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**Critical Linguistic Analysis Problematizes SLA's Notion of
the 'Good Language Learner' in South Korea**

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SL/10/03 Do you think there is a thing as a good language learner? To what extent do you think it is possible for people to become better language learners?

1.0

Introduction

Globalization has brought English to the forefront of the world as the global lingua franca. Nations are concerned with the well-being of their citizens, which in a global capitalist system stems from national economic success. Understanding this clearly, nations who wish to advance economically have realized the importance of having citizens who can speak the lingua franca in order to participate in the diverse variety of inter-linguistic communications that the globalization process entails. This becomes problematic particularly in '*Expanding circle*'* (see appendix 3) countries like the subject of this discussion, South Korea (henceforth Korea), where there was historically no need to speak English. Still, too, as the population is monolingual and linguistically and ethnically homogeneous (Korean), there is no immediate domestic need to speak English. But, in order to survive and flourish economically in the age of globalization, it has become necessary for the people to possess the will to learn to speak English. This has been achieved through an *integrative/instrumental* (terms defined in section 2.2.2) motivation model that prompts Koreans to learn English with such fervor that the phenomenon has become known as 'English fever' (Jeon, 2009; 231).

In this discussion I will first explore the historical context of the good language learner (henceforth gll) in *SLA* (*Second Language Acquisition*), and then more specifically do so in relation to Korea and its motivation model with the motive of showing that while yes, there is such a thing as a Korean gll, which is produced through the motivation model, implications related to such learners and the prospect of Koreans' becoming better learners becomes problematic in terms of *ethics** (*Please see appendix 1 for a disambiguation of technical terms*) and efficiency. Thus, because it is my ideological motive as a '*critical linguist*'* (see Pennycook, 2001 for an exhaustive description of critical linguistics) observing SLA theory, and because it has poignant implications for the discussion of SLA's gll within the overarching global context, the gll will be analyzed using SLA *and* critical linguistic research. First, then the gll's historical significance in SLA research will be discussed.

2.0 Origin of the good language learner discourse

In Second Language Acquisition (SLA) the notion of the *gll* originated, at least in published form, from Joan Rubin's 'seminal' 1975 essay "What the Good Language Learner Can Teach Us" (Griffiths, 2008; 1). In the essay Rubin argues that by observing glls' characteristic behaviors and strategies (Rubin, 1975; 43) it is possible to teach such strategies to poorer learners, thus improving their language learning ability. This discourse has become controversial because it is not possible for researchers to directly observe learners' minds as they learn, and because learning success can be attributed arbitrarily to either innate or learned variables, depending on which disciplinary perspective a researcher adopts (Saville-Troike, 2006; 17). Despite the controversy, the characteristics associated with glls have shifted little over the past thirty -five years.

2.1 Classic characteristics of good language learners

Originally Rubin argued that "good language learning depends on at least three variables: aptitude, motivation, and opportunity" (Rubin, 1975; 42). A gll, then, either possesses or can develop these three variables, or characteristics (Griffiths, 2008; 1). Since Rubin's publication, researchers have developed and expanded Rubin's argument in an attempt to more specifically characterize glls. Some of the characteristics associated with glls are:

A good language learner:

- a is a willing and accurate guesser
- b tries to get a message across even if specific language knowledge is lacking
- c is willing to make mistakes
- d constantly looks for patterns in the language
- e practises as often as possible
- f analyses his or her own speech and the speech of others
- g attends to whether his or her performance meets the standards he or she has

	learned
h	enjoys grammar exercises
i	begins learning in childhood
j	has an above-average IQ
k	has good academic skills
l	has a good self-image and lots of confidence

(Lightbown & Spada, 1999; 50)

Apart from having a high IQ, each of the above characteristics can be viewed as strategies a potential gll should develop, and all of them can be further classified into five main categories: “motivation, aptitude, personality, intelligence, and learner preferences” (ibid; 51).

Again, while there are stark similarities between Lightbown and Spada’s five main categories and Rubin’s original characteristics, discussion of the gll becomes controversial and problematic because several of the characteristics cannot be unequivocally assigned to just one of the main categories. Although it may appear there is a correlation between two factors, this does not guarantee there is a causal relationship between the two characteristics; merely because two characteristics exist at the same time, it cannot be inferred that one caused the other. Thus, it often cannot be ascertained why a gll exhibits a given characteristic (Lightbown and Spada, 1999; 51-52).

Also, because “it is not possible to directly observe and measure qualities” like motivation and intelligence, as such qualities are actually “just labels for a whole range of characteristics and behaviors” (ibid), some gll research is seen as ‘quite speculative’ (Saville-Troike, 2006; 82). Apparently one cause for skepticism is that although there have been numerous studies on glls by capable researchers, it is still clear that some people learn second languages as well as native speakers, and some fail miserably, even after employing gll strategies designed by SLA researchers. Thus, to assert that there is a panacea for poor language learners in the form of a formulaic strategy would be misleading; as Brumfit suggests, “[T]he successful or good language learner, with predetermined or overall characteristics, does not exist. There are many individual ways of learning a language successfully” (Brumfit, C.; cited in Naiman et al, 1978; ix).

But, although there is no guaranteed formula for gll success, in the literature describing gll tendencies one of the main factors, along with aptitude (De Bot, et. al, 2005; 75), that determines success is perennially cited; this is motivation (Brown, H., 2007; Gardner, R., 1960, 2001; Dörnyei, 1999, 2003, 2005). Because it is one of the main factors responsible for producing glls, and because it has ethical implications related to critical linguistics, motivation will be the primary concept focused upon in subsequent sections.

2.2.1 Which aspect of motivation?

Motivation became a major field of research in SLA in the 1950s and has since seen three paradigm shifts in research theory: ‘the ‘social psychological period’ (1959-1990), the ‘cognitive-situated period’ (the 1990s), and the ‘process-oriented period’ (2000-the present) (Littlemore, J. & Willis, D., 1997; Unit 9; 4). Motivation discussed across these diverse theoretical periods is a broad, ambiguous concept (Kimura, Y.; et. al, 2001; 48), to avoid confusion, as Dörnyei recommends, it is crucial to be explicit about which aspects of motivation researchers focus upon (1999; 527). So, because “English is *integral* to the globalisation processes that characterise the contemporary post-cold-war phase of aggressive casino capitalism, [and] economic restructuring...” (Phillipson, 2001; 187) [*my emphasis*], and because it appears that “as a lingua franca English will continue to dictate protocol throughout the better part of this century ” (Modiano, M., 2000; 344), the world’s people have a clear motive to learn English in order to survive economically. This motivation is most appropriately reified and realized in terms of integrative and instrumental motivation. Thus, in the attempt to demonstrate whether a Korean gll exists, I will first describe essential aspects of integrative and instrumental motivation. Then I will describe learner motivation specifically within the national context in which I teach as it is situated within the surrounding global context, because as Coetzee-Van Rooy argues, interpreting data gathered using motivational *models** should be analyzed “within the context in which the second language is learnt” (2006; 447). Such analysis is crucial because differences in sociolinguistic context may cause a given model (i.e., the integrative motivation model) to become inapplicable or untenable for use (*ibid*).

2.2.2 Integrative motivation and instrumental motivation

In SLA social psychologists Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert are credited with providing the initial impetus for L2 motivation research (Dörnyei, Z., 2005; 67). SLA motivation studies dates back at least fifty years (Gardner, 1959), and originally included the construct of *integrative motivation*. Integrative motivation results in, or is affected by, an *integrative orientation*, which is described as “a positive interpersonal/affective disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with, and even become similar to, valued members of that community” (Dörnyei, Z., 2003; 5). Research into integrative motivation revealed another type of motivation, *instrumental motivation*, which contrasts, though may operate simultaneously with integrative motivation (Dörnyei, 2005), and is characterized by learners’ being compelled to learn a second language for practical reasons, or to attain “instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical material, translation and so forth” (Brown, H., 2007; 170).

Integrative and instrumental motivation will be the constructs exploited to determine whether a Korean gll exists, first broadly in terms of collective national motivation to learn English.

3.0 Group and individual motivation to become good language learners.

While motivation studies have often deemed individual learner motivation to learn a language to be significant, group motivation at the level of the national context places Korea coherently within the overarching global context, and thus preempts the magnified analysis of motivation at the micro-level— that of the individual Korean gll.

3.1 Global motivation realized at the national level.

After the Korean War came to an end, especially following General Park Chung Hee’s military coup d’état in 1961, Korea was motivated to bolster its national economy in order to stave off at least three threats to national welfare: hunger, invasion from North Korea, and unwanted political/economic influence from the United States. This economic

reconstitution was accomplished in terms of four phases: increased exporting, heavy and chemical industries' development, retreat from an industrial policy, and relaxation of economic regulation (Kim, I.J. 2000; 63).

Then, at the onset of globalization, Koreans began to believe that learning *the* international lingua franca would become crucial to enabling continued economic and political advancement. Thus, as early as the beginning of the 1980s globalization with a focus on English became part of the Korean economic vamp (Kim, S. 2000; 242). Effected by international exposure from the 1986 Asian Games, the 1988 Olympic Games, and Korea's national globalization campaign in the 1990s, Koreans have come to understand English as the most crucial skill needed to "survive in the international community" (Yim, 2007; 38). In order to succeed nationally, it is crucial to compete globally; conversely, national competition is crucial to global success. Korea as a nation, and individual citizens simultaneously, have grasped the importance of learning English to an extent which is indicated by the 'English Fever' (Jeong, 2004; 40) that has affected the country. Incubating within this 'fever' are several interrelated instrumental and integrative variables that motivate learners to improve their English knowledge, and in turn their nation's political and economic lot.

3.2 Individual learner motivation at the national level.

Instrumental and integrative motivations have been deemed too intertwined and interdependent to be viewed as autonomous concepts (Dörnyei, 2005, Kimura, 2001, Lamb 2004), which is particularly apparent in Korea. But, in the attempt to flush out subtle implications that depends on individual concentrated analyses, salient instrumental and integrative motivational aspects are initially analyzed separately.

3.2.1 Instrumental motivation for the individual learner

It could be argued that for Korea as a country, "English study fervor" has been nothing more than a drive to acquire a tool for achieving economic competitiveness in the international arena, and for the individual it has been a means of gaining access to either a prestigious university or to a company with

good benefits and prospects for promotion (Yim, 2007; 41).

So, as Yim's argument implies, there is an instrumental motivation to learn English that is rewarded with personal success in society. And, as Park explains,

Over the past several decades, since the mid 1960s, Korea's middle class has rapidly expanded with the country's successful industrialization and economic growth. During the 1980s and 1990s, Korea's economic growth significantly resulted in the spread of middle class habits and life-styles...where a diversity of values and ideologies coexist, and where one can attain one's goals through education and the burning passion to climb the social ladder (Park, 2004; 160) [.]

increasing national success brought with it the desire, and thus motivating factor, for individual social success, the attainment of which, starting in the 1990s, has included English education. In this educational realm

“English test scores (especially the TOEIC) are one of the most influential factors for college admission in South Korea, and for getting a job and a promotion in a large Korean company ...Top ranked Korean high schools which directly feed into top ranked universities which in turn feed into the best jobs, only accept students with near-fluency in English” (Prey, 2005; 97).

Instrumental motivation to learn English at the academic level merely precedes the more significant instrumental motivation of succeeding in the professional world. This is apparent in the Korean business realm: “Most companies now include an English proficiency test in their recruitment examinations, the results of which not only determine employability but also benefits awarded and future promotions ” (Yim, 2007; 40-41). Of course there are jobs in Korea which do not require any knowledge of English, but because now a key requirement of the most prestigious educations and jobs is having a high level of English competence (as measured by tests like TOEFL, TOEIC, IELTS, and national college entrance exams), students and employees are consciously improving their English, that is, attempting to become better language learners in order to ensure a chance at societal success.

Critically, though, the concern with such instrumental motivation is that Koreans may not efficiently achieve the global context's intended goal of improving

communicative competence, but merely improve test-taking ability (Baek; Korea Times) with minimal communicative improvement. The problem, which is revisited in the next section, may be that students who do not do well on tests are not practicing enough; (i.e., not investing enough money on English education). Concerns stemming from flaws in the instrumental motivation are also related to the general inefficiency of the motivation model, and will be readdressed in subsequent sections (4.0) in terms of integrative motivation.

3.2.2 Integrative motivation

The version of integrative motivation that characterizes Korea is problematic because it closely resembles neither the classic integrative motivation (integrativeness) model nor more recent models of integrative motivation; Korean motivation appears to be poised precariously between both such models.

Originally, ‘integrativeness’, as postulated by Lambert, involved two integrative components— ‘orientation’ and ‘motivation’. ‘Integrative orientation’ is “a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other [language] group” , while ‘integrative motivation’ refers to “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of language learning plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language” (Gardner, 1985; cited in Coetzee, 2006; 438). More simply described, “[t]he core aspect of . . .the integrative disposition is some sort of psychological and emotional ‘identification’” (Dörnyei and Csizer, 2002; 453) with the target culture and language. More recently this original notion of integrative motivation has received criticism from researchers (e.g., Lamb, 2004; Tollefson, 1991; Coetzee -Van Rooy, 2006) because it is based on the North American learning context (see Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Schumann, 1978), which is a monolingual learning context characterized by learners’ need to ‘assimilate’ and ‘acculturate’ with the target language (English) and culture (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006; 441). This model is said to fail to account for several current “world Englishes learners” (ibid) learning contexts, in which learners often do *not* attempt to assimilate with ‘Traditional Inner-circle’* (See appendix 3) (Kachru, 1992; 356) varieties of English, but still successfully use English “as a lingua franca among

non-native speakers of English” (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006; 446).

The criticism, though, that the original integration model has received in more recent contexts is not viable in the Korean context. As Korea has “one of the most [ethnically and culturally] homogeneous societies in the world” (Guimaraeas, 2006; 6), it is characterized by a “monolingual [Korean] society that enjoys a very high degree of congruity of speech community” (Coulmas, 1999; cited in Yoo, 2005; 5). English is not used as a lingua franca between distinct languages; there is only Korean. So, at the same time, due to its cultural and linguistic homogeneity, and its manifest political sovereignty, Korea would not seem to be compelled to assimilate or acculturate with any foreign language or culture. Considering its relation with English, then, Korea exhibits a unique version of integrativeness that corresponds with neither the original integration models (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Schumann, 1978), nor contemporary models (Lamb, 2004; Tollefson, 1991; Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006). Because of the simultaneous instrumental motivation, Koreans can be seen to be integrating domestically with a shared national success ideology, which offers an answer to Shaw’s (1993; 24) question:

If an integrative motivation is still deemed necessary [for Asian learners of English as a second language], must it always be in terms of a native-speaking group or is it possible to be interpreted to also mean a desire to become a member of a *local* English-speaking elite” (Shaw, 1983; 24, cited in Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006; 442)? (*Emphasis my own*)

Yes—Koreans have the desire to become successful, which is synonymous with becoming elite, for which English ability gauges and allots success. So, in an interdependent causal relationship, for which tracing the causal origin is extremely complicated (and beyond the scope of this argument), Koreans are motivated integratively domestically *and* internationally, and instrumentally domestically *and* internationally to learn English. This causes the answer to the question, “Is there such a thing as a gll in Korea?” to be a hesitantly paradoxical and problematic, “Yes”; the Korean gll is synchronously constructed and gauged using the unique motivation model—the problematic, paradoxical ‘yes’ is better explored in relation to the other question, “Is it possible for Koreans to become better language learners?”

4.0 Can Koreans become better language learners ?

In the previous section I intended to demonstrate that it is possible to suggest there is a thing as a gll in Korea, and that instrumental/integrative motivation as constructed by the global and national contexts has become a crucial element in conditioning learners to want to improve, and thus, to improve their English. What is not so clear, though, is the answer to the question, “Is it ethical to become a gll in Korea?” which can be answered through the two related questions, “Are *all* the learners improving?” and “Could they be improving faster?” These questions are answered by peering more critically into the Korean learning context.

4.1 Is it ethical to become a good learner in Korea?

4.1.1 The expense of producing a good language learner within the Korean instrumental/integrative motivation model.

Because it is a monolingual EFL country, Korea has had to supplement its lack of natural settings for learners to practice English according to the gll strategies that are available within the domestic context. Such strategies are taught within, and have materialized into, a vast English industry* (*see appendix 2*) that represents the infrastructure for the national integrative/instrumental motivation model. This industry, which directly affects the lives of citizens wishing to become successful (virtually everybody), has several flaws from an ethical standpoint. Firstly, for many people it is too expensive to go through the process of learning English within the industry. Although it is impossible to calculate an exact average, it could conceivably cost greater than \$500,000(U.S.)* (*See appendix 2*) for a student to learn English from the age of three to twenty-two (non-Korean age), thus poised to become one of society’s best glls. Such a high cost is not affordable for a large percentage of the population when you consider the average Korean yearly disposable income is roughly \$ 11,463 (U.S.) (total personal average income; (worldsalaries.org; 2005). So, although there is a system that can produce glls, it is not economically possible for everyone to participate in the system.

From an ethical viewpoint, it can equally plausibly be seen that there is not such a thing as a Korean gll because becoming one correlates with how much money you are willing and able to spend. For many Koreans, then, becoming a gll is as unlikely as winning the lottery. This is not the Korean English industry 's (motivation model's) only ethical inconsistency—

4.1.2 The inefficient process of becoming a good learner

4.1.2.1 Untenability of the ELT's native teacher ideology

As described in section 3, the Korean motivation model is a unique blend of integrative and instrumental elements. This model is based upon standard native speaker ELT theories and practices (Jeon, 2009) that transmit the ideology “English is best taught monolingually, by native speakers, as early as possible, and as much as possible, and preferably to the exclusion of other languages” (Pennycook, 1998, p. 158) . Inefficiency results because the ELT ideology not only “leads Koreans to assume the superiority of native English teachers and the inferiority of local Korean teachers of English” (Jeon, 2009; 237), it can lead them to assume they must attain L1 speaker -like proficiency based on Inner-circle models of English (Cook, 1999). Such attainment is highly unlikely without significant opportunity to practice or assimilate with a traditional Inner -Circle model of English (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2002; 453) In such EFL contexts “an instrumental orientation may be more helpful in promoting successful learning” (Lamb, 2004; 4), (which relates to concerns about instrumental motivation discussed in section 3.2.1). This is not accessible (to most citizens) at a reasonable price while still on Korean soil.

4.1.2.2 Untenability of L1 speaker teaching requirements

Simultaneously, many of the L1 instructors that ELT 's ideology have made appealing to Koreas are not specialized in teaching English in any way other than that they exhibit absolute fluency; an L1 speaker with an under graduate diploma in any field can easily get a teaching visa (*please see Dave's ESL Café; eslcafe.com or*

worknplay.co.kr for extensive lists of teaching positions listed with such requirements). And, although many L1 teachers have no experience teaching English, nor linguistic expertise, they are viewed as superior to qualified instructors from other ESL/EFL contexts and Korean instructors, and earn much higher wages. At the same time, though, in one of the most bizarre paradoxes of the Korean adopted ELT model, L1 teachers are often not respected as ‘legitimate teachers’ by Korean teachers and students (Jeon, 2009). This contradiction, which also contributes to inefficiency in the system, not only originates from teachers’ inability to teach linguistic concepts, but may be linked to another significant aspect of Korea’s sociolinguistic context.

4.1.3 Historical Korean nationalism/xenophobia

Stemming from its unique political history, Korea displays an extreme sense of ‘ethnocultural nationalism’ which is manifested in the form of ‘linguistic nationalism’ (Yoo, 2005; 5). Nationalism is so strong that it has been described as ‘linguistic xenophobia’ (Coulmas, 1999; 410). This nationalism/xenophobia developed particularly after the Japanese colonial occupation in the early 20th century (Yoo, 2005; 5). Presently an air of cynical mistrust of foreigners still envelopes the people, which I encounter daily. Xenophobia, then does not complement the ELT-based integrative model, and may be responsible for statistics that suggest inefficient practice— Koreans perform poorly on tests like IELTS and TOEFL despite investing 15 billion dollars annually on the English industry (Kang; Korea Times). In my personal experience students do not practice and seldom study outside of class, improving at a rate most kindly described as sluggish. Thus the appropriateness of Korea’s motivation model is again called into question, which suggests that the model requires restructuring.

4.1.4 Untenability of the Korean motivation model

As Coetzee-Van Rooy warns:

the notion of integrativeness is untenable for second-language learners in world

Englishes contexts. Researchers who use the construct should at least interrogate its use within the context in which the second language is learnt... (2006; 447)

Apparently the researchers and politicians who designed Korea's model have not interrogated its use within their highly monolingual EFL context.

So, while the instrumental aspect of Korea's motivation model *can* prompt good English learning, existing gll strategies taught within Korea's English industry are either primarily accessible only to those who can invest a substantial amount of money, or often result in learners who are good at taking tests but not adept at communicating in settings that require real interpersonal communication. Thus, I agree with Warschauer (2000) that in order for Koreans to become better learners, they should "use the language less as an object of study and more as an additional language of their own to have an impact on and change the world . . . to express their identity and make their voices heard" (530). Only then will they have a clearly perceptible and concrete motive to speak English. Presently this is not possible for all learners in Korea, so in the conclusion I argue that the motivation model that exists should be adapted to be more ethical, efficient, and relevant within the global context.

5.0 Conclusion/ Implications

Viewed less critically, or rather '*self-reflexively*'* (Pennycook, 2001; 8), it can be seen that there is such a thing as a gll in Korea, and these glls are currently improving their English ability at a natural and relatively (historically) rapid pace. This gll is created by and measured in terms of an instrumental/integrative motivation construct that is unique to monolingual EFL sociolinguistic contexts such as South Korea. Within this model glls of English are rewarded with societal success; that is, there is a general tendency for glls to have more success than poor language learners. Simultaneously, due to glls' continued improvement, South Korea's economical and *political** *power** within the global context is strengthened, and the future shines bright.

Viewed critically, though, the Korean 'gll', as it exists within the motivation model, is flawed ethically, and inefficient. The rate at which English learners improve generally correlates with the amount of money a given learner can invest in the English

industry. This has negative implications for those who cannot afford the relatively expensive costs associated with learning within the Korean English industry. Those who cannot pay to become glls have lower chances of procuring societal success. Simultaneously, the costs associated with becoming a gll are exorbitant because the motivation model is inappropriate to the Korean sociolinguistic context, which accounts for inefficiency within the motivation model. Although economically wealthy English learners in Korea will continue to improve, and thus become successful, economically poor learners are much less likely to improve, and so face a harsher future. If the motivation model were more ethically conscious, and in turn became more efficient, Korea's national political and economic power would increase more rapidly than is possible within the present construct.

In light of these findings, I conclude by advancing my ideologically critical linguistic (humble) opinion. Because globalization has mandated that the world learn English, the Korean people should take measures to ensure that *all* of its citizens have an equal opportunity to seize the linguistic political power that accompanies becoming a gll of English. And, they should pursue such power while simultaneously protecting their own rich cultural and linguistic heritage in order to avoid the dangers described by Tsuda (1994) that are associated with the '*diffusion of English*'* paradigm—nevertheless, this is for a future project.

6.0 References

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- <http://www.worknplay.co.kr/> 'No. 1 Korea job Resource Guide'.

'diffusion of English'/'ecology of language' paradigms- “Overall there seem to be two [world] language policy options, a diffusion-of-English paradigm and an ecology-of-language paradigm. The first is characterized by triumphant capitalism, its science and technology, and a monolingual view of modernization and internationalization. The ecology-of-language paradigm involves building on linguistic diversity worldwide, promoting multilingualism and foreign language learning, and granting linguistic human rights to speakers of all languages” (Phillipson, 1996; 429).

ethical- “[T]o develop an adequate critical applied linguistics, we do have indeed have to engage with questions of morals and *ethics*” (Pennycook, 2001; 65).
Critical work... has to engage with questions of inequality, injustice, rights, and wrongs (ibid; 6)... compassion grounded in a sharp critique of inequality ... grounds our [applied linguists'] work (ibid; 7).

critical- “Applied linguistics has a tendency “to operate with... decontextualised contexts ... one of the key challenges for critical applied linguistics, therefore, is to find ways of mapping micro and macro relations ... between concepts of society, ideology, global capitalism... class... [and] second language acquisition ...” (ibid; 5).
“A central element of critical applied linguistics, therefore, is a way of exploring language in social contexts that goes beyond mere correlations between language and society and instead raises more critical questions to do with access, power, disparity, desire, difference... resistance [and] insists on a historical understanding of how social relations came to be the way they are ...” (ibid; 6).

politics- Politics are “understandings of *power*” Pennycook, 2001; 29). The notion of politics “takes as its central concern the notion of *power*” (Pennycook, 2001; 27) (my emphasis).

power- Although, as Pennycook argues, power is an extremely ambiguous term, two of its denotations are “ability to act or produce an effect”... and “possession of control, authority, or influence over others” (power, Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary, 913). Power is “socially constructed and maintained” (Pennycook, 2001; 28), and with social relations between people, language plays a central role in each of the previously denotated situations; thus “we need to know how language relates to power” (ibid; 29). Critical linguistics, then, implies “always engaging with questions of *power* and inequality” (ibid; 4) (my emphasis).
”...

self-reflexivity- self-reflexivity implies a constant skepticism towards one’s own argument; not just others’ arguments: “If critical applied linguistics needs to retain a constant skepticism, a constant questioning of the givens of applied linguistics, this problematizing stance must also be turned on itself” (Pennycook, 2001; 8).

Appendix 2 A sample of various fees associated with learning English within South Korea's motivation model (English industry)

(Websites written in Korean not listed in references but can be accessed with the following links).

<http://blog.daum.net/armnuri/6830197>

University Application Essay writing Class

Age: 15-18

Price of instruction for four essays: 10,000,000 won.

http://news.sbs.co.kr/section_news/news_read.jsp?news_id=N1000621275

English Kindergarten

Age: 3-7

Yearly Price: 20,000,000 won

http://blog.daum.net/ftc_news/13391846

General English Hak-won

Age: 8-18

Minimum monthly cost: 300,000 won

Average total cost for eleven years: 40,000,000 won

<http://camp.uhak.com/motherPage.asp?p=g&s=3|0|0&cp=/Notice/List.Asp&ViewContent=1>

English Summer Camp in the U.S.

Age: 8-18

Cost of four week enrollment: 6,000,000 won

Cost for eleven summers: 66,000,000 won

Personal private English tutoring (Based on the cost of my own classes to students)

Age: 8-23

Private class: 60,000 won per hour

Yearly cost calculated at two hours per week: 6,336,000 won

Prey, R. (2005; 96).

International exchange program to an Inner-circle learning context

Age: 3-23

Total average yearly cost: \$24,000,000 Canadian

Total cost of four years; a student could choose more or less: Approximately \$100,000 Canadian

<http://wbztv.com/local/harvard.university.tuition.2.1574671.html>

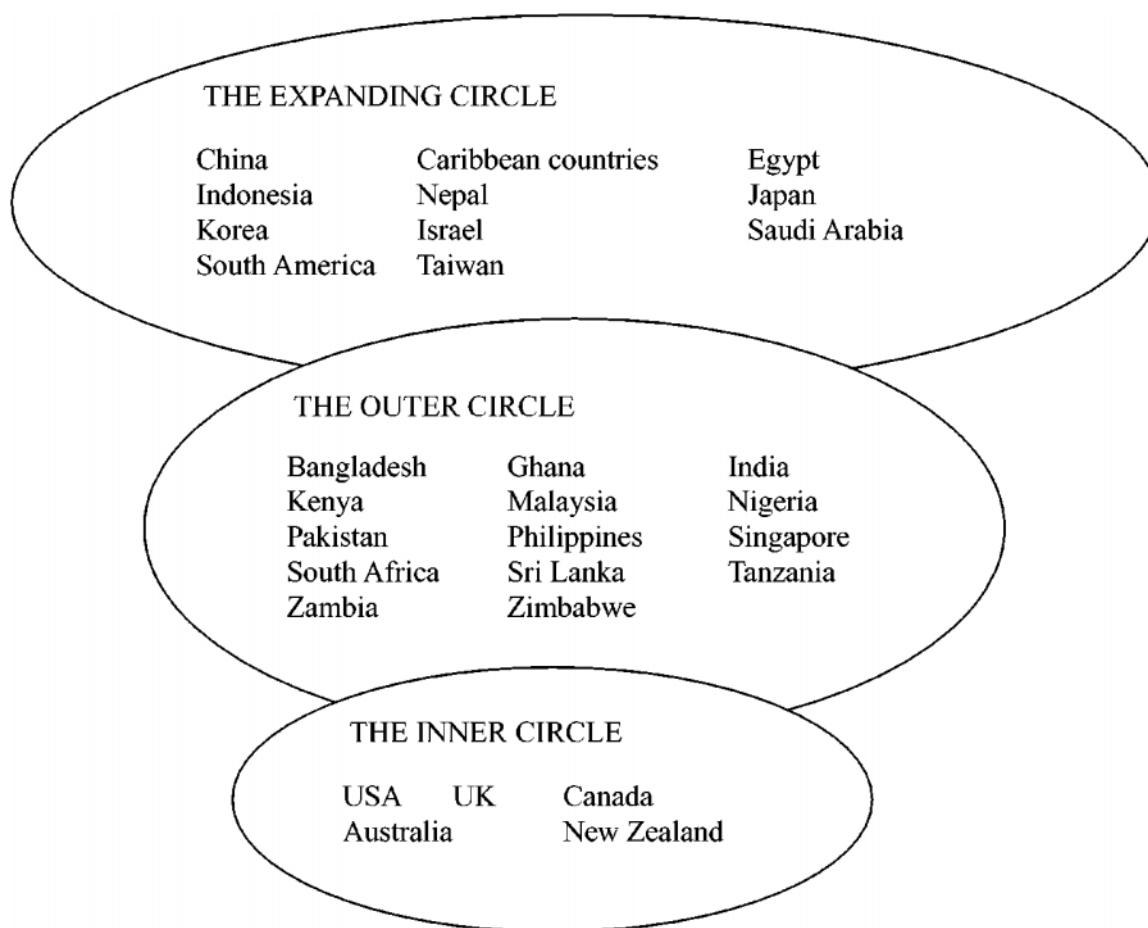
International exchange program to an elite university

e.g., Harvard University yearly tuition: \$50,724 U.S.

Total cost of four years: Approximately \$200,000 U.S.

As the reader can see, the total cost of an English education is arbitrarily determined, but it could fall anywhere between \$0-\$522,000 U.S; of course, the future good language learner will be motivated to spend more money.

Appendix 3

Kachru's (1992) Concentric Circle Model

From "The Concentric Circle Model," by B. Kachru, 1992, *The other tongue: English across cultures*, p. 356.