandwagon of the prerogative class in South Korea. A Korean modern novelist, Gwangyong, Jeon (전광용) masterfully depicted this abnormal historical phenomenon in his book, ‘꺼삐딴 리’ (Kkebbiddanli), which means 'Captain Lee' in Russian. The main character, Lee, Ingu (이인구) was portrayed as a typical opportunist who strove for learning three imperial languages, Japanese, Russian, and English corresponding to the stream of Korean history. This book clearly demonstrates a sick Korean self-portrait, leaning on the dominant authorities with his identity completely forgotten.

Taking the historical stream of English education in Korea, the role and meaning of English in Korea needs a thorough reexamination. In other words, it should be reconceptualized from the view of the cultural politics of English. It is obvious that the utilitarian perspective of English as a neutral medium for communication appears to commit a fallacy since it fails to take into account the pervasive social and political ideology attached to English in the Korean society. English is extremely political, and it actively involves the reproduction of status quo while causing social inequality. Currently, the domination and privilege of English has been institutionalized; subsequently, learning English has become a sincere hope to those who dream for the higher elitedom. Suffice it to say, English is equal to absolute power in Korea. It is a huge *Cultural Capital* or *gatekeeper* which determines the success of schooling as well as society. With economic power obtained under the free market of Capitalism, the elite reproduce their

class, and English lies at the very heart of the process. It is obvious that money allows the haves a better chance to win the cutthroat competition by gaining a good command of English through studying abroad, in prestigious English institutes, or private lessons with native-English speakers. Some parents educate their children in expensive English kindergartens from the very young age. In an extreme case, a few parents make their children have tongue surgery for the flawless pronunciation of *l* and *r* sounds (Demick, "Some in S. Korea"). The high expense of English education contributes to triggering a socioeconomic polarization or a so-called *English divide*, degrading the marginalized class to third-rate citizens. As a result, some Korean parents tend to have side jobs in order to afford their children's private lessons since they are unwilling to let their children inherit a marginalized position. However, this issue is not simple as it seems. No matter how hard the have-nots work, the gap between haves and have-nots does not seem to be narrowing. What is worse, the renewed government's English education policies have appeared to be more advantageous for the haves with putting more emphasis on the English grade in major assessments such as a Korean college entrance exam.

In 2008, the government announced the development of a national-level English test, tentatively called National English Proficiency Test. Regarded as a Korean version of TOFEL and TOEIC, this Internet-based test (IBT) includes not only the sessions of reading and listening, but also the sessions of speaking and writing. In accordance with difficulty, three grades of English test constitute the National English Proficiency Test: the first grade, equivalent to the English proficiency level of sophomore or junior in college, aiming for college graduation exams, job application, or studying abroad; the second and third grade, similar to the level of high school students, for the purpose of college entrance exams. While the second grade test is for English-

related departments, demanding a good command of English, the third grade test is for general departments. When all the procedures of the test development are completed, the government plans to re-discuss the applicable possibility of this test for the college entrance exam in 2012. After using the test results as a reference for the college entrance in 2013, the government may officially replace the traditional paper-pencil English test with the new IBT system by the year of 2016. In search of the credibility of the test, the government has implemented national mock tests. Currently, the fifth mock test was completed for 2 million 11th graders throughout 169 high schools (The Korean Ministry, “National-level”). Responding to this computer-based proficiency test, many teachers and parents by and large raise concerns that it may entail even wider *English divide* than the present. In particular, the speaking part is hard to improve in classroom practices only; consequently, a greater number of students end up with joining high-profile language institutes or private tutoring, and those who cannot afford them will be eventually more marginalized.

Under this situation, some people raise the argument of anti-English education, but it tends to romanticize the gatekeeping status of English in the Korean society. English, of course, is indispensable in the globalized era. For English teachers and teacher educators who actualize critical pedagogy in their classrooms, the question should be not whether to teach English or not, but how to appropriate it productively for the sake of every student in the local context. Based on our understanding of the ideological implications of English in relation to the power in Korea, we should contemplate and discuss the English policies of the government, and if necessary, we should be not afraid of challenging them. Also, we should share and discuss our classroom practices seeking for the effective ways to apply critical pedagogy to English teaching in the

Korean context. Most of all, we should remind the government of the fact that without tackling the fundamental issues in the Korean society, it is vain for the government to constantly shift its focus on renovating English policies every year. Such a policy shift has overwhelmed and will continue to overwhelm students, teachers and even parents to a large degree.

2. The Stream of English Education Policies: From Syllabus to Methods

English was first taught as a regular subject in middle schools after the Korean Independence in 1945. Shortly after the Korean War in 1955, as the First National Curriculum was established, English was mainly instructed with the Grammar-Translation method. In the 1960s, the Second National Curriculum proclaimed English as the first foreign language in Korea and asked teachers to utilize the Audio-Lingual Method to teach it (Yoo 6). With the introduction of the Third National Curriculum in the 1970s, communicative competence was viewed as crucial in English education, and this tendency was slowly, but steadily developed in the Fourth and Fifth National Curriculum in the 1980s, by assessing students' four skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening for the purpose of improving their communicative abilities.

Along with the pervasive discourse of *Segyehwa*, which is a Korean term for globalization, Kim Youngsam, the former President of Korea urged the shift of English education from the traditional grammatical syllabus to a notional-functional syllabus based on the approach of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), in the hope of enhancing national competitiveness in the global market (Shin 77). In the Sixth National Curriculum, accordingly, the development of students' communicative competence became a core element in the Korean English education;

consequently, the 4th, 5th and 6th graders in elementary schools started to learn English as an extracurricular activity after school in 1994 (Yoo 6). In addition, English teachers were forced to participate in training programs aimed at improving their English competence (Chang 87). The 7th National Curriculum was so-called more innovative since it incorporated the product-oriented syllabus— grammatical-structural and notional-functional syllabi, into the process-oriented syllabus— procedural and task-based syllabi, in consideration of the national education context (Chang 91). The dramatic changes in this curriculum were three aspects. First, English became a mandatory subject from 3rd graders in elementary schools to the first graders in high schools in 1997 (Chang 92). Second, teaching English through the medium of English only was reinforced for the 3rd and 4th graders in elementary schools and the 7th graders in middle schools (Shin 79). Third, native-English-speaking teachers were employed and placed into public schools through the English Program In Korea (EPIK) in 1996 (Chang 92). On the contrary, English class hours in middle schools were reduced 25% in the 7th National Curriculum, which made teachers more difficult in implementing speaking-based lessons of CLT, due to their obligation to complete the school textbooks within a certain time limit (Kim and Im 73). With a focus on communicative competence, nonetheless, the government continued to increase the number of speaking-based training courses for local English teachers and announced the deployment of at least one native-English-speaking teacher in every elementary and middle school by 2010.

In the face of all the efforts and huge budgets, the Korean people keep critiquing the English education policy as a failure, and students still cannot speak English well despite studying it over ten years at school. The issue of the incompetent English ability of students after ten years in service has been a major concern of the Korean government in establishing national

English education policy along with enhancing *national competitiveness* in the global world. Each time the government adopts a paradigm shift in English education, it tends to focus on facilitating local English teachers' communicative competence as if teachers are the main causes of students' poor English competence. As illustrated previously, education is political, which means that the blame should not be placed on an individual teacher, but higher institutions should be more responsible for the huge difference of English abilities in accordance with social classes; therefore, the Korean government is not exempt. Nevertheless, the English education policies of the government appear to scratch the surface manifestation of deeper contradictions in Korea, being obsessed with the notion of *national competitiveness* enhancement in the global market. Ironically, English in Korea plays a crucial role in promoting *intra-national* competitiveness for success within Korea, rather than *inter-national* competitiveness worldwide.

Having paid little or no attention to the fundamental issues concerning English education, the government has recently implemented more radical English education policies as follows: reinforcing English training courses for teachers to carry out teaching English through the medium of English only (TEE); employing the English competence test score of teachers for promotion; increasing the number of native-English-speaking teachers not only college graduates for regular school hours from the English Program In Korea (EPIK), but also undergraduates for after school classes from Teach and Learn in Korea (TaLK). Other ideas also include the hiring of temporary English teachers with a good command of English (영어회화전문강사제도), establishing state-of-art English only zones (영어전용교실) with many kinds of English books, and rewarding the schools which make efforts to improve students' English ability with special

or unique strategies and methods (영어교육리더학교) (The Korean Ministry, “The Development”). Moreover, the government assesses students’ English abilities once a year through the National Standard Test (일제고사) and presents the results of the test in public by lining up districts from the highest score to the lowest, thereby driving education into competition. Up to this point, critical practitioners should pay more extensive and intensive attention to English policies. Rather than scratching the surface of the problem by discussing teaching techniques in support of CLT, taking courses to be qualified for TEE, and co-teaching with NESTs, we should discuss the fundamental issues beneath each English education policy by raising questions. If necessary, of course, we should take even political actions through rallies. Regardless of critical or non-critical teachers, we should no longer let our students fall into the hell of competition.

Repression can arouse people's attention to contradictions and function as a fundamental driving force to dismantle them for change. As transformative intellectuals, we should make a greater endeavor to raise students’ critical awareness about the contradictions in a society and empower them to act on them as agents. As mentioned earlier, English class should be a core part of this process. To begin with, we need to bring controversial local issues with students into English class. We also need to teach students the correlation between the role of English and socioeconomic status in Korea for them to learn and accept English through a more critical lens. Clearly, we should help students realize the main purposes of learning English, expressing their own *voices* toward the world, not imitating others’. By doing so, we as English teachers, will be able to participate in the transformation of the English ideology from *necessary evil* to *necessary*

good for the students' sake. This is why we should employ critical pedagogy in English teaching in Korea.

3. Incorporation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) into critical pedagogy (CP)

Since the Sixth National Curriculum, the major purpose of English education in Korea has been to strengthen students' communicative oral skills in natural everyday environments; therefore, English teachers have been asked to adopt the approach of CLT in their English classrooms, focusing on *authenticity*. On the ground that authenticity can be attained from learning with native speakers, the government has continued to increase the number of native-English-speaking teachers (NEST), irrespective of considering the appropriate meaning of authenticity in the Korean context. Along with the issue of authenticity, the government has placed substantial emphasis on English teachers' oral proficiency on the belief that English should be taught in English to actualize the approach of CLT. These policies indirectly imply that local English teachers (LET) are not qualified to provide authentic English lessons; therefore, NESTs are the ideal teachers in terms of English teaching. As a result, some wealthy parents have sent their children to prestigious English institutes in seeking for NESTs who are believed to possess authentic English (Shin 79).

According to Canale and Swain, authenticity in CLT concerns meaningful communicative interaction which fulfills genuine communicative needs by using language as actually used by native speakers in realistic L2 situations (27). In this respect, CLT considers the naturally occurring English in native-speaker contexts of use as authentic, and the materials produced in English-speaking countries are also authentic; for example, real newspapers,

magazines, and advertisements (Widdowson, "Ownership" 386). As Widdowson puts it, the aforementioned authenticity fails to represent students' own experiences, interests, and realities but reflects on the reality of native speakers use; it is subsequently dependent on the authority of native speakers to a great extent ("Ownership" 386-387). That is, the authentic language in CLT may be real for native speakers of English but may not be really authentic for students in Korea. In an English class, say, students learn about how to socialize with people in American parties. Considering how many students are presently or will be involved with such an occasion in Korea, the far-flung topic and contents from students' lives are not authentic and appealing at all. In consequence, their low motivation may hinder them from improving English skills.

Moreover, authenticity contradicts another essential constitute of CLT, learners' autonomy, which allows students to impose their authority in the language and claim its ownership during the process of learning. In the approach of CLT, however, it is impossible for students to make the language their own since the authority of native speakers is already imposed on it. When the learning is not based on students' experiences and real worlds, students' autonomy cannot be achieved (Widdowson, "Comment" 67-68). Pennycook also points out that the language learning cannot be autonomous when it fails to connect language to broader local situations or issues in which students are engaged ("Introduction" 334).

Another problem in CLT is involved with its mechanical practice of decontextualized and memorized dialogues with no understanding of social meaning; that is, it focuses on stimulating students' oral or pragmatic competence to interpret, express, and negotiate the meanings of communication in Others' speech contexts. Students' local contexts should not be left out of the classroom. As obsessed with the concept of communicative competence and methodology of

teaching, however, CLT fails to encompass students' needs and interests in light of the socio-cultural, political, and ideological dimensions of local contexts. Given the dearth of CLT's participatory intention for heated local agendas, Pennycook argues that the communicative language class might be nothing but "the empty babble" unless it encourages students to talk about contextualized topics as closely related to their everyday lives. Rather than finding better ways of making students talk, therefore, critical teachers should pay more attention to listening and understanding in "why they talk the way they do, and why they remain silent", in order to help students regain their autonomy (*Cultural Politics* 305, 311).

To actualize the co-existence of the two terms, authenticity and autonomy, the approach of CLT should be incorporated into that of critical pedagogy in Korea. In other words, the definition of authenticity should be reconceptualized into the usage of English for expressing students' voices about localized issues or topics in local situations in light of their realities and interests. As Auerbach points out, only if learners actively participate in producing the curriculum and materials as related to their lives, the language-learning context become authentically and sincerely communicative; then, their motivation can be simultaneously enhanced ("Participatory" 696). Along with the issue of contextualized materials and topics, Korean teachers of English should also take initiatives to legitimate localized Englishes. Instead of saying the Koreanized English word, 'eye shopping' as equivalent to 'window shopping' in the other Englishes, completely inappropriate, English teachers should encourage students to think ways to disseminate the term into the context of world Englishes. Just like American and British English share different lexical terms, Korean English can also possess distinctive Koreanized words. Just like Americans ask British people to explain some unfamiliar English

words, they can ask Koreans to elaborate the meaning of localized English words, rather than degrading them as broken or wrong. Again, English is an international language, which means no English should have a normative status any longer. In a nutshell, within the framework of critical pedagogy, not only can CLT appropriately be “Koreanized”, but global English can sincerely be “glocalized” as a language of opportunity for Korean students (Shin 84).

In support of CLT, the Korean government has concentrated on downsizing big classrooms based on the prevalent false myths of CLT such as ‘communicative equals oral work’, ‘communicative equals group work’, and ‘communicative equals student-centered classroom’ (Holliday, *Appropriate* 165). The attempt to reduce the number of students in a class should be highly appreciated considering the fact that a big class has hampered teachers from interacting with students more closely and stimulating students to talk in class. However, the approach of CLT goes beyond the above-mentioned false myths. Even if students are talking in English in a small group, their communicative competence will not be much improved if they still have to study for the test. Without the transformation of an educational system in Korea, CLT is literally an inapplicable approach to Korean teachers of English who should teach to the test. In this regard, the government should precisely realize that CLT is not a panacea which can cure all kinds of problems and promote students’ oral competence even in the exam-oriented Korean context. As a result, Korean teachers of English end up with teaching even conversational English expressions to the test, and students memorize them for the test.

Given the educational realities in Korea, we need an approach which can more contextualize CLT and at the same time empower us to change the institutionalized educational system. I have found the empowering possibility in critical pedagogy (CP) and propose the

pedagogical possibility of CP in Korea. As Pennycook states, CP is “more than arranging chairs in a circle and discussing social issues” (“Introduction” 338). Through praxis, which is a continual cycle of critical reflections and actions, CP aims at empowering teachers and students as agents to act on problematic issues for ultimate change. Although CLT is effective in improving students’ oral skills in other contexts, we as teachers all know that the system of a college entrance exam prevents us from utilizing it in Korean high schools. Most of all, high school students are unwilling to study English communicatively. On this account, the Korean government does not urge English teachers in high schools to teach based on the approach of CLT.

Now, the issue for English teachers is considering ways to contextualize or ‘glocalize’ CLT in the current Korean educational system. As illustrated above, I suggest the incorporation of CLT into critical pedagogy (CP). Rather than jumping on the bandwagon of other’s CLT, we as critical teachers should take up eclectic stances to utilize its methods and techniques, aiming at raising students’ critical reflection associating with the local situations and issues. Via *role play*, the representative technique of CLT, for instance, students can experience someone else’s lives and more directly sympathize with them. Then, critical discussion can be followed regarding what should be done to improve the situations in which they have performed. In the lesson plan session of this paper, I will demonstrate this technique of CLT within the approach of CP more precisely. One of the major differences between CLT and CP is that the former focuses on solving problems with tangible answers via discussion while the latter deals with posing problems in students’ lives to discuss what should be done to change them. That is, the approach of problem-posing or CP does not demand any crystal-clear simple answers but inspire students

to reflect upon what they can or should do to solve the problems through the interaction with each other. Accordingly, the emphasis of CP is not on how to use English appropriately in the context of others but on how to appropriate English to enrich or change the context of Korea better. In this process, promoting students' linguistic skills is also as important as that of their critical awareness. As pedagogical strategies, therefore, I will employ student-initiated presentations, reading materials, writing, and small-group critical discussion in the lesson plan of this paper.

Pedagogically, I suggest that the combination of CP and CLT can be actualized in weak and strong versions in Korea. The weak version refers to teaching English based on the government-oriented textbooks while the strong version deals with teaching English based on the co-developed syllabus by teachers and students. In the next section, I will explore the pedagogical feasibility of the strong version in the situation of co-teaching between a native-English-speaking teacher and local English teacher. After examining the scheme of English Program In Korea (EPIK) for the employment of native-English-speaking teachers, I will identify the advantageous aspects of co-teaching in CP-based lessons. In search of specific strategies to actualize the approach of CP as well as to maximize students' learning in the Korean context, I will illustrate current perspectives on English teaching and learning in the second language education. Then, I will stress the importance of students' collaboration from the perspective of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD). In CP, writing skill is as indispensable as reading skill since it allows students to express what they think toward the world. Despite its vital importance as one of four skills, Korean teachers of English confess that a writing-oriented class has no or little pedagogical possibility owing to the exam-based Korean

public school system. To explore effective ways in incorporating writing skills into multiple skills in regular class periods, therefore, I will introduce a writing-oriented approach, *dynamic Written Corrective Feedback* and appropriate it in co-teaching situations in conjunction with each class procedure. Corresponding to each class procedure, I will also explain certain types of assessment. Lastly, I will introduce students' mediated test method, *dynamic assessment* for confirming previous grammar lessons and suggest it as an innovative strategy which surpasses the current educational phenomenon in Korea, *competition*.

4. Pedagogical Feasibility of CP in Co-teaching

4.1. Advantages of Co-teaching: Glocalizing the incorporation of CP and CLT

Cook and Friend regard that co-teaching occurs when two or more professionals jointly teach a diverse group of students in a single physical classroom (172). Focusing on the cooperation of two teachers or more, Villa et al. stress the importance of co-designing lessons through taking co-responsibilities in plan, instruction, and evaluation in co-teaching circumstance (4-5). Careless and Walker point out that co-teaching between native-English-speaking teachers (NEST) and local English teachers (LET) demands harmony of two teachers whose backgrounds are completely different, so it is challenging. Sincere collaboration of co-partners, therefore, is the best solution to maximize their strengths and minimize their weakness for the sake of students (475).

In Korea, co-teaching has been reinforced since the birth of English Program In Korea (EPIK) to recruit NESTs, along with the advent of the communicative-focused Sixth and Seventh National Curriculum. The purposes of the EPIK are not only to assist Korean students and

teachers improve their English speaking abilities, but also to help Korean teachers with their English classes and / or jointly conduct English classes. The EPIK is also aimed at developing teaching materials for English language education while enhancing cultural exchanges (EPIK , “Duties”). Ultimately, the EIPK encourages co-teaching between the two teachers through interaction; it prevents NESTs from solo-teaching or passively engaging in co-teaching such as human recorders (EPIK, “Teaching Conditions”).

The NESTs better know the appropriate usage of language depending on contexts while LETs are familiar with students’ needs and interests and local issues. In creating teaching materials, the LETs choose topics or contents of teaching and write about them. Then, the NESTs fix linguistic errors or wrong word choice for increasing the accuracy of materials. Another good example is a writing class. In spite of its effectiveness in improving English, the LETs are reluctant to conduct the writing class due to their insecure linguistic skills and insufficient time to provide students proper feedback. These limitations can be overcome by the cooperation with the NESTs. From the point of students, co-teaching allows them to have more opportunity to experience an in-class authentic dialogue in English when NEST and LET converse topics related to what is being taught. Moreover, the presence of two teachers in a single physical space makes in-class tracking lessons more effective. According to students’ proficiency levels, teachers can approach a small group of students with different pedagogical strategies in light of diverse co-teaching models.

Apart from the LETs’ solo-teaching lessons, the co-teaching lessons provide the two teachers more options in choosing teaching materials and creating the syllabus for the course; that is, the co-teaching lessons enable the strong version of critical pedagogy (CP) to be realized

in regular classes in the public middle school system in Korea. Based on locally situated authentic topics in which students are interested, the two teachers and students co-develop the syllabus of the course, and students participate in every phase from designing syllabus to choosing topics and creating learning materials. In this sense, students can claim the true ownership of their classes since autonomy is dependent on the authority of students as well as the two teachers. In short, the co-teaching by the two teachers can serve to mutually complement the weaknesses which both teachers may possess, provide students more authentic learning opportunity, and enables the strong version of CP to be actualized in the Korean middle school context; consequently, it has a positive effect on enriching English classes to some substantial extent. In search of applying the strong version of CP in the Korean middle school context, I will identify current phenomena in L2 learning and explore effective methods of writing and assessment respectively in the following section.

4. 2. Co-teaching Multiple Linguistic Skills: Integrated & contextualized

The combination of several factors has influenced current perspectives on L2 teaching and consequently changed classroom teaching, curriculum design, and even students' proficiency levels. Hinkel suggests following four specific factors as major causes of the recent shift in L2 teaching, each of which tends to associate with the crucial notion of critical pedagogy (110-114). The first factor is a decline of focusing on teaching methods in recognition of the value of contextualized and localized methods; that is, the growing need for relevant pedagogy to local situations. For instance, communicative language teaching should be applied differently to EFL contexts in which linguistic accuracy is more valued for taking exams or securing employment.

Critical pedagogy is also pursuing for contextualization of teaching methods.

The second factor is valuing both accuracy and fluency and both bottom-up and top-down skills as a result of the recognition that form-focused instruction contribute to the L2 learning in support of extensive exposure of meaning-based input. According to Dekeyser, declarative knowledge of what one knows can be converted into procedural knowledge of what one can do by explicit instruction and subsequent extensive practices by input enhancement. In writing lessons, for example, students' errors should be explicitly instructed and practiced by utilizing numerous examples in attaining the ultimate goal, the 'automatization' of what they know (58). As the role of cognition in L2 becomes emphasized, students' metacognitive knowledge for processing information also begins to draw an attention in L2 learning. A key construct for explaining metacognitive-based strategies in L2 learning is the zone of proximal development (ZPD) by Russian Psychologist, Vygotsky. ZPD refers to the distance between the actual developmental level and the potential developmental level in collaboration with adults or more capable peers. In his theory, Vygotsky points out that what a child can do presently only indicates a part of the child's ability and past development, and ZPD represents an insight of future development in comparison with what a child can do independently now and what the child can do by mediation of a teacher or peers in the future. In other words, the interactive scaffolding by the teacher or peers' mediated assistance learning empowers the child to enhance his or her present capability level to their full potential (85). In critical pedagogy, teachers are also regarded as facilitators or guides who can maximize students' capacity.

The third distinctive factor found in current L2 teaching is in-depth insight into new knowledge about a variety of world Englishes through the analysis of large spoken and written

English corpora. Given the fact that English is an international language, linguists and English professionals begin to step forward to acknowledging nativized Englishes. This tendency corresponds to the claim of critical pedagogy. Responding to the relationship of English and power, critical pedagogues argue that such a concept of standard English should be permanently vanished in the discourse of English language teaching (ELT). The last factor is teaching multiple skills holistically in a context, associating with pragmatic or communicative objectives of L2 learning in an era of globalization. Rather than teaching each skill of reading, writing, speaking, and listening separately, much of the current L2 instruction takes place in integration of multiple skills. Based on the reading content, for example, the instruction can be extended to teaching grammar, vocabulary, discussion, and writing.

For the purpose of this paper, I will concentrate on finding appropriate methods to teach multiple skills with a focus on the development of students' writing skills due to the following reasons. Firstly, writing enables students to express their voices more insightfully since it gives students enough time to think. It also enhances the participation of introverted students who tend to be quiet in speaking-based class. Secondly, in spite of its important role in English education, writing has been substantially overlooked in the Korean English classrooms on the ground that it is not a part of major exams. Taking the aforementioned perspectives in current L2 learning into consideration, Korean teachers of English should attempt to find integrating methodologies which can combine all of the skills into English class, and the power of writing should not be neglected. Lastly, writing is regarded as one of essentially powerful tools in critical pedagogy. By publishing their writings as newspapers or leaflets, students are able to deliver their thoughts to the world. Bearing the exam-oriented Korean context in mind, accuracy is of primary importance.

Therefore, I will first introduce and examine metacognitive written corrective feedback which can effectively contribute to improving students' accuracy in writing. Then, I will illustrate an accuracy-based method of dynamic written corrective feedback (WCF). Within the framework of critical pedagogy (CP), I will attempt to appropriate the dynamic WCF by integrating writing with the other multiple skills. Applying this CP-based integration to the co-teaching situation, I will present all of the classroom procedures and strategies more precisely utilizing visual representations.

4.2.1. The Effects of Metacognitive Written Corrective Feedback

Feedback has been positively highlighted in most theories of second language learning and language pedagogy. In both behaviorist and communicative approaches to language teaching, for example, feedback is viewed as contributing to the enhancement of learner motivation and linguistic accuracy (Ellis "Corrective" 3). However, the complexity of error correction strategies entails a great deal of the controversies such as issues of whether to correct, what to correct, how to correct, and when to correct. Over time, the value of error correction or written corrective feedback (WCF) has been vigorously debated by second language (L2) writing teachers and researchers in L2 writing pedagogy.

In viewing WCF as a 'clear and dramatic failure', Truscott suggests teachers not to focus on error correction since such feedback is likely to overwhelm learners, decrease their confidence, and consequently undermine the learning process. He further maintains that error correction may enable students to eliminate the errors in a subsequent draft but has no effect on grammatical accuracy in composing a new piece (271). Krashen also regards error correction as

“a serious mistake” since it prompts students to take up the defensive mechanism by avoiding the use of complex structures and in turn, stimulates the development of “learned knowledge”, irrespective of “acquired knowledge (74). This view echoes VanPatten, who states, “correcting errors in learner output has a negligible effect on the developing system of most language learners” (24).

However, some researchers such as Ellis et al. and Hartshorn et al. support that WCF can facilitate writing accuracy in certain contexts. In an effort to prove the effectiveness of WCF in an EFL context, Ellis et al. study three groups of Japanese university students with a focus on the accurate usage of the English indefinite and definite articles in written narratives. On three compositions, the focused group receives WCF only for article errors while the unfocused group receives correction of article errors and other errors. Of course, no WCF is offered to the control group. The results show that both experimental groups significantly outperform the control group in the long term, and WCF appears to be equally effective for the focused and unfocused experimental groups; at the onset, the improvement of the unfocused group is noticeable, but while the focused group constantly improves, the unfocused group does not (“The effects” 363).

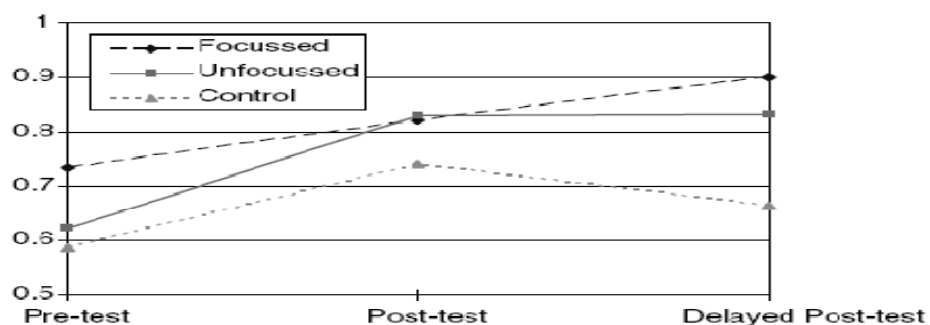


Figure 3. Three groups' scores on the narrative writing (363)

Along with Ellis's study, the growing evidence regarding WCF indicates its positive value in enhancing both oral and written linguistic accuracy. Therefore, the most crucial question is not whether to provide WCF, but how to utilize it effectively in order to maximize students' writing skills. In this respect, Ellis et al. explore the effectiveness of two types of WCF, *direct* and *metalinguistic*. Direct feedback means supplying students with the correct form whereas metalinguistic or indirect feedback refers to providing metalinguistic clues for self-correction. According to Ellis et al., metalinguistic feedback is more pedagogically appealing since it encourages students to utilize their relevant explicit knowledge to tackle the errors they have committed (356). For the purpose of improving writing skills, therefore, such grammatical knowledge should be explicitly instructed in order for students to benefit from the conscious monitoring based on their metalinguistic understanding. In the study of direct WCF alone and direct WCF in association with metalinguistic WCF, Sheen finds that the combination of both is more effective than direct CF alone since it stimulates students' heuristic self-discovery and autonomy as well (271-272).

Favoring the value of indirect coded symbols which provoke students' metalinguistic knowledge, Hartshorn et al. conduct another interesting study focusing on the issues of time-efficiency and linguistic accuracy of traditional WCF associated with process writing in ESL contexts. Prioritizing the aspects of writing procedures and meaningful feedback for self-correction, Hartshorn et al. regard that traditional process writing is unrealistically time-consuming in terms of providing qualitative feedback. Additionally, the improvement of linguistic accuracy is seldom observable since many students constantly make the same errors despite explicit feedback or instruction from their teachers. As a way of overcoming the

weaknesses of traditional process writing and WCF, Hartshorn et al. suggest the *dynamic WCF* which encourages students to write a 10-minute paragraph and constantly revise it for error-free paper.

In their study with 47 advanced-low to advanced-mid ESL students at Brigham Young university English language center, the treatment group of 28 students writes a 10-minute paragraph nearly every day, receives indirect feedback using coded symbols, and revises their writing until it contains no errors. Meanwhile, the contrast group of 19 students follows the procedure of traditional process writing; that is, they write four multi-draft papers and receive detailed feedback on each draft regarding rhetoric, content, and linguistic accuracy. The results reveal that the treatment of dynamic WCF has a relatively large effect on improving the mean of accuracy scores of those students in the experimental group compared with those in the control group as shown below:

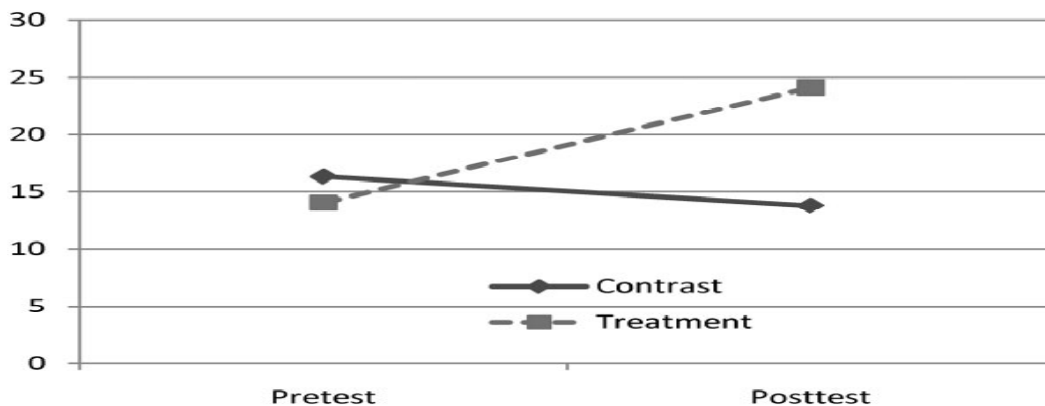


Figure 4. Illustration of effect for accuracy score (“Effects” 99)

In terms of fluency, rhetorical competence, and complexity, however, the study shows that the control group slightly outperforms the contrast group (100). Evidently, this result indicates that as students concentrate on writing more accurately, the fluency and complexity of their writing

can be hindered since they monitor their production more carefully. Nevertheless, the fact that a systematic approach to WCF can positively contribute to improving students' accuracy should not be overlooked in ESL and EFL contexts. Rather, teachers should discuss ways to complement its fluency-related shortcoming. In the later section, therefore, I will discuss strategies to facilitate students' fluency while adopting the idea of dynamic written corrective feedback.

Realistically speaking, students' linguistic accuracy is considered more important than fluency in many cases of EFL contexts, in particular, the Korean context. Students learn English to take a test for enjoying a better opportunity in their future, and the subject of English lies at the heart of this process. Accordingly, it has given rise to the *Washback* effect, which compels teachers to teach English to test in support of accuracy, paying less attention to the fluency of communication. In this respect, the dynamic WCF seems to show a pedagogical feasibility in implementing a writing class per se and improving students' linguistic accuracy even in the exam-oriented Korean context. Despite Korean educational reality, the issue of fluency, of course, should not be neglected. In the process of applying the dynamic WCF, it is essential to consider how to appropriate this writing and feedback method within the approach of critical pedagogy. In other words, what specific steps should be taken needs to be considered to help students improve their accuracy, fluency, and critical reflection simultaneously. More importantly, all of the discussion should be expanded to achieve the goals of critical pedagogy: raising students' critical awareness and empowering them to let their voices be heard through writing. In the following section, I will first identify the characteristics of the dynamic WCF and explore some appropriate ways in conjunction with critical pedagogy in the Korean classes of English.

4.2.2. The Dynamic Written Corrective Feedback (WCF)

Prior to establishing each step of the dynamic written corrective feedback (WCF), Hartshorn et al. urge teachers to initially consider three contextual variables: the learner, the situation, and the instructional methodology. The learner variables are concerned with the individual differences of students such as learning experience, style, and attitudes, motivations, linguistic proficiency, socioeconomic background, and many additional factors. Very often, these individual variables affect the learning context to a large degree (“Contextual” 449-450). Accordingly, teachers should utilize different forms of WCF in light of students’ proficiency levels; for low-level students, for instance, teachers need to provide more clear and detailed explanations and appropriate the amount of feedback so as not to frustrate them. The situational variables deal with all of the factors that can be attributable to learning such as teachers and their educational philosophy, classroom environment, learning atmosphere, or even political and economic conditions. It goes without saying that the poor physical environment can undermine students’ learning; for instance, hot classrooms, poor lightening, and distracting classmates (450). The last variables are methodological variables as to what is taught, how it is taught, and what sequences should be followed to facilitate students’ accuracy in the writing. In terms of feedback, teachers should determine what should be corrected, how it should be corrected, and how often, for students to benefit from WCF (450-451). In the Korean context, teachers need to identify effective ways for students to learn from correction so that they can improve the accuracy as well as fluency.

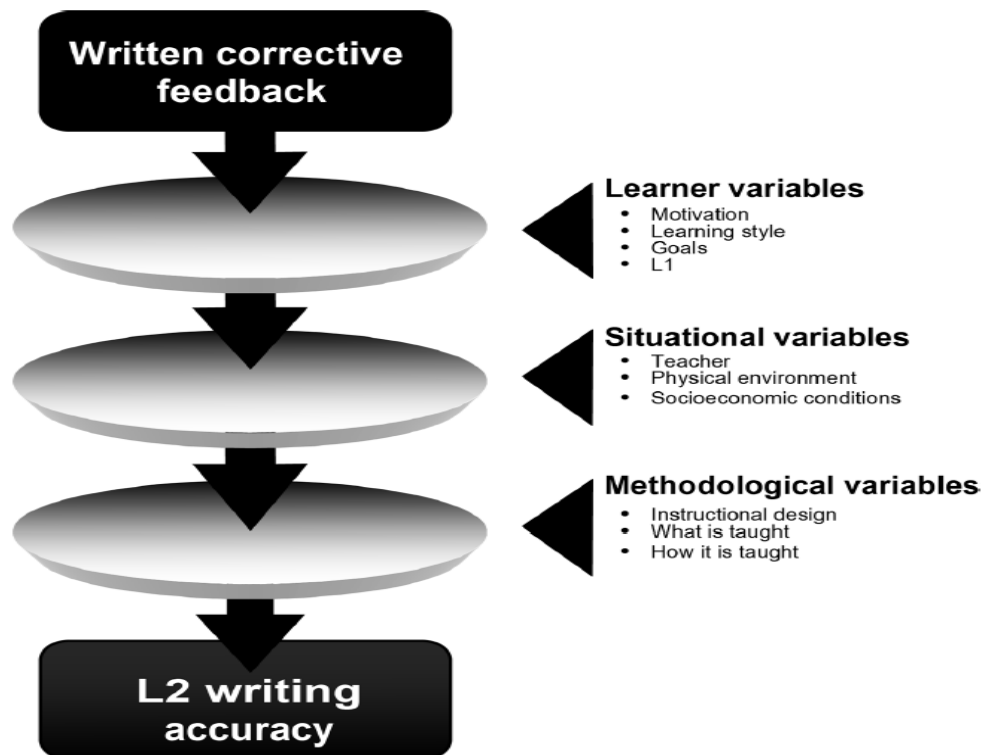


Figure 5. Contextual factors in L2 writing that impact learning and research (449)

Writing tasks and feedback give teachers an idea about on what should be focused in class. Despite Korean teachers all realizing their importance, a writing-oriented class is very challenging to implement due to the following reasons: a heavily-loaded work, linguistic incompetence, large class size, and washback. In the response to this dilemma, the dynamic WCF suggests writing tasks and feedback strategies which are manageable, meaningful, and constant for both teachers and students: *manageable* for teachers to deal with writing timely and for students to process writing and feedback efficiently; *meaningful* for teachers to identify what should be taught and for students to make positive development; *constant* for teachers to provide feedback steadily and for students to develop writing habits and recognize their most common mistakes (453).

Writing should not end up as a one-time event. In order to facilitate students' writing skills, students should be involved with composing on a regular basis, and teachers should offer feedback consistently. As mentioned above, feedback is an integral part for students' development, but it should be manageable to teachers as well. In this sense, the dynamic WCF limits the length of the student writing, rather than limiting the focus of the feedback. With shorter pieces of writing, the advocates of WCF assume that teachers can deal with all kinds of errors in students' writing without overwhelming teachers themselves and students; therefore, a 10-minute paragraph writing on a daily basis is suggested as an ideal length in the dynamic WCF.

For students to learn through errors and feedback, the dynamic WCF asks them to be responsible for correcting their own errors which are indirectly identified in the form of symbols at their location. Of course, students are taught how to interpret the coded symbols previously. Then, they keep a tally sheet of errors to raise conscious awareness about high-frequency errors and elaborate the errors with relevant information in their error log. This cumulative list is by necessity beneficial for both teachers and students in determining what should be intensively focused on to prevent the reoccurrence of the students' common errors. The following is a list of coded symbols suggested by Hartshorn et al. While adding a tally sheet of errors and sample writing timeline of Hartshorn et al in Appendix 2 and 3, I will also attach the adapted versions of a table of coded symbols and tally sheet of errors in accordance with my students' linguistic skills to Appendix 4 and 5 respectively.




<i>D</i>	= Determiner	<i>S/PL</i>	= Singular/Plural
<i>SV</i>	= Subject Verb Agreement	<i>C/NC</i>	= Count/Noncount
<i>VF</i>	= Verb Form	<i>?</i>	= Meaning is not clear
<i>ro</i>	= Run-on Sentence	<i>AWK</i>	= Awkward Wording
<i>inc</i>	= Incomplete Sentence		= Word Order
<i>VT</i>	= Verb Tense	<i>C</i>	= Capitalization
<i>PP</i>	= Preposition	<i>P</i>	= Punctuation
<i>SPG</i>	= Spelling		= Omit
<i>WF</i>	= Word Form		= Something is missing
<i>WC</i>	= Word Choice	<i>§</i>	= New Paragraph

Figure 6. Indirect coded symbols (“Effects” 107)

In preparation for the writing exercises, the dynamic WCF delivers lessons of the basics for good paragraph writing during the first few sessions; i.e., how to develop a cohesive paragraph consisting of one main topic, and its supporting ideas. Then, students are asked to write a paragraph for 10 minutes on a regular basis and revise it until their writing becomes error-free. The following is a description of the six-step error-correction process of the dynamic WCF.

Step 1: Students write a 10-minute paragraph as linguistically accurate as possible.

Step 2: The teacher marks papers for lexical and syntactic accuracy using coded symbols and returns the papers by the next class period.

Step 3: After checking the errors in a tally sheet by type and keeping them in their error logs, students edit and resubmit the paragraph to the teacher for the second review.

Step 4: The teacher marks the second draft of the paragraph for accuracy indicating errors with a check mark, a circle, or an underline. If necessary, the teacher asks

students to edit their draft again.

Steps 5 and 6: The final two steps are repeats of steps 3 and 4 until students have an error-free paragraph (“Contextual” 456).

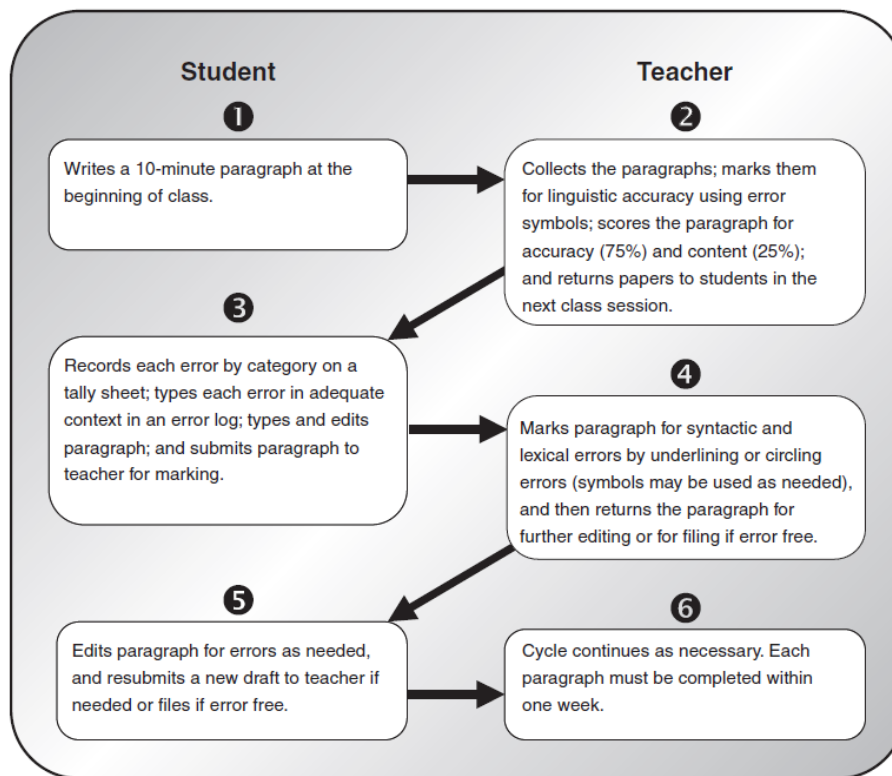


Figure 7. Overview of error-correction strategy (454)

4.2.3. Adapting the Dynamic WCF to Co-teaching within critical pedagogy

Although the dynamic WCF shortens the length of writing in a paragraph, it is still challenging for teachers to deal with in the Korean context; teachers still need to provide feedback to a great number of students. To apply this method, therefore, adaption is needed in light of the Korean educational situation. I will suggest the adapted version of the dynamic WCF

based on the approach of critical pedagogy and explore its pedagogical feasibility in co-teaching situations.

Above all, the strongest strength of co-teaching in a writing class is that the heavy burden of feedback can be substantially reduced. From the local teachers' perspective, they can provide more accurate and authentic feedback to students by consulting native speakers; therefore, the insecurity of linguistic competence can be decreased. From the native English teachers' perspective, they can better understand students' linguistic abilities, interests, and thoughts and Korean culture through reading students' writing. From the students' perspective, not only can students gain more intensive attention during class periods, but they can also obtain diverse feedback from native speakers and non-native speakers; for example, dividing a class into two groups A and B, the local English teacher (LET) first provides feedback for the first draft of group A and then for the second draft of group B.

As a way of supporting and motivating low-proficiency students, two teachers can take turns providing extra assistance after school. In addition, pair writing and classwide peer-mediated instruction can be introduced for those who have a hard time in English writing. That is, two students jointly develop their writing in support of a peer mentor who has a good command of English in the same classroom. To examine the effects of classwide peer tutoring, Xu et al. study two second-grade classrooms, and one class consists of fourteen English language learners while the other consists of fourteen native English speakers. The results show that classwide peer tutoring significantly contributes to increasing cooperative social interaction behavior of both groups. Despite their limited English proficiency, non-native English students appear to benefit from the reciprocal tutor-tutee pair interaction and consequently improve their English abilities

(83). In the class of critical pedagogy, students' reciprocal cooperation is essential. Rather than considering each other as competitors, students can view their fellow classmates as partners.

With regard to providing feedback, individual learner differences should be essentially considered; therefore, errors should be differently dealt with depending on students' linguistic levels. While correcting some students' errors with thorough explanations by adding reference book pages, teachers can give some students written corrective feedback using coded symbols in order to stimulate their self-correction based on metacognitive knowledge. For improving fluency and complexity in writing, teachers should also comment on the content and organization of students' writing. In addition to teacher-initiated feedback, self-revision and peer or group revision can be utilized in both English and Korean, referencing the provided guidelines. Those strategies, in particular, peer response, allow students to receive more feedback on their papers and practice multiple skills important in the development of language through meaningful interactions with peers. In his study with Japanese university students aimed at identifying the strengths of both the self-revision and peer revision, Suzuki finds the advantages of verbalization such as think-aloud protocol in the process of self-revision. During the peer revision, he claims that students tend to engage in more metatalk through a dialectic verbal interaction than they do during self-revisions. In this sense, he suggests the optimal order of the two revisions in writing class; that is, peer revision could be first implemented, and then self-revisions could be followed for improving the accuracy and fluency of their writing (226-227).

As for peer revision, Lundstrom and Baker conduct a study with L2 learners to determine which is more beneficial, giving or receiving peer feedback for improving L2 writing skills. In their study, the givers only review anonymous peers' papers while the receivers only

get feedback from peers. Interestingly, the givers show more significant gains in their own writing than do the receivers, and the givers at the lower proficiency level appear to progress more than those at higher proficiency levels. Based on the findings of this study, Lundstrom and Baker conclude that when students actively apply what they learn in reviewing peer texts, they are likely to self-evaluate their own writing more critically; accordingly, they become more autonomous and better writers (35-38). To be effective feedback providers, Min stresses the necessity of training students with clear-cut guidelines consisting of a four-step procedure as follows: “clarifying writers’ intentions; identifying the source of problems; explaining the nature of problems; and making specific suggestions” (293). In her EFL classroom-based study on peer review training, Min finds that extensive training helps students to build up metacognitive skills and strategies and subsequently to improve their confidence regarding giving peer feedback. As a result, it enables students to become more capable of providing specific and relevant peer feedback (306).

In adapting the ideas of the self-revision and peer or group revision in the Korean middle school context, teachers should create simple and specific guidelines in light of students’ abilities. Below is a sample guideline for self and peer revision:

- 1) Does each paragraph have a topic sentence?
- 2) Is a topic sentence supported by relevant ideas?
- 3) Write the main idea(s) of your peer’s writing
- 4) Check for subject and verb agreement
- 5) Check for verb tenses
- 6) Check for word forms and word choice

In addition, what students have learned during the previous lessons can be included in the guidelines. For example, after learning personal relative pronouns such as *who* and *whom*, students can be asked to make at least two sentences using them in their writing. Then, this grammatical feature should be included in the guidelines for self and peer revision. For maximizing the peer or group revision, teachers can give a checklist sheet and distribute three or four sheets to each student. After writing the names of the writer and editors at the top of the paper, students fill in the checklist sheets after reading peer texts and return them to each writer. This activity can be conducted in pairs or groups; in a group, students can get more ideas from peers than in pair work. Not only does this checklist urge students to take responsibility in reviewing peer works, but also ensures teachers that students are participating in the session of peer revision.

As the result of the dynamic WCF shows, its extreme accuracy-orientation appears not to stimulate the fluency and complexity of writing. In overcoming this weakness, teachers can teach a topic for two or three class periods. Ten minutes before finishing the first period, students write the first draft with a paragraph and receive feedback within two days. After self-revising and keeping a tally sheet and log at home, students develop their first draft by adding one more paragraph based on vocabulary and grammar lessons that they have learned during the second period. Again, their second draft will be returned within two days, and students are asked to do the self-revision, following a checklist as homework. After group-based peer revision during the third period, not only accuracy, but also fluency and complexity of the texts can surely be improved. In the dynamic WCF, students are supposed to revise until they produce error-free texts. However, the goal of error-free should be changed to error-reduced in the Korean context.

As a matter of fact, students' trials of writing and of tackling errors are a very meaningful task per se. If accuracy is extensively emphasized, students' motivation might be decreased. Also, this obsession with accuracy fails to correspond to the goals of critical pedagogy. Adhering to the accuracy, students will become unwilling to make mistakes and consequently, reluctant to take risk to express what they want to say in their writings. Of course, accuracy should not be degraded in the Korean context, but it should not act as a hindrance which restricts the expression of students' voices toward the world. As mentioned previously, all of the teaching methods should be reconceptualized in light of local contexts. In this view of critical pedagogy, I suggest the following as the adapted procedures of the dynamic WCF in the Korean context and also attach the visual table as below:

Stage 1: Group presentation

Based on a group topic that they have chosen, students are first asked to do research in order to collect relevant information for the ten-minute presentation. The form of the presentation is not predetermined. Instead, students can employ a variety of forms such as skits, TV talk shows, court scenes, and even formal presentations. If necessary, they can use Powerpoint, but it does not affect the grade of the group presentations. During the presentations, students are only allowed to use English since they have enough time to prepare for them. The two teachers will add more explanations regarding words, expressions, and content after the presentations. Under the condition of students' group agreement, moreover, their presentations will be recorded and uploaded on the school homepage. This is not only to promote the participation of the students, but also to inform their parents about what their children learn in an

English class at school.

Stage 2: Discussion

One or two students from the presenting group will be assigned to each group as an expert leader for the section of group discussion as to the topic of the presentation. The experts will lead the discussion and provide information based on their previous research. They also write down the discussion content in order to share with the whole class. During the discussion, Korean is limitedly allowed to the word level to prevent Korean-dominated group discussions. That is to say, students keep the sentence structure of English while replacing unlearned or forgotten English words into Korean; for instance, *I am going to 학교(school)*. In critical pedagogy, improving students' linguistic skills is viewed as important as that of their critical awareness about problematic social issues. Without reaching the appropriate level of English, students will be continuously marginalized. Hence, the two teachers pay careful attention to students' discussion in order for them to utilize English if possible. In case the teachers hear some Korean expressions, they can jot them down and ask students to translate them into English in a group or as a whole class.

Stage 3: Writing

Over the course of three weeks, students are given ten minutes to write and rewrite their drafts relating to the topic of the group presentation. For the first draft, students are asked to write a paragraph using Korean and English simultaneously. Within two days, the two teachers return students' writing with feedback and ask students to self-edit or revise their text as

homework, prior to the second period. For the second draft, students develop their revised first draft by adding one more paragraph based on the new words and grammatical points that they have studied during the second period. Again, students are supposed to self-edit or revise their second draft considering provided feedback before the third period. During the last period, students sit in a circle and conduct group or peer editing following a provided checklist, in order to create the more accurate third draft. When the final feedback is given, students rewrite the last draft and upload it to a school homepage in a school computer room where fifty computers are placed. Then, the teachers publish monthly newspapers with students' works. In addition, the teachers distribute the student-produced English newspapers in and outside of school. In an effort to encourage low level students, a pair-writing system is employed in this lesson; that is, two students co-write with the assistance of one mentor student who has a good command of English. In addition, the two teachers take turns for an extra self-study class after school for thirty minutes, for the purpose of assisting students who cannot get help at home or at private institutes.

Stage 4: Reading

The two teachers cooperate in creating reading materials by adapting students' first drafts. In the process, the local English teacher (LET) can focus on collecting data while the native-English-speaking teacher (NEST) organizes them in paragraphs. Considering students' level and what they have learned, the LET and NEST co-develop the materials, including appropriate grammatical points. According to students' English levels, the two teachers co-create three kinds of reading materials based on one topic. Also, they conduct different teaching techniques for each level. In the classroom, therefore, three groups of students circulate to each

teacher's station. In this session, while the LET takes responsibility for the grammar lessons, the NEST teaches the reading through skimming, scanning, close reading, and discussion. The procedure of the grammar lessons will be illustrated in the grammar section below.

Stage 5: Grammar

As described in the section of reading, the LET is responsible for the grammar learning station. According to the students' levels, three kinds of grammar materials can be presented; advanced, intermediate, and basic. In creating teaching materials, it is necessary for the LET to encompass the grammatical points in the school textbooks and the errors from the students' writing. Inasmuch as a small group of students with similar levels gather to study at the same station, the LET should also consider appropriate teaching strategies corresponding to their linguistic levels.

Along with the students' level, the complexity of grammar features should be considered in creating tasks. For the case of grammatical features which are easy for students to understand, but difficult for them to utter, the LET can explain them explicitly first and lead students to engage in communicative tasks to practice what they have just learned. For instance, after explaining the simple rule of the third person singular and verb agreement, students implement a great deal of practice. For the case of grammatical forms which are complex for students to understand, the LET can provide examples at a sentence or discourse level and ask students to discover a certain rule using metalinguistic knowledge. Then, communicative activities can be followed to anchor the rule. For example, students tend to experience difficulty in learning passive voice because such a rule does not exist in Korean. Therefore, after many kinds of input

enhancements, students can engage in rule-discovery tasks. For better understanding of the rule, the LET can ask students to create the name of the rule by activating their metalinguistic knowledge. For the sake of longer retention of the rule, a chant can be utilized at the final stage.

In this process of the grammar lessons, all of the examples should be closely related to the topic in which students are currently engaged and also students' lives and interests. Say, students are discussing the topic of students' rights at school. In the lesson of passive voice, then, such examples can be employed: students' rights *are not highly valued* in the Korean school system; students *are not allowed* to let their hair grow at school; students' voices *are limited and restricted* at school. By doing so, not only can students understand the rule of passive voice better, they can also have more a critical eye toward their rights as subjects at school. This critical reflection can finally empower students to talk back against authorities. The following is the visual representation of the class procedures that I have created previously:

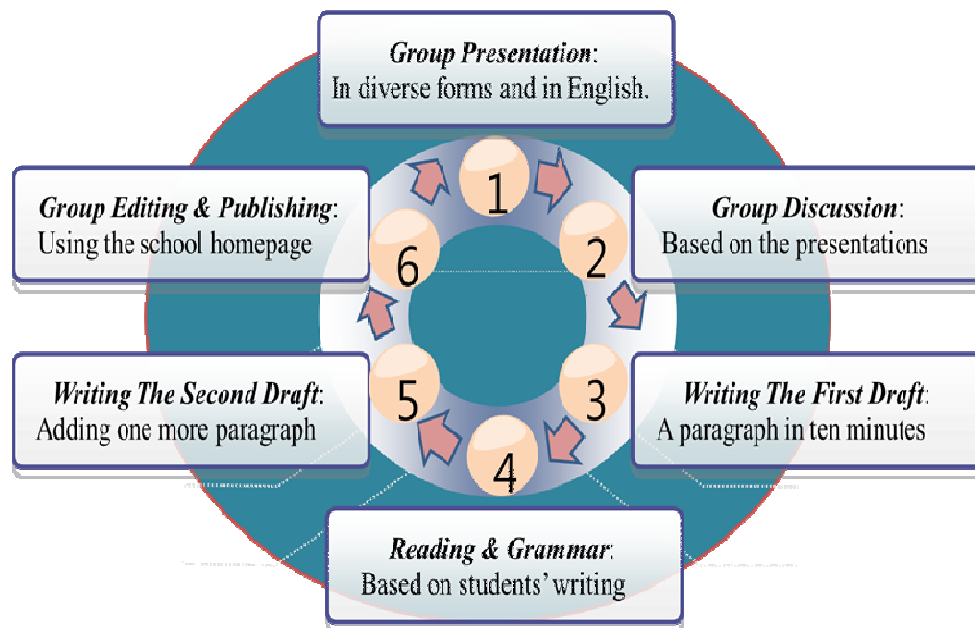


Figure 8. The procedure of three class periods

From the perspective of critical pedagogy (CP), reading and writing are essentially taught in class; it is reading that enables students to have critical awareness about social problems, and it is writing that enables students to express and resist what they have realized through reading. In the L2 class, when students read, discuss, and write about their issues in English, they realize the fundamental objective of learning another language; for letting their voice be heard by expressing themselves. In creating the lesson procedures above, such an issue of the empowerment has been substantially concentrated on in the Korean middle school context. By doing so, students' learning motivation can be gradually enhanced, and their English competence can be accordingly facilitated as well. Above all, students can be academically empowered to reach their goals although the CP-based lessons are not directly exam-focused. In this sense, CP seems to be the most effective alternative which can go beyond the washback in Korea.

4.3. Co-Assessment within CP: Focusing on Dynamic Assessment (DA)

Basically, there are two kinds of classroom teacher-based assessment in the Korean middle school context; the first one is a pencil and paper test with multiple choice questions twice in each semester, and another test is a students' performance-based test throughout the whole semester. In terms of the latter test, teachers can come up with many sub types of performance tests such as classroom manners, group collaboration, writing log, and reading log. As for the pencil and paper test, the two teachers should avoid focusing on the textbooks only. Rather, all kinds of materials that students have studied should be included in the test. Not only does this strategy draw students' intensive attention to every lesson, but it also gives more or less

an equal opportunity to students who do not attend private institutes after school since these facilities are unlikely to deal with classroom-produced materials.

In terms of the performance test, the two teachers should first discuss the sub types of the test with the other LETs at school. Then, the specific rubrics of each assessment should be co-determined by the negotiation of the teachers and students at the first period of the course. CP rejects a one-size-all-fit product-based test. Instead, it encourages teachers to assess students in many ways throughout the course such as self-evaluation, peer evaluation, and teachers' evaluation (Shor 143-144). Based on the co-teaching procedure suggested previously, I will illustrate the techniques of self-group evaluation, peer evaluation, and teacher evaluation for the group presentation and self-evaluation and teacher evaluation for the writing task. For the grammar test, I will employ dynamic assessment which is based on Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD). In this section, I will identify the sub types of performance test that I am going to utilize for evaluating students' achievement.

Group presentation

The group presentation will be evaluated by a presenter, three students and the two teachers given the rubric which will be created at the first day of the lesson. Presumably, the rubric may contain the aspects such as group cooperation and harmony, individual participation, the depth of research, and the efforts to speak English. After the class period, the two teachers are going to ask four students from each group to evaluate their peers' presentation when the rest of students have gone back to their classroom. Among four student evaluators, one is from the presenter group for group self-evaluation. The two teachers also participate in the process of

evaluation. The result of evaluation will be reflected on the section of group collaboration in the performance assessment.

Error and writing logs

Throughout the semester, students are going to keep two kinds of logs: error log and writing log. At the very first page of their error log, students put the table of coded symbols for feedback and the tally sheet for error check-up. Then, they write down the explanation of the errors that they have made in their writing. Moreover, they also keep the metalinguistic analysis of the grammatical points after taking dynamic assessment which I will explain in the grammar assessment section. The grammar-related handouts will be organized in this log. As for the writing log, students are asked to possess this log to keep the track of their history of writing. Along with keeping their writing in this log, students are asked to write new words and expressions, and glue reading materials on it. These two logs are evaluated by the two teachers based on the organization, time punctuation, and constancy.

Writing

Writing will be assessed through the student self-evaluation and the two teachers' evaluation based on the rubric which will be co-created by the negotiation of teachers and students. Considering the fact that writing is the most challenging skill to acquire, I will focus on the efforts of students in writing such as whether students have self-edited or revised the first, second and third drafts in light of teacher's feedback and whether they have submitted their writing in a given time. Again, the aim of the writing task is for students to get involved with

English writing. Therefore, I will try not to be hard on the evaluation of students' writing.

Grammar: based on Dynamic Assessment

Dynamic Assessment (DA) is an innovative approach to assessment and teaching derived from the ZPD, which represents an insight of future development in comparison with what a child can do independently now and what the child can do by mediation of a teacher or peers in the future (Poehner 471). Accordingly, DA examines the processes rather than the products of learning. From the perspective that students' learning potential can arise during the assessment session, DA considers that mediation or intervention assistance is a crucial part of the assessment process. The main three procedures of DA are pre-test, mid-test, and post-test (Kozulin and Garb 119-120).

Stage 1. The pre-test.

An ordinary standardized test is given to students in this phase. On the test, teacher should specify three phases of the assessment to students in L1 or English so that students are able to understand the purpose of the pre-test. After distributing pre-test papers to students, the teacher should go through an example on page 1 with the students, and explain how to mark the clues. The example should be clearly described in order for students to utilize an appropriate strategy. During the course of the test, students are not allowed to ask any questions to the teacher. The teacher advises students to do whatever is easiest for them first, and then attack more challenging questions if they have additional time. The pre-test should be marked immediately, and the mediation delivered at the following lesson.

Stage 2. The Mediation.

The students are handed back their pre-test papers, with no scores recorded and correct answers indicated. The teacher proceeds to mediate each section with the students, asking a series of questions designed to apply proper strategies based on pre-existent knowledge in order to find correct answers. In a nutshell, the mediation can be divided into two categories: knowledge and strategies. The knowledge refers to the essential information to solve the test. Students may not have the required knowledge or they may have it, but not know how to utilize it. The mediation, therefore centers on activating students' schemata. The strategies inform students to elicit the best strategies for each item.

In this phase, the teacher also distributes a sheet of content information to the students, and briefly discusses it. In consideration of a big class size in an EFL context, group discussion can be recommended. The students in groups discuss each item while applying certain strategies: look for a clue, elimination, and comparison. The students are asked to write down their analysis of each item according to the three strategies. In this stage, the teacher is less of an instructor, more of a facilitator or guide. After the mediation, the teacher should make sure to collect all the pre-tests except for the sheet of content information. The students are only allowed to take the information paper in order to prepare for the post-test, which should be implemented at the next lesson.

Stage 3. The Post-test.

The post-test is identical to the pre-test in terms of test arrangement, grammar structure, required information and strategies, length, and level of difficulty, but with different content. For instance, an item on the pre-test asks 'If I *have* a pencil', then, the question changes to 'If he *has*

a pencil' on the post-test. After the post-test, the teacher should hand back both the pre-test and post-test to the students in order for them to assess their own improvement. As a result, DA triggers inter-individual self-competition, rather than intra-individual competition. A sample set of the DA is in Appendix 6.

Indeed, the norm-referenced dimension of the standardized test has driven Korean students into competition since a student's academic achievement is determined in relation to other students'; such an one-time assessment demonstrates lack of interaction not only among students themselves, but also between students and teachers, with only a focus on products by standardization. Given the reality of school English assessments in the Korean middle schools, however, ideal alternative assessments leave teachers with applicability in classrooms: a large class size, time-consuming to formulate and evaluate both, reliability issue, and so forth. The development-referenced DA tends to maximize each student's potential through learning and assessing process; therefore, the result of DA can be used for the development of individual learning plans for students with different learning needs. According to the test results, teachers can provide students with different materials for independent study. DA mainly aims at teaching students 'how to learn', which empowers them to study independently. Consequently, it can be expected that students' autonomy and responsibility of learning can be substantially enhanced.

Such a consequence is what critical pedagogy is fundamentally pursuing; that is, empowering students to become independent, autonomous, and responsible agents. As facilitators and guides, teachers should help students to reach their capacities to the maximum, through the critical reflective dialogical approach to deal with posed problems in English. In this section above, I have focused on more specific methods to implement critical pedagogy in

Korean English class. Now that there is no specific teaching method or technique for the actualization of critical pedagogy in classroom practices, I have made strenuous efforts to appropriate or contextualize popular methods in the Korean contexts. In the following section, I will demonstrate the pedagogical feasibility of such contextualized methods by presenting concrete and practical lesson plans in light of critical pedagogy in the Korean public middle school context. First of all, I will explain the necessity of critical pedagogy in Korean English class and then, describe the distinctive features of the classes at which I am targeting. Finally, I will present two kinds of lesson plans: solo-teaching based on the government-produced syllabus; co-teaching based on the emergent syllabus via the negotiation between students and teachers.

Practical Application of Critical Pedagogy: Lesson Plans

Introduction

In many cases in Korea, English is the subject which exposes the widest proficiency gap among students. For example, some are capable of reading highly academic texts, whereas some cannot read even a simple sentence. Of course, one of the reasons for this academic gap is due to personal factors such as intelligence or self-efforts, but fundamentally, the difference is derived from parents' socioeconomic background, which hinders some students from having an equal opportunity in a race in the first place. The students who are from the high classes appear to have attended prestigious English language institutes or studied abroad during each vacation in order to improve their English abilities. Meanwhile, some students have never learned English outside of public schools since their parents cannot afford those expensive extra-curricular activities.

In redressing such a huge gap of linguistic proficiency, in other words, for students with low proficiency to keep up with other classmates in English, the public school system seemingly reveals limitations concerning the large class size, diverse proficiency levels, insufficient class time, and standardized textbooks which fail to take into account students' interest and reality. Nevertheless, we as teachers must not give up challenging a dramatic paradigm shift for liberalized English education, which will by necessity reorient the ways in which English is taught and conceptualized for the sake of students. If we want to democratize our classes, we first have to democratize our teaching. If we want to democratize our teaching, I believe we have to study and research in pursuit of the empowerment of students in class. I also believe that this empowerment becomes possible when we make the most critical use of the system and stand up for justice in a society in which our students are going to breathe in. These are the ways to

empower students with a hope for a better future. Through my study, I find the possibility for change from the approach of critical pedagogy.

The purpose of education in critical pedagogy (CP) is to enhance students' critical thinking by situating them in their real lives and presenting their situation as a problem so that they can recognize, reflect, and act on it for change (Freire, *Oppressed* 90). In school systems, the approach of CP can be applied in two ways: a weak version of CP which urges teachers to deconstruct pre-existing textbooks critically; a strong version of CP which prompts teachers to co-create a new syllabus with students. In case of the former weak version, teachers help students to approach the textbooks via critical lens and analyze them in search for the hidden meanings of the texts. Kumaravadivelu's Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis, which is illustrated in the first part of this paper, is a good guideline to inform teachers of how to utilize CP in class to deal with a given curriculum. The second strong version is more radical. Rather than teaching or learning based on a predetermined curriculum of textbooks, teachers and students participate in co-developing a syllabus for their course through negotiation. Based on the themes of students' local situations and interests, the learning materials are coproduced by an interactive dialogue or discussion of teachers and students. Basically, students get involved in making every pedagogical decision in the course. Such a drastic change of syllabus design entails an alteration not only in selecting teaching methods and learning materials, but also in assessing students' academic achievement.

In the Korean public school system, teachers are required to complete government-produced school textbooks within approximately 9 months. Given insufficient time in regular English classes, it goes without saying that English teachers tend to put substantial priority only

on the textbooks. Presumably, the strong version of CP seems to be a utopian approach which shows less pedagogical feasibility for regular English classes in the Korean public schools. However, I find its strong applicability in a co-teaching situation with local English teachers (LET) and native-English-speaking teachers (NEST). With respect to co-teaching lessons with a NEST, LETs appear to conduct lessons beyond the textbooks due to the government's demand for speaking-oriented lessons; in turn, most LETs ask NESTs alone to create or prepare for teaching materials with a focus on speaking skills. This phenomenon has caused a great many of problems. Since NESTs are unfamiliar with Korean students and the local context, some materials are decontextualized or sometimes full of game-like activities, and subsequently fail to motivate students or give them a sense of learning English. As a matter of fact, a high ratio of students regards co-teaching lessons as play time. When the LET leaves the classroom, the problem gets worse.

Obviously, the irresponsible LETs should be blamed in this case. However, the government cannot be innocent of this problematic issue since it did not leave LETs any choice regarding co-teaching. Instead, it forced LETs to co-teach with NESTs without presenting appropriate instructions or guidelines. As a co-taught class has revealed many serious problems such as classroom management and teaching materials, the government has asked the educational offices of local districts to educate English teachers through a co-teaching open class or conference. However, those one-time trials are not enough to improve the quality of a co-taught class because they fail to discuss the fundamental questions in that issue; that is, what to co-teach and how to co-teach.

In order to maximize students' communicative competence, in particular, oral skills, first

of all students need to be motivated to talk in class, regardless of mistakes or errors. In other words, such mistakes or errors should not hinder students from partaking in conversation actively. Through my English class, I have found that even introverted students talk when they are talking about what they really want to talk about. No matter how many or what kinds of mistakes they make, they take risk to express their thoughts. Sometimes, they do a code-switch from Korean to English in sentences when they cannot think of any English counterparts. This is why I suggest the necessity of critical pedagogy in Korea. CP encourages students to talk about their issues and concerns rather than predetermined topics. Instead of talking about currently irrelevant subjects like traveling other countries, students discuss the pros and cons of school uniforms, school regulations, and examination systems. In a co-teaching situation, not only can two teachers better listen to students, but they can also respond to them more effectively in a small group. Furthermore, both local and native-English speaking teachers can better understand students' thoughts and their linguistic skills.

In this section, I will present two kinds of lesson plans by utilizing the approach of critical pedagogy (CP). While employing the weak version of CP in my solo English lessons for the 7th grade, I will adopt the strong version of CP in co-teaching lessons for the 9th grade. First, I will provide an in-depth description of class students' English proficiency and attitude, classroom environment, and optimal learning models. Then, I will articulate how to employ each version of critical pedagogy in class. In the case of lessons by myself, I will present two lesson plans which critically approach the school textbooks. In the case of co-teaching lessons, I will also create two lesson plans based on one of the most controversial local issues in Korea, each of which will be demonstrated by Powerpoint (PPT).

1. Class Description

Each class is composed of approximately 35 female students in Masan Public Girls' Middle School, which is located in a less privileged district in South Korea. Due to their parents' economic difficulty, most of the students have never been involved in high-profile private English institutes as an extra-curricular activity after school. Accordingly, this situation entails multi-leveled English proficiency in a single classroom; some of the students continue to show rather low English proficiency compared to some of their classmates as well as students in other districts or provinces. Needless to say, students are unlikely to show high motivation toward learning English.

In this regard, the Korean government has increased the number of NESTs and placed them in every elementary and middle school in 2010 for the purpose of facilitating students' communicative competence, in particular, speaking skill. In addition, the government has established another scheme called *The Project of Professional English Conversational Instructors* (영어회화전문강사제도) since 2009. By placing one or two temporary English instructors into each public school, the government demands schools implement tracking classes considering students' linguistic skills. For example, three classes are combined and divided into four classes in accordance with students' proficiency levels; such as one advanced-level class, two intermediate-level classes and one low-level class. Contrary to its purpose, however, the tracking system tends to be less contributive to promoting lower level students' English abilities. Now that level-based classes obviously show their linguistic deficiency, they become more self-conscious and unmotivated in learning English. Additionally, the tracking deprives students' opportunity from peer-assistant learning, consequently, driving the atmosphere of education to be

more competitive than collaborative. Rather than separating students based on their levels, therefore, I will divide a big class into two to downsize the number of students by half; that is, each class is composed of 17 students whose proficiency levels are appropriately mixed. Therefore, each of my target classes is made up of 17 students, and I will solo-teach the 7th grade based on the school textbooks three times a week while the NEST and I will co-develop the syllabus of the course with students and co-teach the 9th grade based on student-produced materials once a week. In addition, forty-five minutes is allotted for each period.

As I believe, the quality of teaching and learning is extensively different according to whether the classroom is characterized by trust and support or by a competitive atmosphere. I also believe that the cooperation among classmates beyond competition has a significant effect on successful learning. In addition to the smaller class size, I will adopt pair- or group-oriented tasks in which students can support and complement one another in an effort to deal with the substantial differences in English. The close interaction via small groups also allows teachers to notice students' Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which represents an insight of future development in comparison with what a student can do independently now and what the student can do by mediation of a teacher or peers in the future (Vygotsky 85). Consequently, the teachers can provide appropriate scaffolding for students' self-improvement. Through active discussion with group members, group work enables students to achieve higher levels of thought and become more critical thinkers while retaining new knowledge lasting longer than doing individual work. In a group-oriented class, however, it is common for teachers to observe that some groups seem to be by far more motivated while some are not. Sometimes, those passive groups serve as a negative factor which determines the whole classroom atmosphere. No matter

how enthusiastically teachers attempt to encourage them, students' indifference toward the class is not simply changeable. Considering the correlation with group work and individual motivation, in creating groups ahead of the class, I will take into account the fact that a good learner group can have a positive effect on reinforcing the self-efficacy and autonomy of students.

As for the group formation, I essentially consider three factors: group cohesiveness, group norms, and individual proficiency capability. Group cohesiveness refers to the possibility of each member's cooperation for group activities while group norms concern the extent to which each member is going to be supportive for the rules of class behavior; for instance, when some students are in the same group, whether they are going to be contributive or obstructive for the stream of whole lessons. Given individual student's proficiency and personality for class participation, each of the four groups consists of one advanced level student, two intermediate level students, and one or two low level students. Suffice it to say, a highly cohesive group with positive attitudes to group norms has a significant impact on a learner's motivation in L2 learning. As a warm-up activity, therefore, I will make an effort to give vital support for creating a cohesive learning environment; for example, I will encourage students to make their own group names, cheering signs, and even group rules as ways for providing a chance for members of a group to get to know each other better. In addition, I will also ask each member in a group to take responsibility in the roles of group keeper, group helper, and group captain. The group keeper is responsible for maintaining members' attention on studying, the group helper for assisting learning and the group captain for ensuring members' homework and research projects. Since students have been involved with this learning environment, I assume that students are very comfortable in working collaboratively.

As for the physical classroom, students are going to study in a state-of-the-art English room which was reconstructed by combining two classrooms in 2008, as a part of the incumbent government English education policies. This classroom called *All Star*, is equipped with an electronic board, 3D virtual studio for role plays or skits, eleven computers, and a karaoke machine for pop song lessons. It also has a wide movie screen, twelve CD players for listening while reading a book, and a good collection of English books and DVDs. Above all, the table arrangement in the class is optimal for group-based lessons; therefore, students no longer need to bother in rearranging their desks. In addition, the wide classroom and its reclusive location allow teachers to experiment with many kinds of activities without having to consider the next classroom. To give a clear picture, several photos of the English room are added in Appendix 11.

2. Two Teaching Models based on CP

2.1. Solo-teaching by a Local English Teacher: the 7th grade

Within the scope of critical pedagogy (CP), of primary importance is for critical teachers to teach English with critical attitude. With a more critical eye, therefore, I will probe both knowledge and English language in Korean school textbooks and to teach them in light of students' interests and lives. More specifically, not only will I analyze the contents of the books to show some hidden facts in them, but I will also introduce a variety of Englishes from American to Indian. In terms of teaching methods, I will attempt to adapt many kinds of techniques or methods in consideration of my class situations. As CP suggests, I will basically pose some problems in the texts and discuss them with students in a dialogical mode. Also, I will ask students to conduct research and group presentation, to read extra materials, and to write

their own opinions based on what they have learned in class. As mentioned previously, CP leaves teachers to decide each specific technique in class. Accordingly, I will incorporate CP into the techniques of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) such as role play and group task.

As for grammar lessons, I will promote students to activate their metalinguistic knowledge and find a grammatical rule in a group. To clarify the usage of grammar, I will allow students to speak both English and Korean. I will also present examples of a grammatical rule which are closely related to students' real lives and interests. In this predetermined text-based class, I will essentially concentrate on empowering students to deconstruct the textbooks to identify the hidden agendas within them and understand the true meaning of English as an international language in EFL milieu.

2.2. Co-teaching between Local and Native-English-Speaking Teachers: the 9th grade

This course will be co-developed by the negotiation of students and the two teachers throughout the entire periods of a year. For making the most of student-generated materials, the NEST and I will cooperate in opting for generic topics, creating reading materials, giving feedback to students' writing, and appropriate teaching techniques in association with co-teaching models. In this section, therefore, I will first elaborate diverse co-teaching models through the process of three class periods. Additionally, I will refer to the NEST as a man since my current co-teacher in Korea is a male from England. We have co-taught for approximately one year.

2.2.1. Syllabus Design

In critical pedagogy (CP), a curriculum or syllabus should be situated within the reality of students' lives to pose their problems in a dialogical method. Unlike other approaches, where teachers create both the content and structure of the syllabus, CP suggests teachers to co-develop the syllabus with students throughout the whole period of a course. By inserting themselves as subjects into learning, students become more motivated into and responsible for their class. More importantly, a classroom should be interconnected to a wider society. In other words, what students have discussed and thought right in class should be expanded to a community for a fundamental change. As a participatory pedagogy, CP resonates that critical reflection should entail critical practice or action to envision a different world.

For the purpose of developing a syllabus based on CP, I will make reference to the case study of Brito et al. who taught Cape Verdean language to native Cape Verdean children in Boston. Cape Verdean is an archipelago off the west coast of Africa. Since students study only in Portuguese, a former colonizer's language in Cape Verdean, parents do not pay attention to teaching their children the local language. In particular, the Cape Verdean immigrants in the United States are reluctant for their children to learn the local vernacular. Given the endangerment of the indigenous language, Brito et al. start the course of Cape Verdean language and culture for children in Boston. In light of the approach of CP, Brito et al. co-construct and co-develop an emergent syllabus through a process of negotiation with teacher, students, and families during the whole period of the course. The followings are eight principles that they consider as essential in creating their CP-based course syllabus:

- 1) Make students' knowledge, attitudes, and experiences the starting point.
- 2) Involve students in pedagogical decisions and make the emergent curriculum process explicit
- 3) Draw in families' perspectives and build support for the curriculum at home
- 4) Invite students to become researchers of language use
- 5) Connect the community outside the classroom with learning inside the classroom
- 6) Value students' skills, knowledge, and cultural expertise
- 7) Promote metacognitive awareness as a means of fostering control over learning
- 8) Infuse all work with critical analysis (189-194)

Taking the principles of CP above into consideration, a syllabus of co-teaching should be cooperatively developed by teachers and students as an ongoing project throughout the period of the course. At the stage of pre-designing before the course, the teachers should discuss an outline of the syllabus, generic topics, classroom procedure, class format, student placement, and assessment procedure and types in consideration of the previous classes, students and their proficiency level, and classroom environment.

At the first day of lesson, the two teachers should explain the objectives of the course and class procedure in class. Given the importance of students' collaboration and diversity of their levels, group work basis is more recommendable in co-teaching situation. Therefore, the two teachers and students should also discuss how to divide groups of four and how often groups will be changed. Also, the two teachers should present and clearly identify types of assessment in the course. In CP, one-time assessment is not enough to evaluate students' development; therefore, many types of performance-based assessment should be considered such as self-

assessment, peer assessment, and teacher assessment. After presenting sub types of assessment, the two teachers and students should discuss a rubric of each assessment. Based on what criteria, for example, students' writing should be evaluated. In the Korean middle school context, students are also required to take a pencil and paper assessment with multiple choice questions twice a semester; that is, a mid-term test around the beginning of May and final-term test around the beginning of July. Now that those are teacher-based assessments, two teachers and students can participate in making decision what should be included in the tests. Having a rubric of each assessment been specified through dialogic negotiation with students, the two teachers should make an handout in order to ensure students what items are assessed through what procedure.

On the second day, two teachers present generic topics for group research and presentation project, each of topic should be based on local issues and situations in which students are embedded and interested; such as, student culture, national and international social issues, school system, and high schools. More specific topics can be chosen in group discussions. For example, students can discuss school uniform, hair length, and school rules from the generic theme of student culture. Prior to students' presentation, the two teachers should demonstrate the presentation to offer students guidelines.

During the course, the two teachers and students should actively reflect on the emergent syllabus. In particular, the teachers should have conferences on a regular basis concerning lessons, students, and feedback for students' writing. This course will be basically progressed in the form of presentation, discussion, reading, and writing, and students' writing will be adopted as class reading materials immediately. Therefore, the two teachers' cooperation is crucial; the local English teacher (LET) chooses students' works and incorporates them into one article, and

the native-English-speaking teacher (NEST), then, can revise it regarding word choice, grammar, and the natural flow of the text. With regard to giving feedback for students' writing, the two teachers can divide a class into two and switch groups in the next stage of feedback; when the LET checks a group A in a class at the first feedback stage, the NEST can take care of the group at the second feedback stage. By doing so, the students can get diverse perspective on their works, and teachers can also ascertain students' progress.

In critical pedagogy (CP), teachers should present students' situation as a problem for promoting their critical reflection. Through such a problem-posing dialogue, teachers should help students perceive problems and further act on them to make changes in a local community. After completing each topic in class, therefore, the teachers and students should explore effective strategies to extend their class discussion to the community: uploading their works to school or district educational office homepages and personal blogs; publishing their works as a monthly newspaper and sending it to other schools or local media; conducting a campaign or surveys downtown.

At the end of the course, it is very important for the two teachers and the students to co-evaluate it. Class surveys, group conferences, and essays are good ways to find out the value of the course. As for the essays, the teachers can encourage students to write or comment how their recognition toward the community has been changed by virtue of the CP-based co-teaching course. Not only does this post evaluation enable the teachers and the students look back what they have done in class, but also help the teachers design following classes. Based on the range of students' linguistic achievement, critical awareness, and community participation after the

class, the teachers can either complement some shortcomings or maximize strengths for the next classes.

In the next section, I will elaborate a specific co-teaching model in association with class procedure in each period based on Cook and Friend's six co-teaching approaches: one teaching, one observing; one teaching, one drifting; station teaching; parallel teaching; alternative teaching; team teaching (177-186). For the purpose of this paper, I will refer to a native-English speaking teacher as a man.

2.2.2. Co-teaching Models: associating with a class procedure

Cook and Friend suggest six approaches of co-teaching as follows: One Teaching, One Observing; One Teaching, One Drifting; Station Teaching; Parallel Teaching; Alternative Teaching; Team Teaching (177-184). While explaining all of the co-teaching models, I will adapt them to Korean English lessons within the framework of the strong version of critical pedagogy. Along with the explanation and adaption of the models, I will present each model according to the teaching procedures of three class periods dealing with one topic. In each model, I will precisely articulate the roles of a local and native English teacher respectively.

The first period

One group presenting, two teachers observing

While a group makes a presentation about the topic that they chose previously, the other groups and two teachers actively observe them. Native-English speaking teacher (NEST) focuses on the presenters' pronunciation, awkward word choice or useful vocabulary whereas local

English teacher (LET) concentrates on the content and group combination and students take a note in preparation for group discussion. After the presentation, both of the teachers briefly mention what they have found by observing it. That is, the NEST carries out the lesson with focus on pronunciation and words correction, and I will comment on the information of the group research since I am more familiar with local issues.

One teaching, one drifting

This model means that while one teacher teaches the whole class, the other teacher walks around the room to give individual support. After the presentation, the NEST takes the primary role of delivering lessons based on presenters' pronunciation, word choice, and grammar. At that time, not only will I assist students who need support or have questions, but I will also ensure whether students pay attention to the class by taking notes. When the NEST is done with his lesson, we will change our roles; I take a lead while the NEST becomes supportive.

Two drifting

After the presentation and follow-up lessons, the whole class divides into three groups in order to discuss the topic of the presentation. Each group has one content expert from the group which has just presented, and she is going to take the leading role in the group discussion, while taking notes, and answering questions of the others. During the discussion, the two teachers circulate around the groups and sometimes participate in discussions or throw questions to students as a means of stimulating the discussion. In this process, the NEST and I will be cautious not to spend too much time on a specific group. Also, we will attempt to ask students

questions to facilitate the discussion of passive groups in which students are reluctant to talk.

Team teaching

This model means that the two teachers take a leading role simultaneously. After the group discussion, the experts of each group make presentations about what they have discussed or tentatively agreed upon. Utilizing a form of a talk show on TV, the NEST and I will rigorously respond to the presentations by asking each other questions in order for students to listen to the English conversation concerning the topic that they have just discussed. In this process, we will also ask students' opinions for them to interactively participate in a class discussion. At this phase, students are also allowed to speak Korean in case that they cannot express themselves. Instead of me translating Korean for the NEST, I will ask students to interpret it into English. Ten minutes before finishing the class, students are asked to write their opinions in a paragraph based on what they have learned in this lesson. In terms of English words, students are allowed to use Korean words, but they should correct them by themselves as homework. Before completing the first draft, the two teachers inform the class that they are going to be in the English room from four to four thirty so that students can come for individual help with their writing after school.

The second period

Station teaching

This model involves a clear division of labor responsibility. Students move from my station for grammar lessons to the NEST's station for reading lessons according to a class schedule. In this stage, students will be divided into three groups depending on their English

levels; therefore, the number of students in each group slightly varies. Generally, the intermediate group has the largest number of students. By adapting the students' first drafts, the NEST and I will create three kinds of basic reading materials and one more supplementary reading material. The materials of the grammar lessons are the combination of the grammar sections of the textbooks which students are currently learning and the most common errors in the students' first drafts.

The students at the basic level stay at a table previewing new words before the reading while the advanced group studies the reading material at the station of the NEST, and the intermediate group takes the grammar lesson at my station. After ten minutes, the intermediate group goes to the NEST station for the reading lesson, and the basic group comes to my station for the grammar lesson. The advanced group, however, does the supplementary reading while waiting for the grammar lesson with me. Each group goes to the different stations after ten minutes again; the intermediate group goes to the self-study station for the supplementary reading, the basic group goes to the NEST station for reading, and the advanced group goes to the LET station for the grammar lesson. When each group task is completed, all of the students go back to their group tables.

Alternative teaching

In this model of co-teaching, the NEST is responsible for the whole class while I conduct intensive instruction for a small group of students. After the station-oriented learning of the reading and grammar, students are asked to self-edit or revise their first drafts and add one more paragraph in consideration of the teachers' feedback. In this phase, I call for pair-writers to

a small group and explain the feedback they have got as a way of encouraging self-editing. While I am involved with the students with special needs, the NEST circulates the class to assist students in writing the second drafts. This activity lasts for ten minutes, and we will collect the second drafts for the second feedback.

Team teaching

In this last stage of the second period, the students are going to take a grammar pre-test based on today's lesson. During the pre-test, the two teachers should be cautious not to disturb students. The NEST and I will return the result of the pre-test in the next class for error correction and post-test.

The third period

One teaching, one drifting

In a group, students are asked to discuss and analyze each question from the pre-test using their metalinguistic knowledge. While writing down the detailed information relevant to questions, the NEST and I will circulate the groups for help. After the mid-stage of the dynamic test, I will pinpoint the mistakes which students have made most while the NEST drifts around the class for providing individual help. In addition, I ask the NEST about the real usage of some linguistic rules in English speaking countries. Students are asked to prioritize English to Korean in this discussion, but Korean is also allowed when they have communicational problems or need to clarify some grammatical points.

Two drifting

Through the process of the discussion about each question on the pre-test, students become competent on the grammar they have previously learned. Then, the students take the post-test which is similar to the pre-test, but slightly different in the usage of words in sentences. The NEST and I will walk around the class to help students find out correct answers by themselves by giving clues or hints. Students are also allowed to raise their hands during the post-test whenever they have questions. The purpose of the dynamic test is not to assess how well students can memorize, but to enhance their understanding and application about what they have learned.

Parallel teaching

This model intends to lower the number of students in half and each teacher deals with the same content and takes responsibility for a group without exchanging groups as in station teaching. In combining the four groups into two large groups, each teacher takes a group for group revision or editing of students' second draft in light of given feedback. The NEST and I will carry out our lessons with a focus on common errors in students' writing. Having rewritten their second drafts, students exchange their third drafts in groups for a final check-up.

3. Lesson plans

3.1. Solo-teaching Lesson Plans: the 7th grade

Master Plan

The 7th grade class is based on two predetermined textbooks; one is the main textbook

while the other is its workbook with three sets of exercise questions considering students' proficiency levels. In the workbook, the level of text difficulty is specified by three colors, that is, red for advanced, blue for intermediate, and green for basic, and students decide which color of the text they will work on. With respect to the main textbook, it consists of twelve lessons or chapters, each of which is arranged by the order of listening, grammar, speaking, reading, and sentence level writing as check-up questions.

This master plan deals with Lesson 7, *Namaste from India*, which is written in a form of letter. While traveling India with her family, a Korean girl, Nara writes two letters to her friend, Julie in Seoul. For Lesson 7, six class periods will be assigned for two weeks. During the first period, I will play a quiz show activity about Indian culture in order to motivate students and establish schemata of what they are going to study. Then, the listening task will be followed. During the second period, students are engaged in the speaking activity dealing with how to order food at restaurants. In the third period, students learn the future tense of 'be going to' and a tag question utilizing their metalinguistic knowledge in small groups. The fourth and fifth period concern the reading and writing section. In the reading section, two letters are introduced, each of which will be taught at the fourth and fifth period respectively. The first letter for the fourth period is concerned with Indian culture such as many kinds of dialects, traditional food, and hand-using food culture. In this lesson, I will encourage students to understand and further respect the beauty of cultural diversity. In terms of Indians using their right hands for eating food, for example, I will demonstrate or ask students to demonstrate eating food with their right hands and discuss how they feel. It is important to educate students not to be culturally ethnocentric by regarding the Indian food culture as uncivilized or barbaric. The second letter for the fifth period

is made up with two stories: Nara's exclamation about the Taj Mahal and her patriotism after witnessing many Korean goods in India. In this lesson, I will enable students to see the Taj Mahal with different perspectives and lend their critical thinking to a writing task. Moreover, students are asked to conduct a group-based research project. During the last period of Lesson 7, students will have a discussion based on their research presentations. Then, they will share their writings with the whole class. As a way of raising students' awareness regarding world Englishes, I will play a quiz show based on Indian English expressions. Before finishing the class, I will summarize the whole Lesson 7 by asking questions that students have already learned.

In Lesson7, I will focus on students' critical reflection by utilizing the technique of role play in order for them to examine an object with different perspectives. Therefore, the broad objectives of Lesson7 are as follows:

- 1) Students are able to understand and respect cultural diversity.
- 2) Students are able to understand the concept of world Englishes.
- 3) Students are able to critically examine historical architecture.
- 4) Students are able to conduct group research collaboratively.
- 5) Students are able to express themselves in writing.

Considering the objectives of Lesson 7, I will provide the two sub plans of the fifth and sixth period. As illustrated above, the fifth period deals with the second reading part while the sixth period concerns students' research presentations. The reading texts are in Appendix 7.

Sub Plan 1: the fifth period

This lesson deals with the second letter from Nara, who is travelling in India, on the page

of the main textbook. As the fifth period out of six, the specific objectives of today's lesson are as follows:

- 1) Students are able to understand the second letter from Nara.
- 2) Students are able to see the Taj Mahal in critical ways.
- 3) Students are able to rewrite Nara's letter with diverse views.

Teaching material

Lesson 7. Namaste from India

Letter 2: p. 92

July 26, 2010

Hi, Julie.

Taj Mahal was great. Long ago, a king built that beautiful building for his queen. He used only white stone. It shines in the moonlight. That's very romantic, isn't it? On the way to the hotel, I saw many Korean cars on the street. There were many Korean cell phones and TVs in the stores.

I was surprised and felt proud. Take care

Love

Nara

Introduction

- Review: (2 min)

The teacher reviews the last lesson asking content-based questions: such as who is writing to whom; where Nara is writing; what she is writing; what the traditional food in India is;

and which hand Indians use for food. The teacher also reminds students of the value of each culture and respect for differences. Accordingly, the teacher reaffirms that Koreans should not be ashamed of our dog-eating culture, and others must stop critiquing our culture as uncivilized or barbaric.

➤ Motivation and Pre-reading activity: (3 min)

The teacher motivates students by telling them that they are going to travel to a different place in India. Then, she asks students to guess the place after watching a role play by the teacher and a student. The teacher presents a crown to students and asks one student to volunteer for the role of a dying queen in India. Just in the case that students are reluctant to volunteer for the role, the teacher shows a reward for a whole group. Before the role play, the teacher explains the historical background of the story and its current setting in which the queen finally dies. During the role play, a student lies down on the table and acts as if she is dying. Beside the queen, the teacher who plays the king of India weeps sadly and as the queen dies, the king cries out rigorously. Then, he asks guards to build the most beautiful tomb castle in the whole world to express his sincerity towards the queen. After the role play, the teacher asks students what the tomb is called and presents the picture of the huge tomb castle, Taj Mahal, on the TV screen. By following the previously-illustrated Wallerstein's five-step strategies or Shaffer's SHOWeD—**See, Happen, Our lives, Why, evaluate, and Do**—dealing with the picture code, the teacher asks students the first step question: what they see and think about the story as well as the castle. Presumably, students are going to focus on the romantic surface of the sad love story and the beauty of the castle. By questioning what Nara thinks about the castle, the teacher presents one

of objectives in the lesson: 1) Students are able to understand the second letter from Nara.

Development

➤ Read aloud: skimming (5min)

The teacher asks students to hold their books up right on the table for reading aloud. This method allows the teacher to see whether students are concentrating on reading by seeing their lip movement, and it also enables both the teacher and students to hear the sound of reading more clearly so that the teacher can recognize the pronunciation problems which students may have. After reading, the teacher presents global questions to help students understand the text better as follows:

- 1) Where did Nara go today?
- 2) Do you think she liked the place?
- 3) Why was she surprised on the way back from the Taj Mahal?

Next, the teacher provides specific information-based questions on the screen and reads them with students so that they can find out the answers after reading the text once again. After ensuring all of the students understand the questions, the teacher asks students to raise their hands with their books closed when they are ready to answer the questions. Also, students are asked to raise their hands for the teacher's individual support when they have difficulty in comprehending the text.

➤ Silent reading: scanning (7 min)

During the silent reading for scanning for specific information, the teacher circulates

around the classroom to offer individual support, in particular for the low-level students. With regard to the question sheet, there are three kinds of question sheets accommodating students' proficiency levels. When students close their books and raise their hands for answering the questions, the teacher distributes a quarter-sized question sheet of paper depending on students' request for a certain level. After writing short answers, students are supposed to glue the sheet on the upper page of the text and help the other students who are having trouble. The teacher also encourages students to share or compare the answers in a group. Finally, the teacher and students explore the answers using PPT on the screen. The three kinds of question sheet are in Appendix 8.

➤ Post-reading activity: critical approach (10 min)

In order for students to see the Taj Mahal with different perspectives, the teacher suggests that they are going to develop the story of the previous role play with all students participating. As the second step of SHOWeD, the teacher presents students the picture of the Taj Mahal again and inspires them to think about or define hidden problems of what happened in the process of the Taj Mahal's construction: who constructed it; how workers were chosen and treated; and how workers built it without any machinery. By discussing historical truth at the age of the Taj Mahal being constructed, students begin to approach it with different perspectives. Then, the teacher presents the second objective of the lesson: 2) Students are able to see the Taj Mahal in critical ways. Having the student who played the queen lie down on the table, the teacher asks groups one and two to act as construction workers who were forced to work under severe surveillance, group three to become cruel guards with whips or sticks, and group four to be terrified families of the workers who were treated inhumanely in the construction site.

Starting from the scene in which the king cries out when the queen passes away, the king calls up all of the guards and orders them to collect workers to build the grave castle. The guards forcefully take people to the construction site and coerce them to start building the castle. When some workers take rest or complain, the guards whip or hit the workers. As time goes by, some of the workers get sick, while some fall out of the building and die. Seeing the dead bodies, the workers' families cry out.

➤ Writing a letter (13 min)

After the role play, the teacher and students discuss what they felt or realized through the play, and the teacher asks students whether they still consider the Taj Mahal as simply beautiful. Then, the teacher presents the last objective of the lesson: 3) Students are able to rewrite Nara's letter with diverse views. At this phase, the students are asked to write a new letter to Nara's friend with different perspectives about the Taj Mahal. In the process of writing, the teacher ensures that students can use Korean for the words they do not know in English. When students have done their writing, the teacher collects them for providing them with feedback and sharing their ideas for the next lesson. As for the feedback, the teacher utilizes all kinds of error correction methods in accordance with students' English abilities; for example, the teacher gives correct answers, a written corrective feedback using coded symbols, or comments in the margin of the papers.

Conclusion

➤ Homework: group research project (5 min)

As the third step of SHOWeD, personalization, the teacher asks students to think about other places like the Taj Mahal locally, nationally, and internationally. Then, the teacher asks each group to conduct research about one place and make a small presentation in the next class. For the presentation, the teacher guides students to searching for some facts as related to the fourth and fifth steps of SHOWeD: questioning why such problems occurred; and suggesting strategies what people could or should do about the problems. In case that students are having a hard time in choosing a place for a group project, the teacher provides specific examples such as the Pyramids, The Great Wall, Kings' tombs during Shilla dynasty, and Kyeongbokgoong, which was the Korean palace during Choseon dynasty. The teacher ascertains that the presentation can be carried out in diverse ways of formal presentation, role play, or storytelling. Also, the teacher encourages students to see the research with critical views.

Sub Plan 2: the sixth period

This lesson is implemented based on two kinds of students-produced works: group research and writing. At the end of the fifth period, each group has been assigned historical architecture for critical group research. Also, students rewrote Nara's letter with different perspectives. In this lesson, not only do students make group presentations, but they will also share their writings in class. Then, they will play a quiz show in search of Indian English expressions. This activity aims at improving the understanding of world Englishes. As the last period, then, the teacher summarizes the whole classes of the Lesson 7. The following are the specific objectives of today's lesson:

- 1) Students are able to actively engage in group presentation and discussion.

- 2) Students are able to present their letters to the whole class.
- 3) Students are able to understand Indian English as a kind of English.

Introduction

➤ Motivation: (2 min)

The teacher confirms whether students have done their research homework and also asks students' opinions about the group research project. After the teacher rearranges the desks in a circle, she presents the first objective of today's lesson: 1) Students are able to actively engage in group presentation and discussion.

Development

➤ Group presentation& discussion (20 min)

In a circle, four groups of students make presentations of their research regarding the hidden truth of four great historical buildings nationally and internationally: the Pyramids in Egypt, The Great Wall in China, Kyeongbokgoong, the royal palace in Korea, and the royal tombs during Shilla era in Korea. Students are asked to use English for the presentation, but they are also allowed to use Korean when they confront difficulty in conveying their perspectives in English. After presenting, both the teacher and students are involved in interactive discussion with a focus on the content in both English and Korean. In terms of students' errors, the teacher does not correct them immediately in order not to decrease students' motivation. Instead, the teacher keeps taking notes of students' errors, Korean words used, and important English expressions for students to know. At the end of this session, the teacher asks students to go back

to their original position and delivers a linguistic skill-based lesson to students based on what she has written during the presentation and discussion.

➤ Sharing individual letter (7 min)

Prior to returning students' written works, the teacher presents the second objective of today's lesson: 2) Students are able to present their letters to the whole class. All of the students read the objective aloud. Then, the teacher hands out the letters that the students wrote during the previous class. Based on students' proficiency and what has been taught, the teacher has already provided appropriate feedback for each letter in diverse ways such as reformulation, symbols for self-editing, and margin comments for the unclear content. After skimming through their letters considering the feedback, students are asked to volunteer to share their writing with the whole class. In case that they are unwilling to volunteer, the teacher offers group-oriented rewards such as candies or one-time homework exempt cards. The teacher also points out the specific students whose letters were well written. When students are too introverted to share their letters to the class, the teacher can read their letters instead. Of primary importance is for teachers to prepare for unexpected reactions of students during the lesson. Also, the teacher should not overlook the value of rewarding words such as 'good job' or 'excellent' and encourage the whole class to give the presenter a big hand.

➤ Quiz show: Indian English (13 min)

Ahead of playing the quiz show, the teacher asks students about what language is spoken officially in India; of course, the answer is English. Then, the teacher asks students whether they are interested in learning Indian English, and if not, what kind of English should be taught and

learned in Korea. In accordance with students' answers, the teacher asks other related questions in order to raise their critical reflection about the meaning and role of standard English in the world context. Then, the teacher presents the third objective of today's lesson: 3) Students are able to understand Indian English as a kind of English. In order to understand Indian English better, the teacher explains that she is going to utilize the form of a quiz show, and the quiz show is implemented in four groups. The first three questions follow the form of multiple choices. After reading the definition of each word, students are asked to find an Indian English expression out of four alternatives. The following are the multiple choice questions:

- 1) During the summer time, people are wearing this kind of pants to escape from the heat. What do you think they are called in Indian English? (b)
a) short pants b) half-pant c) shorts d) mini-pant
- 2) When you play sports, people usually wear this kind of shoes. What do you think they are called in Indian English? (c)
a) sneakers b) exercise shoes c) sports shoes d) play shoes
- 3) When the sun is so shiny, people wear this pairs of glasses to protect their eyes. What do you think they are called in Indian English? (a)
a) cooling glass b) eye protector c) black glasses d) sunglasses

The next two questions are concerned with defining an Indian English word and expression of 'prepone' and 'let's push off'. When students are unable to guess the meanings, the teacher provides contextualized clues; such as I need to 'prepone' this plan because I am going to leave here soon, and 'let's push off'. I am so bored.

After the quiz show, the teacher precisely explains the view of world Englishes, which is

the current tendency in the English teaching context. Since English is an international language, no English should be granted with the normative status. Even Korean English should be accepted as a kind of English. In this regard, the teacher encourages students not to be ashamed of using Korean English or not to call it as Konglish. Just like Americans ask British people to explain certain British English words which are not in American English lexicon, Koreans can elaborate some Korean English words to those who are unaware of them. For reference, a table of Indian English in comparison with American English is added in Appendix 9.

Conclusion

➤ Summary of Lesson 7 (3 min)

To conclude Lesson 7 which students have engaged in for two weeks, the teacher briefly summarizes what they have learned by asking questions. For homework, the teacher asks students to do the last page of Lesson 7 in the workbook.

3.2. Co-teaching Lesson Plans: the 9th grade

Master Plan

This master plan is targeted at the 9th grade classes based on the co-teaching method between a native-English-speaking teacher (NEST) and local English teacher (LET). Prior to students-oriented lessons, the two teachers demonstrate two lessons concerning a topic in order to provide students with a guideline of the procedure of the lessons. As for the topic, one of the controversial social issues in Korea is chosen; that is, the Korean government-initiated *Four Major Rivers Restoration Project*. In 2008, the Korean government announced the project to

restore four major Korean rivers by building dams and dredging the rivers. However, the project has been vehemently criticized since it may destroy the natural eco-system. In addition, it is simply the pre-plan of *the Great Canal Plan* which the incumbent government has supported, but which many civil groups have strongly opposed. Since last year, the project has been underway despite ongoing protest even from religious groups. Up to this point, it is worthwhile for students to examine the pros and cons of the project and consider its environmental issues in Korea in which they are going to live. In addition, one of the four rivers is a local resource of tap water for citizens; therefore, the topic can facilitate students' motivation to some great extent.

In these two lessons, I will attempt to enable students to understand the local issue precisely and approach it with diverse views in association with the NEST. During the first period, the two teachers introduce the topic of today's lesson and encourage students' critical discussion and writing on it. During the second period a week later, students read the materials which they have produced in writing, and they engage in self-editing or peer editing of their first draft and also add one more paragraph to it. Furthermore, students' writing will be published as a newspaper and sent it to the other schools, newspaper companies, and even government organizations. Therefore, the broad objectives of this master plan are as follows:

- 1) Students are able to understand the *Four Major Rivers Restoration Project*.
- 2) Students are able to discuss the pros and cons of the project.
- 3) Students are able to critically examine the project with diverse views.
- 4) Students are able to write the president a letter about the project.
- 5) Students are able to self-edit or peer-edit their writings.

During the lessons, students are allowed to speak Korean if necessary. As illustrated

above, this course is based on student-produced materials. Therefore, main reading materials cannot be provided in the lesson plan. Instead, the slides of PPT are provided in Appendix 5. In addition, since this master plan is oriented for two lessons in accordance with the syllabus, the dynamic assessment of grammar will be excluded.

Sub Plan 1: the first period

Introduction

➤ **Motivation: (5 min)**

The NEST and LET show students a potato and a lighter and ask them what they are. With the lighter, the NEST heats the potato which the LET holds up. When the LET acts as if the potato is too hot to hold, the NEST asks students the condition of the potato in order to elicit the answer of ‘hot potato’. As the LET questions another meaning of hot potato, the NEST explains the definition of *hot potato* which refers to a controversial socio-political issue. Then, the LET informs students that they are going to study one of current hot potatoes in Korea. By presenting today’s learning title, *Destroy or Restore* on the screen, the two teachers explain the meaning of each word using a plastic bottle. As the LET encourages students to ask the NEST what the word, *destroy* means, the NEST suddenly destroys the plastic bottle by squeezing and stepping on it. For the LET’s question about the meaning of *restore*, he asks a student to restore the destroyed plastic bottle through the strong air from her nose. Then, the LET provides some clues so that students can guess the topic of the lesson such as the picture of river, the Korean president, and protest scenes by civil groups. When students give a right answer, the LET presents the topic of today's lesson, *Four Major Rivers Restoration Project* using PPT and asks both the NEST and

students whether they have heard of the issue. If they have, the LET asks how much they know about it. For stimulating students' speaking skills, the LET asks students to explain the project to the NEST. By pretending that he has never heard of the project, he continues to ask students questions related to today's topic. Then, the LET presents the objectives of the lesson as follows:

- 1) Students are able to understand the *Four Major Rivers Restoration Project*.
- 2) Students are able to discuss the pros and cons of the project.

Development

➤ Quiz show: constructing schema (10 min)

The two teachers play a quiz game to construct students' schema regarding today's issue by utilizing PPT. For each question, students discuss in a group and pick up one number plate following the NEST's signal such as counting 'one, two, three, and pick it up'. Along with the quiz show, the LET provides in-depth explanation of each question for the NEST as well as students. The NEST intentionally provokes many questions as well. The questions of the quiz show are provided in the Powerpoint slides of Appendix 10.

➤ Mind map (5 min)

While the LET takes the side of two groups which are in favor of the project, the NEST supports the other two groups which are against the project. The first two groups brainstorm the advantages of the project, and the other two think about the disadvantages of the project. And they draw a mind map on the paper using color pens. When students are not sure of some English expressions, they can create Korean English expressions by combining English words. The two

teachers encourage students' brainstorming, but they do not provide appropriate English expressions. When students are ready, group leaders present their mind maps to the whole class. And the LET asks the NEST whether he understands students' explanations, and if he does not, the LET adds more information and asks the NEST the correct English expressions. The students are asked to write them on their own writing logs. Possible expressions are as follows:

- 1) Advantages: improving the condition of water, preventing natural disasters, preserving water for draughts.
- 2) Disadvantages: worsening the condition of water by building dams, destroying the natural eco-system, wasting a huge budget,

➤ Movie clip (5 min)

The LET plays two video clips regarding the issue. The first one, produced by the government is called 'we need a talk'. For some time, the government had played it in the movie theater before starting main movies in order to publicize the project. The second movie clip is the combination of the *Pop News* by YTN and *The Diary of Reporters* by MBC, each of which critiques the project from the news reporters' perspectives. After watching them, the LET asks two students to briefly explain the content of the clips to the NEST. Of course, the NEST has already known the content of the two videos very well, but pretending that he is ignorant of the videos, he keeps asking questions to students.

➤ Discussion (10 min)

In a group, students actively discuss the project by utilizing the expressions and words

they have learned. If necessary, they are allowed to speak Korean as well. By doing so, those who have low English proficiency can participate in a group discussion. In order to prevent Korean-dominant discussion, however, the LET and NEST circulate the class and help students to think some expressions in English. Also, they ask students to use Korean for replacing words by keeping English sentence structure, and the group leaders are asked to write them down. For example, *I think the project is very 효과적 (effective)*. At the end of discussion session, the LET and NEST give feedback of Korean words into English ones.

➤ Writing: the first draft (10min)

For ten minutes, students write the president of Korea a paragraph letter in their writing logs, and the letter is based on their opinions as to the project. They are allowed to use Korean words as they did in the discussion. In addition, they can utilize all types of materials for their writing such as Internet search at computers in English room and dictionaries. They can also ask the teachers for help. In support of students, therefore, the two teachers visit the different groups.

Conclusion

➤ Wrap up & homework (5 min)

After writing, the teachers collect students' work to provide them feedback. Then, the NEST reviews the words or expressions that students have learned in this lesson, and the LET confirms them in Korean. As homework, the LET asks students to bring an article from any newspaper concerning the issue of today's lesson. In addition, she ensures that students will be able to get their writing back in two days. She further encourages students to keep their error

tally sheets and error logs. The NEST asks students to rewrite their writing in light of the feedback from the two teachers and think about how they are going to develop their writing by adding one more paragraph during the next lesson. The NEST adds that students are welcome to come for after-school class from four to four thirty when they need special help for their writing.

Sub Plan 2: the second period

Introduction

➤ Motivation and Review (5 min)

The LET and NEST begin a lesson by reviewing the words and expressions from the previous lesson. In order to motivate students in learning English, the NEST explains a word in Korean, and then students give an English word. When students see the NEST trying to learn Korean, they feel confident that they can also learn English. That is, students can be motivated by the teacher's effort in learning the second language. This activity draws the participation of students with low English proficiency. Very often, they are eager to correct the teacher's Korean pronunciation.

Development

➤ Pre- activity: newspaper articles (5min)

After the NEST-oriented activity, the LET takes over the class and asks students to share the newspaper articles that they have brought. In this activity, Korean is also allowed in order for students to actively present their ideas about the articles that they have read. It is possible that some heated discussion can be going on in this session. Therefore, the LET should attempt to

keep the middle position for the matter. At the end of the session, the LET should explain what they have discussed to the NEST or she can also ask students to do the job.

➤ Station teaching: reading (20 min)

The two teachers have created a reading material based on students' writing. In this process, the LET and NEST need to cooperate substantially. For example, while the LET is concerned with the content about the topic, the NEST deals with mechanical errors and organization. Creating new materials is very challenging to the second language speakers since they are afraid of making mistakes. By the two teachers' collaboration, students can study more accurate local-friendly materials. Given the diverse proficiency levels in a single classroom, three kinds of reading materials based on the same content will be presented to students. In addition, a supplementary reading should be provided for self-study.

First, the LET explains the purpose of station teaching; out of three groups, students choose a group which is appropriate for their proficiency level. While the basic group self-studies words before reading, the advanced group studies the reading material with the NEST, and the intermediate group studies it with the LET. After that, the intermediate group studies the same material with the NEST while the basic group studies the easiest reading material with the LET, and the advanced group reads the supplementary reading material as related to the topic of the lesson. When the second round is completed, the intermediate group reads the supplementary material while the basic group studies with the NEST, and the advanced group asks questions about the main reading material as well as the supplementary one.

In teaching reading, both LET and NEST utilize the methods of skim and scan in a

discourse level in an effort to improve students' understanding of the content. Since this activity is the small group basis, the teachers can prompt individual students to take part in the lesson.

➤ Editing & the second draft (10 min)

After checking students' self-editing or revision of the first draft, their error tally sheets, and error logs, the LET asks students to develop their letters by adding one more paragraph or revising the content in light of today's lesson. Both teachers circulate through the classroom and ask students individually whether they have questions about the feedback that they have received from the teachers. Students are also encouraged to ask questions in a group. As students did at the previous lesson, they are allowed to use all kinds of assisting materials.

Conclusion

➤ Wrap up (5 min)

As a wrap up, the LET tells a story about a stream in which she used to swim in her childhood. After building concrete walls alongside the stream, however, the water started to flow very slowly and consequently became so polluted that nobody could swim there. In realizing their mistake, people have tried to make it clean, but it is still smelly and dirty. Then, the NEST adds that it is difficult to revive nature once it is destroyed. He continues to explain what we can do with 22.2 trillion won which is the ballpark budget for the project. Students guess the answers in response to the NEST's questions as follows:

- 1) How much do you think it costs to provide students free lunch? - 10 trillion won
- 2) How much do you think it costs to provide students free university? - 10 trillion won

3) How much do you think it costs for free kindergarten? - 9 trillion won

4) How much do you think it cost for free high school? - 3 trillion won

Apart from the money, both teachers encourage students to think of this current issue seriously because it is about the land in which they are going to live, and their children are going to live, too. The teachers also encourage students to upload their writing in the school homepage after editing them based on teachers' feedback. Furthermore, the teachers explain that they will publish well-written works in the school English newspaper once a month. For reference, the Powerpoint for the two co-taught lessons is added in Appendix 10.

Appendix 1


Lesson 1. Jobs at home and jobs at U.S. in Unit 2

UNIT II

Getting a Job

Lesson 1 Jobs at Home and Jobs in the U.S.

CODE



Interviewer: Tell me about your work experience.

Le Minh: In my country, I was a college math teacher. I taught math for ten years.

Interviewer: Have you ever worked in a hospital?

Le Minh: No, but I like to work with people.

Interviewer: There is an opening in the kitchen. Are you interested?

Le Minh: I guess so.

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Lesson 1 / Jobs at Home and Jobs in the U.S. **17**

Questions for discussion:

- What did Le Minh do in his country? What does the interviewer ask him? What job is open?
- Why do you think the interviewer suggests the kitchen job? How do you think Le Minh feels about the kitchen job? Is it a good job for Le Minh? Why or why not?
- What did you do in your country? What do you do in the U.S.? How do you feel about your job? What do you want to do?
- Did many immigrants come to the U.S. from your country? When did they come? Why did they come? What kinds of jobs did they do? Why do many immigrants and refugees have low-paying jobs? Do you think non-Americans have to start at the bottom? Why or why not?
- What can you do to get a better job?

THINKING ACTIVITIES

A. LE MINH'S CHOICES

What do you think Le Minh should do? By yourself, rank his choices from 1 to 5 (best to worst); in small groups, try to agree on the best choice.

- He should take any job he can get.
- He should work in the kitchen and go to school at night.
- He should look for a job in a bilingual math class.
- He should look for a computer training program.
- Other: _____

Individual Solution	Group Solution
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

B. JOBS CHART

Make a class chart like this one:

Name	Jobs at home	Jobs in the U.S.
Le Minh	math teacher	dishwasher
Anh	store owner	cook's helper

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C. WHAT'S A GOOD JOB?

What makes a job "good"? What is important for you?

	Important	Not very important
To make a lot of money.	_____	_____
To have a clean job.	_____	_____
To help other people.	_____	_____
To have a lot of education.	_____	_____
To have good hours.	_____	_____
To be your own boss.	_____	_____
To have a safe job.	_____	_____
To have people respect you.	_____	_____
To use your head.	_____	_____
Other _____	_____	_____

GRAMMAR: Comparative and Superlative Adjectives

A. COMPARATIVES

Ask each other these questions:

hard	Is factory work <i>harder</i> than teaching?
safe	Is being a teacher <i>safer</i> than being a cashier?
clean	Is housekeeping <i>cleaner</i> than farming?
easy	Is childcare <i>easier</i> than factory work?
interesting	Is electronics <i>more interesting</i> than cooking?
difficult	Is using your head <i>more difficult</i> than using your hands?

Look at the italicized words. How are they made?
When do you add -er?
What happens to the -y in easy when you add -er?
When do you add the word more?

Grammar Practice: Use these words to make comparisons about things you know.

smart old easy dirty lazy strong fast cold hard
beautiful afraid helpful confused difficult friendly

B. SUPERLATIVES

Look at the italicized words below. How are they made?

safe	What was the <i>safest</i> place you ever lived?
easy	What was the <i>easiest</i> language you ever learned?
interesting	What is the <i>most interesting</i> job you ever had?
good	The <i>best</i> job I ever had was teaching.
bad	The <i>worst</i> job I ever had was cleaning houses.

Grammar Practice: Make your own sentences using superlatives of the words in part A. above.

Lesson 1 / Jobs at Home and Jobs in the U.S. **19**

ACTION ACTIVITIES: Choosing Jobs

When you look for a job, you need to think about your *experience*, your *skills*, your *education*, and your *preferences*.

A. YOUR EXPERIENCE

Your past jobs are your *experience*. Look at these three ways of talking about job experience. How are they the same? How are they different?

- I was a farmer and a car mechanic at home.
- I used to be a farmer and a car mechanic in Laos.
- I worked as a farmer and a car mechanic in my country.

Look at these ways of talking about experience in the U.S.:

- I worked in a shoe factory in New York. I was a packer.
- I worked in the Marriott Hotel in Boston. I was a cook.

Grammar Practice: Make sentences about your job experience.

B. YOUR SKILLS

What do you know how to do? What are you good at? These are your *skills*. Make a chart to show all your skills at work and at home.

Jobs in Homeland	First Job in U.S.	Present Job	Home
Store Owner	Janitor	Factory	
talk to customers	sweep, mop	lift	fixing cars
keep books	wax machine	read codes	cars
make orders	wash windows	sort	plumbing
take money	small repairs	drive forklift	carpentry
supervise help			
pay bills			

Grammar Practice: Make sentences like these about your skills:

I can keep books.	I can fix cars.
I like to keep books.	I like to fix cars.
I'm good at keeping books.	I'm good at fixing cars.

C. YOUR EDUCATION

How many years of school have you had? What kind of schools did you go to? Make a chart like this one to show your *education*:

Dates	Place/Location	School
1986	Boston, Massachusetts	International Institute
1985	Galang, Indonesia	Refugee Camp
1980-83	Saigon, Vietnam	Secondary School

D. YOUR JOB PREFERENCES

What is important for you in a job? What kind of work would you like to do? These are your preferences. Ask and answer these questions with a partner.

1. Do you want to work alone or with other people?

Example: I prefer to work with people, or I would rather work with people.

- 2. Do you want to work full-time or part-time?
- 3. Do you want to work in a small place or a large place?
- 4. Do you want to work in the day or at night?
- 5. Do you want to work with your head or with your hands?
- 6. (Add your own question.) _____

E. PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER

Write down your experience:

- 1. Job #1 _____
- 2. Job #2 _____
- 3. Job #3 _____

Write down your education:

- 1. elementary school (years) _____
- 2. high school (years) _____
- 3. college/university _____
major _____
- 4. special training _____

Write down your skills:

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 1. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 2. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 3. _____ |

Write down your preferences:

In small groups, look at your lists and discuss three kinds of jobs that might be good for you.

STUDENT ACTION RESEARCH

JOB APPLICATION: Ask a friend to get you a job application from his or her workplace. Fill it out in class with a partner.

INTERVIEWS: Talk to someone who does a job you might like. Ask what he or she does every day. Ask what experience, education, and skills you need for that job. Share your answers in class.

RESUME: Ask your teacher to bring in a resume. What are the main parts of a resume? Make a resume of your own, listing your education, skills, and experience.

READING: Voices from History

Sometimes students think that they need to understand every word of an article. They read carefully, from beginning to end, looking up new words. Often this takes a long time and makes reading more difficult. Here are some ways to make reading easier and quicker:

- 1. Before you read, look at the title, headings, pictures, charts, and italicized words. Guess what the article is about.
- 2. What do you already know about this topic? Discuss it as a class. Make up questions about the article.
- 3. Read the first paragraph and the end of the article first. Often they tell you the author's main point.
- 4. As you read, DO NOT LOOK UP WORDS. Guess the words. If you stop to look up words, your reading will be slow and you will have a harder time understanding the whole meaning of the article.

With this reading, do these pre-reading exercises as a group:

- 1. Read just the title and headings; guess what the article will be about.
- 2. Read the introduction; talk about what you already know about the topic.
- 3. Make up some questions about the reading.

After you do these exercises as a class, divide into groups. Each group should read one section and report on it to the class. Follow the same guidelines for all the readings in this book.

U.S. Immigration Patterns

Introduction: Since 1607, we have accepted two-thirds of the world's immigrants—a total of 50 million people. But U.S. laws designed to restrict immigrants kept out millions of others. Moreover, millions who did settle in the U.S. encountered prejudice and sometimes even violence.¹

America is a land of immigrants. Yet it has not always welcomed immigrants with open arms. On the one hand, immigration has been encouraged when there was a need for foreign labor; on the other, immigrants have been blamed for political and economic problems here. Patterns of immigration closely follow the needs of the American economy; when there is a need for labor, laws encourage immigration; when there is unemployment and depression, laws restrict immigration.

The Early Years of the Nation: The first immigrants to the U.S. were forced to come here to fill particular labor needs. Slaves were brought from Africa to develop the Southern farm economy. Indentured servants were brought from Scotland and Ireland; recruiters went to Europe to get skilled workers to develop American industry.

However, in 1798 the first laws against immigrants were passed (The Alien and Sedition Acts). The government was afraid that immigrants might bring in revolutionary ideas. These laws said that immigrants must live here for 14 years to become citizens.

The Early 1800s: These mixed feelings towards immigrants have continued ever since. In the early 1800s waves of Irish Catholics came to the U.S. to get away from poverty and famine in Ireland. They became the low wage factory workers that built industrialism in the Northeast.

¹ Scholastic Update, September 6, 1985, p. 6.

Bad feelings toward these immigrants flared up after 1830: an anti-immigrant political group, the Know-Nothings, wanted "America for the Americans." They called the Irish drunken, violent and ignorant. Much of this feeling came from a fear of immigrant political power.

The Chinese: In the mid-1800s thousands of Chinese were brought to the West by employers like the Pacific Central Railroad. As a rule, they performed unskilled labor, the kind of strenuous and menial jobs which whites tended to shy away from. As long as they were needed to build the railroads, they were welcomed (always in the low-skilled jobs). However, when the railroads were completed and as the Chinese began to compete with American workers for other jobs, mob violence against the Chinese became common on the West Coast. In 1882, the Chinese Exclusion Act was passed: Chinese workers were excluded from the country and Congress banned most Chinese immigration. This was the first law to limit immigration by nationality. Between 1882 and 1902, the U.S. Congress passed thirteen discriminatory laws against the Chinese, including laws excluding the immigration of Chinese women. The Exclusion Act was law until 1943.

The Turn of the Century: Between 1890 and 1920, there were 18.2 million immigrants to the U.S., mostly from Southern and Eastern Europe. American employers encouraged immigration by giving cheap boat passage and promises of a good life in the U.S. For example, a *padrone* would go to Europe to recruit unskilled labor on contract with a promise of free ship passage and a fixed wage. When they got to the U.S., whole gangs of workers were given to an employer with a profit for the *padrone*.

By 1910, the majority of workers in many industries were immigrants: 70% of the iron miners, 65% of the garment workers, and 50% of the iron and steel workers. "These new immigrants suffered the same sort of discrimination that the Irish had endured earlier. Italians were identified with organized crime . . . Though most likely to be garment workers laboring in sweatshops for miserable wages, Jews were caricatured as moneylenders and international financiers."²

Immigrants became active in early trade union organizing in the late 1800s. They led strikes in mining, railroads and manufacturing for shorter weeks, higher pay, and better working conditions. Twenty-eight different nationalities participated in the 1912 textile mill strike in Lawrence, Massachusetts.

World War I and the Great Depression: Just as the last of the foreign labor was absorbed into the economy, legislation was passed to restrict immigration. In 1917, the first national Immigration Act imposed literacy requirements for entry, created an "Asiatic Barred Zone," and set deportation rules. The purpose of the law was to keep out Eastern and Southern Europeans, who often could not read. The Russian Revolution produced a "Red Scare" in the U.S., resulting in the deportation of 8000 foreign political radicals. In 1921, Congress passed the first Quota Law; with the 1924 National Origins Act, the number of immigrants allowed to come from each country was established, discriminating against people from Southern Europe.

"Why had the U.S. moved so dramatically to squeeze off the flow of immigrants? First, the U.S. no longer had a labor shortage. The frontier had closed and factories were using complex machinery, cutting the demand for unskilled workers. Second, Americans did not want to compete with foreigners for jobs, especially during the Great Depression of the 1930s."³

During the Great Depression, immigration fell to its lowest level in 100 years.

¹ Ibid.
² Ibid., p. 7

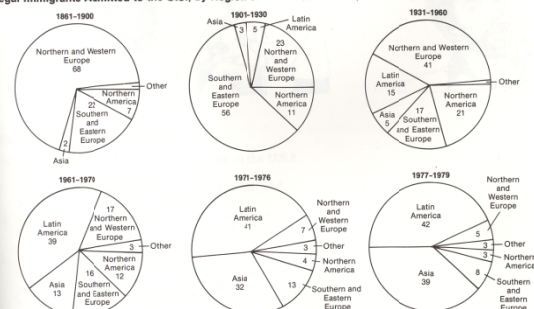
The Mexicans: The quotas on immigration did not apply to South America.

This meant that Mexicans could still enter the U.S. to do work which Americans did not want to do: picking the crops and building the railroads. During the World War II, workers were needed to replace those who had become soldiers. The U.S. government began the *bracero* program which brought Mexican laborers to the U.S. under contract and returned them when they were no longer needed. "The braceros were paid 30 cents an hour and often lived in shacks. 'We used to own slaves,' gloated one grower, 'but now we rent them from the government.'" This program continued until 1964.⁴

Recent Policy: In 1952, the Immigration and Nationality Act set national policy on the basis of both economic and political needs. In addition to quotas, special regulations let refugees from communism into the country. The most recent wave of immigration started in the 1960s with a new demand for workers in the South and West. In 1965, the Immigration Act amendments withdrew national quotas and restrictions on Asians, and established preferences for occupations with labor shortages.

Who are the new immigrants? They are mainly Hispanics and Asians, again filling jobs that Americans do not want. For example, between 1970 and 1980, immigrants filled 70% of the new jobs in Los Angeles, but almost all of these were jobs with low wages, little chance for advancement and no job security. Some economists say that there will be an even greater shortage of unskilled workers in the future, and that fewer Americans will be willing to take these jobs. Thus, the same pattern which we have seen so often in American history, may be repeated for immigrants.

Legal Immigrants Admitted to the U.S., by Region of Birth: 1861-1979 (Numbers in percentages of total)



Source: Leon F. Bouvier, *Immigration and Its Impact on U.S. Society*, Population Trends and Public Policy Series No. 2 (Washington, D.C.: Population Reference Bureau, 1981)

⁴ Ibid., p. 8

24 UNIT II / Getting a Job**Questions for discussion:**

1. What kinds of jobs did immigrants fill in different periods of U.S. history?
2. How did Americans react to immigrants in different times?
3. How have immigrants reacted to their role in the U.S. economy?
4. What roles do you see for immigrants in the future?
5. What can immigrants do about their role in the U.S. economy?
6. Add your own questions for discussion.

(Wallerstein and Auerbach, *ESL for Action* 16 - 24)

Appendix 2

Sample Tally Sheet

	<i>Too Much Freedom</i>	<i>Lasting Friendship</i>	<i>The Economy</i>	<i>Space Exploration</i>													<i>Totals</i>
D	3	4	3	2													12
SV	1	1	0	1													3
VF	1	1	1	0													3
ro	0	1	0	0													1
inc	0	0	0	0													0
VT	1	2	1	1													5
PP	3	2	2	1													8
SPG	3	1	2	2													8
WF	2	1	2	1													6
WC	2	1	2	1													6
S/PL	1	2	1	2													6
C/NC	0	0	1	0													1
?	0	1	0	0													1
AWK	1	0	1	1													3
~	1	1	0	1													3
C	2	0	1	0													3
P	2	1	0	1													5
—	0	2	0	1													3
^	1	1	2	1													5
#	0	0	0	0													0
Score	7	7	8	8													

(Hartshorn "Effects" 108)

Appendix 3




Sample paragraph writing timeline and prompts (daily class)

	Monday	Tuesday	Wed.	Thursday	Friday		Monday	Tuesday
Paragraph	Student:							
<i>One</i> Topic: Too Much Freedom	Writes draft 1	Receives draft 1 back from the teacher	Edits and submits draft 2	Receives draft 2 back from the teacher	Edits and submits draft 3 (if necessary)			
<i>Two</i> Topic: A Serious Social Problem		Writes draft 1	Receives draft 1 back from the teacher	Edits and submits draft 2	Receives draft 2 back from the teacher		Edits and submits draft 3 (if necessary)	
<i>Three</i> Topic: Care for the Elderly			Writes draft 1	Receives draft 1 back from the teacher	Edits and submits draft 2		Receives draft 2 back from the teacher	Edits and submits draft 3 (if necessary)
<i>Four</i> Topic: A Strong Economy				Writes draft 1	Receives draft 1 back from the teacher		Edits and submits draft 2	Receives draft 2 back from the teacher
<i>Five</i> Topic: Crime Prevention					No paragraph today		Writes draft 1	Receives draft 1 back from the teacher

(Hartshorn et al. "Contextual" 462)

Appendix 4

The adapted table of coded symbols

S+V – Subject Verb Agreement	PP – Preposition
T – Tense	Art – Article
VF – Verb Form	AWK – Awkward Wording
SPG – Spelling	C – Capitalization
WF – Word Form	P – Punctuation
WC – Word Choice	 - Omit
Sin – Singular	 - Something is missing
PL – Plural	 - Word Order

Appendix 6

The procedures of Dynamic Assessment

*Stage 1: pre-test***Instruction:**

You are going to take three kinds of a test. First you will take a pre-test, then, you will discuss this test in groups and with a whole class. Lastly, you will take another post-test to see how much you have learned from the pre-test and the mediation stage.

ex) Where are you going?

- a. I am not ~~at~~ home. ↗
- b. You are going to the post office.
- c. I am going home.
- d. She is going home.

Q) When did he come back home?

- a. tomorrow
- b. soon
- c. yesterday
- d. later

*Stage 2: mediation***Strategies for mediation**

In groups, you are going to discuss the questions on the pre-test based on three procedures: look for clues; eliminate unrelated answers; and compare with the others.

Q. “When did he come back home?”

The clue is “did”. The question is about time in the past, therefore the answer should be in the past tense. Since only one answer indicates the past, a, b, and d should be eliminated. Accordingly, the right answer is c.

Stage 3: post-test

Instruction:

This is the last test. Based on what you have learned through the stages of the pre-test and mediation, solve the problems below.

ex) Where are you going?

- a. I am not ~~at~~ home. ↗
- b. You are going to the post office.
- c. I am going home.
- d. She is going home.


Q) When did she pass away?

- a. last year
- b. one year later
- c. next week
- d. tomorrow

Appendix 7


Lesson 7. Namaste from India

Letter 1. P. 90



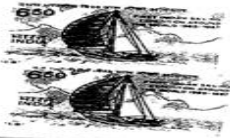
빅도로 여행 중 "안 나라가
 Julie에게 편지를 보냈습니다.
 나라가 빅도로에 편지를 보냈고 Julie에게
 편지를 읽으며 즐겁게 보냈습니다.

Namaste from India

July 25, 2010 

Namaste, Julie.

I am in New Delhi with my family.
 Today I learned some surprising facts.
 My family went out for lunch, but there
 wasn't any beef on the menu. My dad said,
 "Indian people don't eat beef, and some
 people eat food with their hands."
 I didn't know those customs. Did you
 know them?
 I'm going to visit the Taj Mahal
 tomorrow. I'm so excited.
 Take care!
 Love,
Nara

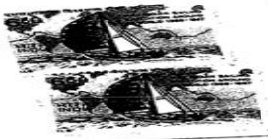


Namaste 인도에서 특별 수리는 인사말로, I bow to you 라는 의미입니다.
 꼭 마음을 가운데 보시고 고개를 가볍게 숙여 인사하여, 다른 사람에게 대한 존중을 나타냅니다.

fact beef custom excited
 go out 나가다, 외출하다 Take care! 잘 지내!

90 Lesson 7


Letter 2.: p. 92



July 26, 2010

Hi, Julie.

The Taj Mahal was great.
 Long ago, a king built that beautiful
 building for his queen. He used only white
 stone. It shines in the moonlight. That's
 very romantic, isn't it?
 On the way to the hotel, I saw many
 Korean cars on the street. There were
 many Korean cell phones and TVs in the
 stores. I was surprised and felt proud.
 Take care!
 Love,
Nara



shine moonlight romantic surprised proud
 long ago 오래 전에

92 Lesson 7

Appendix 8

Reading check-up questions

Type A. Answer in complete sentences.

1. What was used to build the Taj Mahal?
2. What causes the Taj Mahal beautifully to shine according to the text?
3. What did Nara think about number 2?
4. What did Nara see on the street and in the stores on the way back to the hotel?
5. Why do you think Nara felt proud?
6. When do you feel proud of Korea?

Type B. If possible, try to answer in the forms of sentences.

1. What **stones** were used to build Taj Mahal?
2. In what light does the Taj Mahal **shine** at night?
3. After looking at number 2, Nara thought it was very _____.
4. On her way back to hotel, Nara saw many _____ on the street and _____ and _____ in the stores.
5. How did she feel after seeing number 4?
She was _____ and became _____.
6. Have you ever felt proud of Korea? If yes, when was it?

Example: When the Korean national soccer team won the games in the World cup, I was so proud of my country.

Type C. Write a word or choose one. If necessary, you may also visit the textbook.

1. _____ were used to build the Taj Mahal. (what kind of stones?)
2. At night, the Taj Mahal _____ in the moonlight. (hint: S(it) +V(s))
3. Nara thought the Taj Mahal was very (sad / romantic / depressing). (hint: she liked there)
4. When she went back to her hotel, she saw Korean _____ on the street.

And she saw Korean _____ and _____ in the stores.

(hint: cars, computers, TVs, buildings, cell phones, people, CD players)

5. At the end of the letter, she said that she was surprised and felt proud. Write the meaning of the sentence in Korean. _____
6. Have you ever felt proud of Korea? If yes, when was it? (Try to write English!)

Example: When the Korean national soccer team won the games in the World cup, I was so proud of my country.

Appendix 9

Indian English vs. American English

American Language, difference between Indian English and American English Page 1 of 4

immihelp.com
From an immigrant, to future immigrants.

American Language
People who come to the USA from India rarely have difficulty in communicating with Americans, because most speak fluent English or have received their education in English. However, Indians speak British English, and there are many differences between British English and American English.

Therefore, if you are not familiar with correct words, there may be some confusion while communicating. Sometimes, the spelling of the words may be the same but they are pronounced differently. For example, "schedule" is pronounced "skedule," "route" is pronounced "raut," and "vitamin" is pronounced "vitarmin."

If the person you're speaking with is having a hard time understanding, you may hear phrases like "pardon me," "come again," "I didn't get you," or "I'm sorry?"

The following dictionary helps you translate Indian English to American English. Words are given by categories; within each category, they are listed alphabetically.

Indian English	American English
Braces	Suspenders
Half-pant	Shorts
Half-sleeves	Short sleeves
Handbag	Purse, Pockbook, Change purse
Jumper	Sweater
Ladders (in stockings)	Runs
Neckerchief	Scarf
Overcoat (light)	Topcoat, Coat, Jacket
Overcoat (heavy)	Overcoat, Coat
Oversize	Extra large
Petticoat	Slip
Pinafore dress	Jumper
Polo-neck sweater	Turtle-neck sweater
Purse	Wallet
Sanitary towel	Sanitary napkin, pad
Sports shoes	Sneakers, Athletic shoes, Running shoes
Suspenders	Garters
Swim costume	Swim suit
Swim trunks	Swim suit
Tights	Panty hose
Trial room	Fitting room
Trousers	Trousers, Pants, Slacks
Vest	Under shirt
Waistcoat	Vest
Waist petticoat	Half slip
Wind cheater	Wind breaker

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American Language, difference between Indian English and American English Page 2 of 8

Indian English	American English
3rd standard	3rd grade
Be a student	Take a class
Canteen	Cafeteria
College	School
Higher Secondary School	High School
Invigilator	Proctor
Marks	Grades
Mark sheet	Grade card
Primary school	Elementary school
Private school	Public school (free)
Public school	Private school (tuition charged)
Secondary School	Junior High School
Take a class	Teach a class
University	School

Indian English	American English
Biscuit	Cookie (if sweet), Cracker (if salty)
Brinjal	Eggplant
Brown bread	Whole wheat bread
Bun	Biscuit
Cafe ("kayf")	Cafe ("kaf-ay")
Capsicum	Bell pepper
Chocolate, Lollipop, Sweet, Toffee	Candy
Cold drink	Soda
Corlander	Cilantro
Curd	Yogurt
Dry grapes	Raisins
Filter coffee	Brewed coffee
Finger chips	French fries
French beans	Snow peas
Garam masala	Curry
Groundnuts	Peanuts
Hotel	Restaurant (only for eating) Hotel (for staying and/or eating)
Jelly	Jelatin
Milk powder	Cream
Nes-coffee	Instant coffee
Lady fingers	Okra
(Potato) wafers	(Potato) chips
Sacarine	Artificial sweetener
Soft drink	Soda
Small pastries	Lady fingers

Indian English	American English
Biscuit	Cookie (if sweet), Cracker (if salty)
Brinjal	Eggplant
Brown bread	Whole wheat bread
Bun	Biscuit
Cafe ("kayf")	Cafe ("kaf-ay")
Capsicum	Bell pepper
Chocolate, Lollipop, Sweet, Toffee	Candy
Cold drink	Soda
Corlander	Cilantro
Curd	Yogurt
Dry grapes	Raisins
Filter coffee	Brewed coffee
Finger chips	French fries
French beans	Snow peas
Garam masala	Curry
Groundnuts	Peanuts
Hotel	Restaurant (only for eating) Hotel (for staying and/or eating)
Jelly	Jelatin
Milk powder	Cream
Nes-coffee	Instant coffee
Lady fingers	Okra
(Potato) wafers	(Potato) chips
Sacarine	Artificial sweetener
Soft drink	Soda
Small pastries	Lady fingers

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American Language, difference between Indian English and American English Page 3 of 4

Soda	Club soda
Tomato sauce	Ketchup (tomato sauce is less sweet)

Indian English	American English
Aerial (for TV)	Antenna
All year	All year or year-round
American football (similar to Rugby in UK)	Football
At weekends	On weekends
Autumn	Fall
Barrister	Trial lawyer
Basin	Bowl (basin means bathroom sink)
Bath	Shower (when you fill tub and sit to wash, it is a bath)
Beggar	Panhandler
Bookstall	Newsstand
Bucket	Bucket or pail
Camp bed	Cot or roll-away
Chewing Gum	Gum
Cell	Battery
Cinema	Movie theater
Clever	Smart or bright
Cooling glass	Sunglasses
Colony	Neighborhood
Creche	Daycare
Cricket (a game)	Cricket (an insect)
Curriculum-vitae or Bio-data	Resume
Current	Electricity
Current account	Checking account
Deposit account	Savings account
Diary	Journal
District or Taluk	County
Doctor	Doctor or Physician
Dustbin	Trash can
Earth wire	Ground wire
Flat	Apartment ("flats" mean shoes without high heels)
Ex-serviceman	Veteran
Football	Soccer
Hoarding	Billboard
Hotel	Restaurant
Gang	Mob
Garage	Garage, Shop, Service station
Garbage	Trash
Garden	Yard
Give test	Take test

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American Language, difference between Indian English and American English Page 4 of 8

Goods	Freight
Goods wagon	Freight car, Container
Gramophone	Phonograph, Turntable, Record player
Grill	Broil
Guest house	Motel
Gum	Glove
Goggles	Sunglasses
IBM-Compatible	IBM-Clone
Inflammable	Flammable
Jug	Pitcher
Kiosk	Booth
Lawyer	Lawyer or Attorney
Lift	Elevator
Ltd.	Inc.
Main city area	Downtown (most of the time), Uptown
Mate	Friend ("mate" is used only for spouse)
Mess	Dorm cafeteria
Mixee	Mixer
Multi-storey	High-rise, Skyscraper
Nice	Nice, Cool
Operation theatre	Operating room
Perks	Perks, Fringe benefits, Benefits, Employment benefits
Photograph	Picture
Picture	Movie
Plot of land	Lot
Policeman	Policeman, Cop, Police officer
Porter	Doorman
Nappies	Diapers
Notepad	Notebook, Scratchpad
Ordinary share	Common stock
Pack of cards	Deck of cards
Paisa	Penny, One cent
Past performance	Track record
Pin code, postal code	ZIP code
Point, Powerpoint	Outlet, Electrical outlet
Postbox	Mailbox (for home/apartment) Postbox (for rented box located in post office)
Pram	Stroller
Perambulator	Stroller
Promenade	Boardwalk
Race course	Race track, The track
Queue	Line
Restaurant bill	Restaurant check
Rs. 20 Note	\$20 Bill
Rubber	Eraser ("rubber" is the slang for condom)
Snap	Picture
Solicitor	Lawyer, Attorney

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American Language, difference between Indian English and American English Page 5 of 8

Solid	Substantial
Spectacles	Glasses
Suitcase	Suitcase, Baggage, Bag
Switchboard	Power strip ("switchboard" is for a telephone operator)
Tap	Faucet
Talkies	Movie theater
Tea towel	Dish towel
Timber	Timber, Lumber
Tin (of food)	Can
To dispatch	To ship
To fix	To install
Toilet	Restroom
Torch	Flashlight
To repair	To fix
Trade union	Labor union
Transistor	Radio
Two-in-One	Boom box
Washing clothes	Doing laundry

Pronunciation Difference

Indian English	American English
Carolina	Carolina
Regional	Riganaal
Schedule	Skedul
Sami	Semal
Vitamin	Vaitamin

Shopping

Indian English	American English
Bill	Check
Carrier bag	Shopping bag
Chemist	Drugstore, Pharmacy
Cotton (real of)	Thread
Cotton wool	Absorbent cotton
Dispensary	Drugstore, Pharmacy
Drawing pins	Thumb tacks
Expensive stores	Upscale stores
Hair slide	Barrette
Jumble sale	Garage sale, Yard sale
Line of open shops, shopping center	Strip mall ("strig club" has a totally different meaning)
Material (by yard)	Fabric
Provision store	Grocery store

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American Language, difference between Indian English and American English Page 6 of 8

Provision store man	Grocer
Shop	Shop, Store
Shop assistant	Salesclerk
Shopping center	Mall
Vegetable store	Grocery store

Spelling Difference

Indian English	American English
Cheque	Check
Centre	Center
Colour	Color
Dialled	Diald
Grey	Gray
Jewellery	Jewelry
Labour	Labor
Omelette	Omelet
Programme	Program
Theatre	Theater
Travelling	Traveling

Telephone

Indian English	American English
Charge call	Collect call
Directory	Phone book
Personal call	Person-to-person
Put the phone down	Hang up, Disconnect
Mobile Phone	Cell Phone
Reverse the charges	Collect call
STD code	Area code
STD/PCO	Public phone, Pay phone
Telephone call	Phone call, Call
To ring up	To call/to give
To telephone	Buzz
Trunk call	Long distance call

Theater

Indian English	American English
Dress circle	Mezzanine
Houseful	Full house
Gallery	Balcony
Stalls	Orchestra
Upper Circle	First balcony

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American Language, difference between Indian English and American English Page 7 of 8

Transportation

Indian English	American English
Accelerate the car	Step on the gas
Air hostess	Flight attendant
Bonnet	Hood
Boot, dicky	Trunk
Car accelerator	Gas pedal
Car parking	Parking lot
Caravan	Trailer or RV (recreational vehicle)
Coach	Bus
Cycle	Bike
Diesel	Fuel
Footpath	Sidewalk
Flyover	Overpass
Gear stick	Stick shift
Highway	Freeway, Expressway, Interstate
Lorry	Truck
Motorcycle	Motor bike
Motor ways	Freeways
Mudguard/wing	Motor bike
Number plate	License plate
Overbridge	Overpass
Pavement	Sidewalk
Petrol	Gas
Petrol pump	Gas station
Punctured tire	Flat tire
Railtrack	Railroad
Return ticket	Round trip
Silencer	Muffler (a "silencer" is used to quiet the sound of a gun)
Signal	Signal, Traffic light
Single ticket	One-way ticket
Take a lift	Get a ride
Taxi	Taxi, Cab
Traffic signal	Traffic light
Tram	Streetcar
Underbridge	Underpass
Underground	Subway
Windscreen	Windshield
Zebra Crossing	Crosswalk

Idioms

Indian English	American English
A place to park	Driveway

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American Language, difference between Indian English and American English Page 8 of 8

A place to drive	Parkway
Anti clockwise	Counter-clockwise
Black money	Tax free, Undeclared income
Bunk school	Skip class
Convince someone	Talk someone into
Dismissed (from job)	Fired (from job, for fault of employee) Laid off (from job, for no fault of employee)
Fainted	Passed out
Get down (from a bus)	Get off (of a bus)
Give the car some race	Speed up the car
How is everything?	How is it going?
How are you?	How are you doing?
I am angry at you	I am mad at you
Indian	Indian - Native American East Indian - Person from India
Intimate	Inform
Issue a book (from the library)	Check out a book (from the library)
Join duty	Report for work
Let's make a move	Let's go
Let's push off	Let's go
Mess up	Screw up
Passed out	Graduated
Push the accelerator	Step on the gas
Ring up (someone)	Call up (someone)
Sleep in the afternoon	Nap
Standing from a constituency	Running for an election
Straight-away	Right away
The line is engaged	It's busy / I got a busy tone
To appear in (give) a test	To take a test
To be out of station	To be out of town
Too good	Cool
To post (a letter)	To mail (a letter)
To submit	To turn in
Very Close Relations	Intimate relations
Washing up machine	Dishwasher
Wash up	Do the dishes
Wash your hands	Wash up
What is time?	Do you have the time?

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Appendix 10

The Powerpoint slides of the co-teaching lessons

Hot Potato 


A controversial **political** & **social** issue

What is it about???



Destory?
or
Restore?


What is the issue?



Four Major Rivers Restoration Project



Four Major Rivers Restoration Project
The 1,000-Day Promise
The Four Major Rivers Restoration Project

 **Today's Aims**

Students **are able to**

- 1** understand the *Four Major Rivers Restoration Project*.
- 2** discuss the pros and cons of the project.



Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

1. What was the original plan for 4 rivers project?

- ① The Great Caramel Plan
- ② The Great Camel Plan
- ③ The Great Canal Plan
- ④ The Great Candy Plan

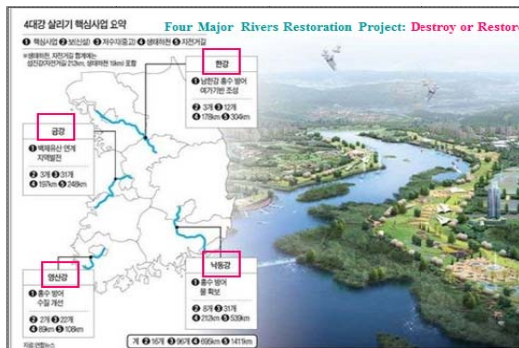
Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

2. What is not one of four rivers on the project?

- ① ~~Seomjingang~~ Hangang
- ② Yeongsangang
- ③ Geumgang
- ④ Nakdonggang

Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

3. Where is Geumgang located on the map?



Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

4. How many small dams (Bo) will be built around 4 rivers?

- ① 20
- ② 21
- ③ 22
- ④ 23

Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

5. How much money will be invested on the project?

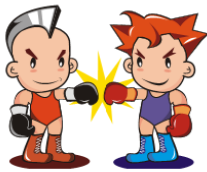
- ① 10.2 billion won ② 20.2 billion won
- ③ 10.2 trillion won ④ 22.2 trillion won

Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

6. When will the project be completed?

- ① 2010 ② 2011 ③ 2012 ④ 2013

Mind map!!!



Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

 PROS!!!

- 1. 수질 개선 : Improve water quality
- 2. 자연재해 방지 : Prevent natural disaster
- 3. 생태계 보호 : Protect eco-system

Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

 CONS!!!

- 1. 수질 악화 : Decrease water quality
- 2. 환경 파괴 : Destroy environment
- 3. 예산 낭비 : Waste huge budget





Let's Discuss

- ▶ Expert leads the discussion
- ▶ Korean is allowed for a word level.
- ▶ After the discussion, present it for the whole class..

Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: **Destroy or Restore?**

Write Your Own Opinion!

Dear, the Korean president...

Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

The Second Period



Students are able to

1

critically examine the project with diverse views.

2

self-edit or peer-edit their writing.

Let's skim & scan!

- ▶ Go to your station for reading.
- ▶ Underline what you don't know & raise your hand for teacher's help.



Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?

Write Your Second Draft

and add one more paragraph.



Four Major Rivers Restoration Project: Destroy or Restore?



What can we do with 22.2 trillion won?

- ▶ free lunch - 10 trillion won
- ▶ free university - 10 trillion won
- ▶ half free university - 5 trillion won
- ▶ free kindergarten - 9 trillion won
- ▶ free high school - 3 trillion won
- ▶ irregular to regular worker - 1.2 trillion won a year
- ▶ normalization of Ssangyong motor - 1 trillion won

Appendix 11

Pictures of English Room in Masan Girls' Middle School



Picture 1. Main entrance of English Room



Picture 2. Group work-oriented tables



Picture 3. Electronic board



Picture 4. 3D Virtual Studio for role play



Picture 5. Computers for Internet search



Picture 6. English library



Picture 7. Newspaper stands and Music station



Picture 8. Movie theater

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