

**KOREAN PARENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES TOWARD
THE STUDY OF ENGLISH IN SOUTH KOREA**

by
Joohee Kim

A Thesis

*Submitted to the Faculty of Purdue University
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of*

Master of Arts



Department of English
West Lafayette, Indiana
August 2020

THE PURDUE UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL
STATEMENT OF COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Dr. Margie Berns, Chair

Department of English

Dr. Tony Silva

Department of English

Dr. Dwight Atkinson

University of Arizona
Department of English

Approved by:

Dr. Margie Berns

*I dedicate this work to my loving husband, Brian; my two beloved children, Victoria and Gloria;
my mom and dad, Sanghee Han and Sukchul Kim; my parents-in-law, Beomjoo Maeng and
Yesook Lee; and most importantly, to God, who gives all strength and power, guides me to pass
through this long journey, and provides all that I need.*

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are so many people who have helped me complete this long journey. First and foremost, I would like to acknowledge and thank my advisor and committee chair, Professor Margie Berns, for her valuable time, thoughtful insights and advice, and most of all, for her patience throughout this whole process. Despite an extended pause in my work, she never gave up on me and has walked alongside me on this long path, offering continuous encouragement. She has been a wonderful mentor, not only in my academic life but also in my personal life. Without her considerate guidance and encouragement, I could not have finished this work. I have also been privileged to work with brilliant and caring committee members, Professor Tony Silva and Professor Dwight Atkinson. I deeply appreciate their continuous support. I am especially thankful for Professor Dwight, who I have spent most of my time in graduate school with and who helped me progress, supported me, and served on my committee even after moving to a different university. Finally, I would like to thank my beloved family in the U.S. and in South Korea; my husband who fully supports me in finishing my work; my dad and parents-in-law, who always support me and cheer me up; my brother, Woosung Kim, who takes care of everything I ask for in Korea; my two aunts, Jeongye Han, who has taken care of my eldest child while I have worked on this thesis, and Jungran Han, who is my closest friend and mentor; and most of all, my mom, who always believes in me and prays for me no matter what the circumstances.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	7
LIST OF FIGURES	9
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	10
ABSTRACT	11
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	12
Goals of the Research Project and Research Questions	13
Significance of the Project	14
CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL AND HISTORICAL CONTEXTS	16
The Three Concentric Circles of English	16
History of the English Language in Korea	18
English fever in South Korea	26
American English in South Korea: Why is it Dominant?	31
Standard English	36
Korean English	38
Conclusion	40
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	42
Participants	42
Instrumentation	46
Procedure	47
Data Analysis	47
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	49
Results of Part 1	49
Results of Part 2	65
CHAPTER 5: LIMITATIONS OF THE RESERACH AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	76
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSTION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS	78
APPENDIX A. SURVEY QUESTIONNARIE	82
APPENDIX B. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF VARIABLES	92
APPENDIX C. PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS	95

REFERENCES	106
------------------	-----

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Profile of Participants (N = 400)	43
Table 2 English-related Backgrounds of the Participants (N = 400)	44
Table 3 Categorization of Items in the Survey	46
Table 4 Descriptive Statistics of Importance of English	50
Table 5 Mean Comparison of the Measure of Importance of English (M1) across Demographic and Background Variables.	51
Table 6 Descriptive Statistics of Negative Perceptions and Attitudes toward English.	52
Table 7 Descriptive Statistics of Acceptance of Standard English.....	54
Table 8 Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Acceptance of Standard English (M3)” across Demographic and Background Variables	56
Table 9 Descriptive Statistics of Recognition of World Englishes.....	57
Table 10 Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Recognition of World Englishes (M4)” across Demographic and Background Variables.	58
Table 11 Descriptive Statistics of Familiarity with American English	58
Table 12 Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Familiarity with American English (M5)” across Demographic and Background Variables	59
Table 13 Descriptive Statistics of “Importance of Native-likeness”	61
Table 14 Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Importance of Native-likeness (M6)” across Demographic and Background Variables.	62
Table 15 Descriptive Statistics of Acceptance of Korean English	62
Table 16 Descriptive Statistics for Preference for NETs.....	63
Table 17 Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Preference for NETs (M8)” across Demographic and Background Variables.....	64
Table 18 All Part 2 Questions and their Results	65
Table 19 Pairs of Questions in Part 2 and Part 1	65
Table 20 Pairs of Questions Regarding General Ideas of English.....	65
Table 21 Pairs of Questions Regarding Negative Perceptions and Attitudes toward English.....	68
Table 22 Pairs of Questions Regarding Native-likeness.....	69
Table 23 Pairs of Questions Regarding Standard English and WE	70

Table 24 Pairs of Questions Regarding “Acceptance of Korean English”	71
Table 25 Pairs of Questions Regarding Preference for American English.....	72
Table 26 Pairs of Questions Regarding NETs vs NNETs	73
Table 27 General Ideas Regarding Teaching English.....	74

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Three Concentric Circles (Kachru, 1996, p. 137)	17
Figure 2. Circles of English (Crystal 1995, p. 107)	17
Figure 3. Number of international students studying in the United States in 2018/19, by country of origin.....	33

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Analysis of variance (ANOVA)	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)
Club activity (CA)	Received Pronunciation (RP)
Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	Samsung Economic Research Institute (SERI)
English-language teaching (ELT)	Special Economic Zones (SEZ)
English as a Foreign Language (EFL)	Standard English (SE)
English as a lingua franca (ELF)	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)
English as a Second Language (ESL)	Teach and Learn in Korea (TaLK)
English Program in Korea (EPIK)	Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC)
Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)	Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)
International Monetary Fund (IMF)	Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University (TEPS)
Institutional Review Board (IRB)	Trade Agreement (FTA)
International Teaching Assistants (ITAs)	United States Army Military Government in Korea (USAMGIK)
Measure (M)	World Englishes (WE)
Ministry of Education (MOE)	
Native English speakers (NSs)	
Native English teachers (NETs)	
Non-native English speakers (NNSs)	

ABSTRACT

This study investigates Korean parents' perceptions of and attitudes toward issues related to the study of English, such as the social phenomena that arise from excessive emphasis on learning English and so-called "English fever"; as well as ideas about Standard English, American English, Korean English and other varieties of English (World Englishes). This investigation was conducted using a survey that targeted Korean parents, who are the primary decision-makers when it comes to their children's English education. The survey was comprised of two sections with similarly-themed questions: one part asked respondents' opinions based on their own experiences learning English, and the second part asked about their philosophy when it came to their children's English education. In this way, the study explored whether or not respondents held contradictory attitudes between their beliefs as learners and their beliefs as parents. The results of the survey confirm that respondents view English as essential for success in South Korea, but it was also clear that they are tired of the excessive pressure placed on learning English and social problems caused by it. Additionally, they believe there is a standard English, but do not consider it to be limited to specific dialects, such as American or British English and while they perceive the existence of other varieties of English, they are less interested in learning them. Regarding their children's English education, their responses were not fully contradictory, but they did show some degree of inconsistency. For example, they preferred their children have Native English teachers and were less accepting of them being taught other varieties of English, including Korean English. Significantly, the results of this study not only challenge, but stand in contrast to results from previous studies and to prevailing social prejudices, which often portray Korean parents as English-obsessed and willing to go to any lengths to ensure the highest-quality English education for their children.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In recent years, numerous studies have explored foreign learners' perceptions of and attitudes towards the English language in countries where English is not spoken as a native language (Aslan & Akbarov 2012; Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Despagne, 2012; Friedrich, 2000; Lasagabaster, 2003; Snodin & Young, 2015; Young & Yee, 2006). Tokumoto and Shibata's (2011) study of Asian students' attitudes toward English pronunciation, for example, found that Japanese and Korean learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) cultivated an undisguised aversion to their L1-accented pronunciation and an admiration for native English pronunciation. Malaysian students, conversely, appreciated their own variety of accented English. Meanwhile, Harada (2009) suggests that the Singaporean government's "Speak Good English Movement" in 2000 aimed at eradicating Singlish, quoting Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong's disparaging definition of Singlish as a corrupted form of English: "Poor English reflects badly on us and makes us seem less intelligent and competent" (p. 71). Goh's comments, however, raise a few basic questions: Is Singlish, in fact, poor or bad English? Is it really so serious a problem as to spawn a statewide campaign aimed at its abolition? Can Singlish be construed as Singaporeans' nativized English rather than as grammatically incorrect English? This process of inquiry, in turn, also inspired my curiosity regarding the origin of Japanese and Korean EFL learners' professed shame toward their L1-accented English, in contrast to Malaysian students' satisfaction of theirs.

World Englishes (WE) scholars believe that all varieties of English are positioned equally in the sociolinguistic landscape and should thus be afforded equal respect. However, the reality faced by non-native speakers of English differs from scholarly expectations. For example, many universities in the United States have experienced International Teaching Assistants (ITAs)-related conflicts, which Kubota (2001) defined as challenges in communication between ITAs from the Outer or Expanding Circle and undergraduate students from the Inner Circle (p. 48). Kubota (2001) argued that ITAs are not solely responsible for the communication difficulties; rather, undergraduate students' intolerance of the ITAs' Englishes, which differ from the national norm, contributed to the problem. In addition, Flowerdew (2001) presented the disadvantages for non-native English speakers (NNSs) in terms of publishing papers in international journals. The study considered nativized varieties of English as a problematic aspect of NNSs' contributions

(pp. 121, 140) and actually confirmed that some reviewers of international journals were incredibly intolerant of papers submitted by NNSs.

The gap between the theoretical ideal of WE scholars and the reality that non-native English speakers face made me wonder which perceptions and attitudes native speakers of English (NSs)¹, other than those in Kubota and Flowerdew's studies, have toward their own and other varieties of English, as well as what NNSs do to facilitate their own English and WE. To answer this, I designed a study in 2009 with a questionnaire to explore how Purdue University students, both native speakers and non-native speakers—but focusing more on NS students—perceive their own and other varieties of English to determine their perceptions and attitudes toward WE. The study confirmed a similar gap between theory and practice; the students had little knowledge of World Englishes and need to be exposed to WE perspectives to ultimately understand other varieties of English. As an extension of that study, the present study will examine what Korean adults in South Korea—Korean parents, in particular—actually think about their and other varieties of English. This study thus shifts the target to NNSs who learn English as a foreign language and moves the focus to an Expanding Circle Country, South Korea.

Goals of the Research Project and Research Questions

Based on similar studies published in South Korea, which focus on social phenomena such as “English fever” (J.-K. Park, 2009) and the statistical numbers² surrounding the study of English in South Korea, this study reflects the following hypotheses: English-language teaching (ELT) in Korea is biased toward Inner Circle English (particularly American English). Study participants, therefore, admire native likeness in speaking delivery as in Tokomuto and Shibata's (2011) study, while they are frustrated with their nativized, Korean English. Also, they prefer not to learn other varieties of English and have a strong preference for native English teachers (NETs). Parents also have a strong desire to teach their children English regardless of their socioeconomic class, and they may have inconsistent answers or conflicting attitudes about the study of English and their child's English education. For example, parents may dislike the social

¹ I defined an NS as one who acquires English as a mother tongue.

² More detailed information will be provided in the next chapter, including discussion of social phenomena driven by excessive learning of English, the number of students who go abroad to learn the English language and the total amount of money paid to learn English.

pressure to learn English and the social problems driven by excessive emphasis on English, but they may also force their children to learn English and wholeheartedly support them in that endeavor. Based on these hypotheses, this study examines Korean parents' perceptions of and attitudes toward English-related issues, including WE.

The study is designed to answer three research questions:

- (1) What are the perceptions and attitudes of South Korean parents toward the following issues in relation to English-language learning: general ideas of English, Standard English, World Englishes, Korean English, and native English teachers versus non-native English teachers?
- (2) Are there any contradictory answers between Part 1 of the survey, which includes questions for participants to answer based on their own experiences of studying English as a learner, and Part 2 of the survey, which includes questions for participants to answer based on their educational philosophies as a parent?
- (3) How do the expressed perceptions and attitudes differ according to variables—in particular, gender—between mothers and fathers?

Significance of the Project

The significance of English in South Korean society has increased dramatically over time; English has become “a paramount criterion in education, employment and job-performance evaluation,” which has fueled a rise in English fever (Song, 2011, pp. 53-54). Such excessive demand for and attention to English, in turn, has resulted in negative social problems, including broken families and a phenomenon known as the wild goose family.³ Likewise, English is a major keyword in South Korea, but there is little literature and are few studies about English topics in South Korea; moreover, comparatively less literature is available regarding topics of study in World Englishes and Korean English. For example, Y. Kachru and Nelson (2006) allocated only two and a half of 436 pages to English in Korea and Korean English in their book *Asian Englishes Today: World Englishes in Asian Contexts*. This study, therefore, will contribute to an understanding of Koreans' perspectives regarding English and WE issues. Next, this study targets Korean parents, who have seldom been selected as a target in similar studies; previous studies in South Korea have targeted either college students or current English teachers.

³ Wherein the father stays in Korea to earn money while his wife and children reside in a foreign country to learn English.

Although one study targeted adults, it did not specify if the adults were parents. However, it is important to understand what Korean parents believe regarding their children's English education. There is a saying in South Korea: "A mother's ability to gather information determines her child's college admission results." This reflects Korean mothers' role and status in directing their children's education, as they are key decision-makers in this process. The problem is not only that parents' beliefs determine the learning environment for their children, but it is also easy for a child to copy or otherwise follow what his or her parents believe; for example, if a mother insists on only having an English teacher from the United States, her child may only be exposed to American English and no other Englishes. Therefore, it is necessary to determine Korean parents' beliefs. Lastly, this study is designed to reflect two perspectives of the respondents, as both learners of English and as parents, so it not only explores participants' thoughts and beliefs regarding certain topics, but it also determines whether participants have ambivalent attitudes regarding similarly-themed questions. Thus, the present study employs a survey that is divided into two parts: the first part includes questions seeking respondents' opinions based on their own experiences in learning English, and the second part comprises similar questions with similar themes, asking about their beliefs and plans for their children's English education. The two-part survey, therefore, will expose any contradictions and help ensure the validity of the study.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL AND HISTORICAL CONTEXTS

This chapter investigates the theoretical backgrounds of the topics included in the survey used to collect data for this thesis. Specifically, these include Kachru's Concentric Three Circle model, a history of the English language in Korea, the phenomenon of "English fever," the prominence of American English in South Korea, an introduction to several topics related to World Englishes, and a description of the characteristics of Korean English.

The Three Concentric Circles of English

Kachru (1989) categorizes worldwide English usage into three groups, the so-called "three circles," depending on "the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts" (p. 16).⁴ The Inner Circle refers to "the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English," in countries like the United Kingdom and the United States where English is the mother tongue. The Outer Circle refers to "the institutionalized usage of English" (p. 16), in countries like India and Singapore, that were colonized by Inner Circle countries, and where English is now used as an official language in daily life in an English as a Second Language (ESL) context. The Expanding Circle refers to countries like China and the Netherlands where English is used as an international language in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context. He also characterizes the three circles as a norm-providing Inner Circle, a norm-developing Outer Circle, and a norm-dependent Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1986, as cited in McKay, 2002, p. 54; Splunder 2012 p. 2). Similarly, Phillipson (1997) elaborates on Kachru's original distinctions, using the following categories: English-speaking countries, periphery English-speaking countries (ESL countries), and EFL countries.

⁴ Kachru proposed the three concentric circles model in 1985 at the seminar of the 50th anniversary of the British Council and since then periodically makes revisions or additions. For example, in 1996, he mapped the three circles onto a diagram. Retrieved from <https://doanbangoc.wordpress.com/2011/07/26/world-englishes/>

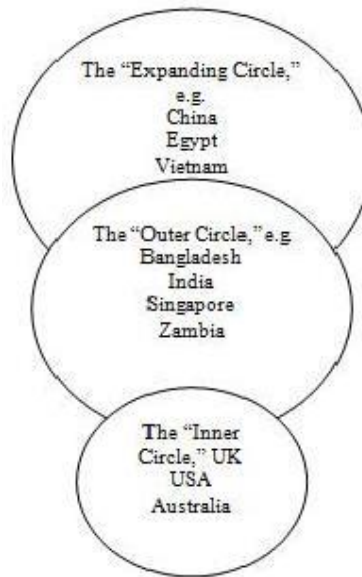


Figure 1. *Three Concentric Circles* (Kachru, 1996, p. 137)

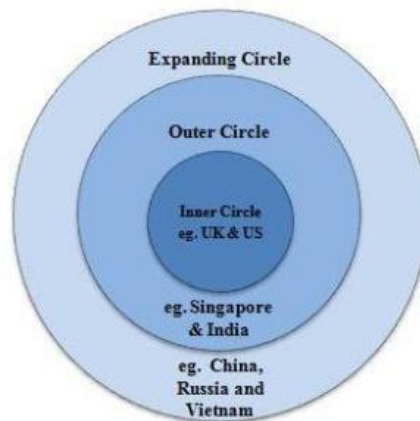


Figure 2. *Circles of English* (Crystal 1995, p. 107)

Despite the influence of Kachru's model on scholarship of World Englishes (WE),⁵ the model is problematic, especially in a contemporary society that reflects a more dynamic and

⁵ "The Circles of English highlight the pluralism of the English language (Englishes) and the equal role and status of each variety in its context of usage – the WE-ness.... the model of Circles reflects the role and status of English as a global (Crystal, 2003b; Graddol, 1997, 2006) or an international (McKay, 2002; Sharifian, 2009a; Smith, 1976) language. It also reflects the historical spread of English and the acquisition of English" (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Kachru, 1985). Retrieved from <https://doanbangoc.wordpress.com/2011/07/26/world-englishes/>

complex reality of WE; for example, the borders between circles have rapidly blurred and new varieties of English have emerged.

Splunder (2012) points out the following shortcomings of Kachru's model: the model oversimplifies reality, as there are no clear distinctions between the borders of the circles but rather gray zones, and it perpetuates the misconception that the Inner Circle is in the center, so native speakers would be considered more important or superior (Jenkins, 2007, Seidlhofer, 2011, as cited in Splunder, 2012, p. 2). Moreover, different situations invalidate the model, as the Outer Circle English sometimes serves as the first language or all three circles of English can be found in one Inner Circle country, like the United States or Australia (Sharifian, 2009, p. 3). It also neglects both the changes in relationships between varieties of English and the tremendous differences found within individual countries.

In conclusion, Kachru's concentric circles model contributes to "opening the dialogue and raising awareness of issues related to World Englishes (WE)" (Tanghe, 2014, p. 18), and to "the wide use and tremendous impact on teaching and research practices on WE" (Splunder, 2012). Many scholars have challenged the Kachru model, however, (Jenkins, 2007, Schneider, 2010, Seidlhofer, 2011, as cited in Splunder, 2012, pp. 1-2) due to "today's complex multilingual and interlingual practices, which can be referred to as 'linguistic super-diversity'" (Blommaert, 2010, p. 6, as cited in Splunder, 2012, p. 3).

History of the English Language in Korea

Korea is considered an ethnolinguistically homogeneous society where Koreans have shared the same ethnic and linguistic heritage from the seventh century up until today, without remarkable ethnic or linguistic minorities (Lambert, 1999, as cited in Chung & Choi, 2016, p. 283; Kim-Rivera, 2001, p. 2). It is, therefore, meaningful to consider the history of the English language, particularly through the lens of education in Korea—how it arrived, how it has been taught, and what contributed to the popularity of English education—in order to understand both the elevated status that English enjoys in Korea today and the resulting emergence of the phenomenon of English fever. Moving chronologically, I will examine the particular historical events and policies that led to an increasing interest in studying English in Korea.

The Arrival of English in the Early 1880s

Foreign language education on the Korean peninsula started during the Three Kingdoms period (57 BC-668 AD) with the instruction of Chinese and Japanese. The Goryeo dynasty (918-1392 AD), which united the Three Kingdoms, added Mongolian and Manchurian to foreign language curricula (K.-S. Lee, 2015, pp. 37-38). During the Joseon⁶ dynasty (1392-1910 AD), a total of six languages⁷ were studied at Sa Yeok Won (司譯院), an official state-sponsored foreign language education institution, which was established during the Goryeo dynasty in 1276 under the name Tong Mun Gwan (通文館) in order to train interpreters and research foreign languages. However, Western languages were not introduced to Korea until the late 19th century because of the strict national isolationist policy adopted in 1636. This policy was strengthened by Heungseon Dawongun, the father of King Gojong, who acted as regent between 1863 and 1873. Although there were many attempts by Japan and Western powers⁸ to force the Joseon dynasty to accept foreign influence, the policy of seclusion resulted in Korea being the Western powers' last contact in East Asia (Collins, 2005, p. 419). The Joseon dynasty finally opened its ports to Western countries as a result of the 1882 Korea-U.S. Treaty⁹ and the 1883 Korea-Great Britain Treaty.

As soon as the Joseon dynasty signed treaties with Western countries, it faced the urgent challenge of needing officials who could speak the relevant foreign languages. When the 1882 Korea-US Treaty was ratified, for example, no one could speak English in Korea, so the dynasty was compelled to hire two interpreters: Byun-Soo, a Korean, who translated the Korean delegates' words into Japanese, and Miyaoka Tsuneziro,¹⁰ a Japanese, who translated Byun-Soo's Japanese into English for Percival Lowell, a special adviser to the delegates (N.-G. Kim,

⁶ There are many articles and books that use an older spelling, Chosun, but I am following the Revised Romanization conventions adopted by the Korean government in 2000.

⁷ Instruction mainly focused on four languages: Chinese, Japanese, Mongolian and Manchurian.

⁸ At the time, the Joseon dynasty had a relationship with China. Kim-Rivera (2001) summarizes the three types of contact Korea had with the outside world: 1) religious contact with Protestant missionaries and European Catholic priests in Manchuria and Japan, 2) Western vessels that came to Korea in an attempt to begin a commercial relationship or that arrived accidentally due to shipwrecks, and 3) diplomatic missions sent to China and Japan by the Korean government, but all these occurrences were limited and indirect (p. 28).

⁹ The full name of this treaty is The Korea-U.S. Treaty of 1882, a Treaty of Peace, Amity, Commerce, and Navigation (N.-G. Kim, 2015).

¹⁰ Tsuneziro was a college student at the time and later became a diplomat for the Japanese government.

2015, p. 9). Thus, English education in Korea began as a necessity when the Korean government set up English language schools to train interpreters who could mediate Korean diplomacy with the Western world. Dong Mun Hak (同文學), the first public English education institute, was established in 1882 as a one-year program open to all social classes.¹¹ The institute had two native speakers of English who were ethnically Chinese and used the Direct Method of teaching (B.-M. Chang, 2009, p. 84). Yuk Young Gong Won (育英公院)¹² was opened in 1886 after Dong Mun Hak closed. This institute was available only to the noble class and employed three highly educated American instructors who taught using the Direct Method. Thus, the Korean government not only played an active and pivotal role in establishing English education in Korea (Cho, 2017, p. 44), it also worked as the initiator and driving force (Kim-Rivera, 2001, p. 60) at the earliest stages of English language education in Korea.

In addition to the initiatives undertaken by the Korean government, there were also other English schools that were founded by American Christian missionaries,¹³ such as the Baejae School for Boys, established by Henry G. Appenzeller in 1885, and the Ewha School for Girls, established by Mary F. Scranton in 1886 (Choe, 1996, as cited in Collins, 2005, pp. 419-420). Results were immediately fruitful due to an intensive immersion program, well-qualified native teachers, and active support from the government. The first visit to the United States by a Korean delegation took place in 1884. This same year, several young men enrolled in bachelor's degree programs at colleges in the United States, and after graduation, some even stayed on to earn advanced degrees. Just over a decade later, in 1896, the first English newspaper in Korea, *The Independent*, was published by the well-known intellectual Jaipil Soh. Cummings (1997) provides a positive evaluation of Korean intellectuals' English proficiency saying, "Most of them spoke good English" (as cited in Collins, 2005, p. 420). Choe (1989) also shows that Korean speakers could teach English using their fluent English skills and study-abroad experiences not long after English education began in Korea (as cited in Kim-Rivera, 2001, p. 25).

¹¹ There were four social classes, the nobility (*yangban*), the middle class (*chungin*), the commoners (*sangmin*), and the outcasts, which included slaves, at the very bottom (*cheonmin*). Society was ruled by the yangban, who constituted 10% of the population and enjoyed certain privileges.

¹² Although it was opened after Dong Mun Hak, some see it as the first genuine government-level foreign language institute (B.-M. Chang, 2009, p. 85) and the first modern state school in Korea (Cho, 2017, p. 45).

¹³ According to Kim-Rivera (2011), the Korean government and missionaries were the two main agents that implemented English education in Korea.

Under Japanese Control (1910-1945): The Darkest Period of English Learning

Korea officially became a colony of Japan through the Japan-Korea Annexation Treaty in 1910 (Cho, 2017, p. 51). Through this treaty, Japanese became the official language and Koreans were forced to use it in their daily lives. Koreans suffered in many ways under Japanese rule, and English learning was no exception. Though it continued to be taught, the teachers were themselves Japanese, which negatively impacted students' pronunciation (B.-M. Chang, 2009, p. 86); all English teaching materials were written in Japanese (Kwon, 1995, as cited in B.-M. Chang, 2009, p. 86); and the Grammar-Translation Method replaced the Direct Method (B.-M. Chang, 2009, p. 86). N.-S. Park (1992) notes that this began the trend of using the Grammar-Translation Method in Korean foreign language classrooms (p. 151). Likewise, Y. Kachru and Nelson (2006) believe that the connection between Koreans and the English language was weakened under Japanese colonial rule (p. 177). Furthermore, when Japan entered the Second World War, it defined English as the enemy's language, so learning English and traveling to countries where English was spoken were prohibited. For these reasons, the Japanese colonial period is referred to by some as the darkest period of English education (Moon, 1976, as cited in B.-M. Chang, 2009, p. 87). B.-M. Chang (2009), in particular, argues this on the grounds that English was neither the main subject nor the medium of instruction in classrooms during the Japanese colonial era (p. 87). Rather, it became a channel through which Koreans could speak up and let the outside world know about the tragic situation Korea faced under Japanese rule (Collins, 2005, pp. 420-421).

The National Curricular Period: 1945 to the Present

1945-1960. Korea was liberated from Japanese rule on August 15, 1945, but the Republic of Korea¹⁴ was not established until 1948, after three years of trusteeship. During this time, North Korea was occupied by China and the Soviet Union, and South Korea by the United States Army Military Government in Korea (henceforth, USAMGIK).

Under the USAMGIK occupation between 1945 and 1948, English became an official language and English education was implemented throughout South Korea, as Korean

¹⁴ Korea was divided into North Korea and South Korea in 1948. The Republic of Korea is commonly known as South Korea.

interpreters with English proficiency were in high demand. In addition, enthusiasm for English learning was booming due to Koreans' perception of the United States as liberator (Cho, 2017, p. 61)¹⁵ and was further supported by the widespread belief that English was a tool for political and economic development (Min, 2007, p. 104). As soon as the first administration of the Republic of Korea was established in 1948, it established and supported a modernized system of English education in schools. Furthermore, President Rhee Syngman was pro-American and favored people with English skills, which included the members of his cabinet. This strengthened Koreans' view of English as a means of opportunity and upward mobility. The Korean War between 1950 and 1953 hindered the flourishing development of English education due to the destruction wrought across the country, but it was quickly reconstructed with the support of the United States. South Korea's strong alignment with the United States, which was further strengthened by the Korean War, was reflected in the first national curriculum, which adopted American English as the Standard English (Chung & Choi, 2016, p. 287; Yoshikawa, 2000, p. 28). As a result, English was the preferred language, both among students and within schools, from the time foreign language education was introduced to middle and high schools in 1948. In 1963, English became the first foreign language in South Korea (K.-S. Lee, 2015, pp. 47-48). In terms of method, the Grammar-Translation Method continued to be favored in classrooms, as a carryover from the colonial period.

In brief, English education prospered in this era after Korea escaped the darkest period of English education under Japanese colonial rule. The USAMGIK and the Korean government actively implemented and supported English education in South Korea, but individual Koreans, in fact, were also self-motivated to learn English. This can be seen in the sale of English-Korean dictionaries at the time, which became Korea's first bestsellers (Kang, 2007, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 66).

1961-1979. Military dictator Park Chung-hee came to power through a military coup on May 16, 1961 and ruled South Korea for almost twenty years. During this period, economic growth and the modernization were top priorities, with the government placing more emphasis on exports than education. Consequently, the English language was viewed as an important medium, especially in relation to matters of exportation. As a result, the Ministry of Education

¹⁵ Japan surrendered and lost its colonies after the atomic bombs were dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, so many Koreans believed Korea was emancipated thanks to the United States.

(MOE) worked to improve Koreans' English communication skills by implementing the Audio-Lingual Method in the classroom, which emphasized listening and speaking skills. To assist with this, the MOE also invited approximately 2000 Peace Corps Volunteers between 1966 and 1981 (Bohlman, 1996, p. 78, as cited in Collins, 2005). English became a mandatory subject in middle and high schools,¹⁶ and the hours of English study increased in 1974. Koreans' interest in foreign languages also rose in the 1970s and 80s due to political, social and economic development, which led to the compulsory study of a second foreign language in 1968. In short, the English language, along with other foreign languages, functioned as a medium for Korea's export-focused national development in the 1960s and 1970s.

1980-1993. Changes in government leadership and world events such as the 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Summer Olympics in Seoul shaped the alterations made to English education in the '80s and early '90s. Collins (2005) said, "by the late 1970s and early 1980s, English had become part of middle-class pretension and cosmopolitanism... members of this '386 (in their 30s, attended college in the 80s and were born in the 60s) generation' deal English in their denunciation of U.S. neo-colonialism" (p. 423). However, the 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Olympics held in Seoul changed these attitudes because Koreans had to work together for the success of these international events, which generally required fluent English. Collins also argues the Olympics became a chance for Koreans to consider English as a lingua franca, and therefore an integral part of globalization (p. 424).

Under the new military administration of President Chun Doo-hwan, who took power through a military coup in 1980, new policies related to English education were introduced. English education in elementary schools started in 1982 as a club activity (CA)¹⁷, which is similar to after-school activities in the United States, but in the Korean case they occur during school hours. The national listening comprehension test for middle and high school students started in 1983, which greatly affected the policies around English education throughout the country.

In summary, the external factors that gave rise to a new paradigm in English learning during this era were the expansion of commercial trade and diplomatic relations with other

¹⁶ Min (2007) notes that even during the times when English was an elective subject, the importance was the same as that of a compulsory subject, like Korean (pp. 104-106), which shows the status of English in Korea.

¹⁷ Only those students who chose English as their CA were taught English. The previous administration wanted to start English education as a CA in 1971, but harsh criticism led them to withdraw this plan.

countries. Additionally, the 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Olympic Games created a new national goal of cultivating English learners' communicative competence and cultural understanding (Min, 2007, p. 107). To this end, the Korean government actively worked to improve English education through its national curricular reforms in the 1970s and 80s (Yoshikawa, 2000).

From 1993 to the Present. President Kim Young-Sam, elected in 1992¹⁸, advocated for a national policy of “*seggyehwa*” (세계화, globalization), which encouraged Koreans to compete more effectively in the global economy by becoming citizens of a “first-class” country and *segye shimin* (世界市民, global citizens).¹⁹ His administration set globalization as a goal for the near future of South Korea and set out to improve Koreans' English proficiency. To achieve this goal, the MOE adopted the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method²⁰ in classrooms through the 6th and 7th national curriculum reforms. The MOE also launched the “English Program in Korea” (EPIK) in 1995, which seeks native-speaking teachers of English from Inner Circle countries²¹ to assist Korean teachers and teach English to students at primary and secondary schools.²² English testing experienced further development during the 1990s, and a listening comprehension test has been included in the national college entrance exam since 1994. All companies also started requiring Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scores as a selection criterion under the pressure of globalization (B.-R. Kim, 2015, p. 121).²³ In addition, more foreign language high schools were established where students could intensively study foreign languages and have opportunities to practice with native speakers. Most importantly, the decision to initiate formal English education in primary schools was made in 1995, and all primary schools started teaching English as an official subject starting in the third grade in 1997. According to Cho (2017), there was a huge boost in English education in 1995

¹⁸ His administration began in February of 1993.

¹⁹ Cho (2017) criticizes the vagueness of the meaning behind “global citizens” but points out that it is clear that speaking English would be one characteristic of a global citizen (p. 77).

²⁰ B.-M. Chang (2009) evaluates this trend, which changed the focus from a grammar-oriented education to a communication-oriented education, which means that “the situation for implementing English education policy has matured and improved” (pp. 93-94).

²¹ Specifically, Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, the U.K, and the U.S.A.

²² Almost two thousand English speakers joined the program between 1995 and 2007 (Jeon, 2009, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 77).

²³ High scores are required to qualify for a white-collar job, no matter the position, and are also used for promotions.

based on the belief that English was an indispensable method for elevating Koreans' competitiveness in the global market. Under these globalization-focused policies, English was declared the first foreign language in schools (Min, 2007, p. 109). The new policy of starting English learning at the primary school level ignited parents' interest because they worried about their children's performance in primary school English classes, leading to the phenomenon known as English fever (Seth, 2002, p. 76; J.-K. Park, 2009, p.50). This led many young children to enter private English-language institutes (*yeongeo hagwon*). Furthermore, after South Korea joined the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 1996, practical English for business needs was emphasized more than ever in order to participate in the global financial market.

This policy of English education, which aims to cultivate communicative competence and an understanding of the cultures of English-speaking countries, has continued in subsequent administrations. The 1997-1998 Asian Financial Crisis hit Korea especially hard. The new president, Kim Dae-jung, inaugurated in 1998, realized the need for more professionals with high English proficiency in order to receive a bailout from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1997²⁴ and to further globalize the local economy. He also encouraged technological campaigns, such as deploying high-speed broadband cables across the nation. Because of this, English became more important since 80% of the information on the Internet was written in English (G.-W. Shin, 2003, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 78). He also encouraged Koreans to be *shin jishikin* (新知識人, new intellectuals), "who actively create added value by leveraging knowledge and endeavor to enhance or innovate working styles by thinking out of the box with skilled English" (Chun, 2003, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 78). In addition, he established Special Economic Zones (SEZ) to attract foreign direct investment, where English was suggested as an official language. As such, it is easy to see how English became increasingly essential in Korea through the discourse of globalization started in 1993.

During the administration of the next president, Roh Moo-hyun, "English Villages," English-only towns, were opened starting in 2004; there were 32 more English villages by

²⁴ "It was in the late 1990s that global English started to wield overwhelmingly dominant power over all Koreans' daily life and life course. It was in line with the enforcement of [the] IMF management system" (B.-R. Kim, 2015, p. 119).

2012.²⁵ The administration under the following president, Lee Myung-bak,²⁶ especially emphasized English competence. The presidential transition committee announced the “English Education Roadmap” in January 2008, before the inauguration ceremony. This plan included English immersion programs, English-only classes, the addition of speaking and writing sections to the national college entrance examination, and making English an official language²⁷ as part of the landmark Korea-U.S. Free Trade Agreement (FTA). These were radical suggestions and were withdrawn due to strong opposition. He did, however, implement the Teach and Learn in Korea (TaLK) program in 2008, which is a government-sponsored English teaching program, similar to EPIK, that hires native English speakers from the Inner Circle countries.²⁸

In conclusion, President Kim Young-sam’s globalization policy triggered an explosive demand for English learning in Korea. The policy that introduced English learning at the primary school level brought young children, as early as preschool, into the private sector of English education. Although English learning has been flourishing since the late 1940s, the demand for English learning in Korea has been booming since 1993 due to larger discussions around globalization.

English fever in South Korea

English education plays a crucial role in the lives of Koreans from infancy to adulthood, so English learning begins at an early age. Some Korean preschoolers between the ages of three and six attend English immersion preschools in the morning, where the average tuition is more

²⁵ “Since the first so-called “English Village” opened in 2004 in Gyeonggi Province, 32 such mini towns were established in suburban areas to give students an opportunity to learn English from native speakers in an exotic environment where speaking Korean is banned.” (*The Korea Times*, on Sep, 6th, 2012) http://koreatimes.co.kr/www/news/nation/2012/09/113_119289.html

²⁶ President Lee said, “Among non-English speaking nations, those who speak English well are much better off than those that do not speak English well” (C.-G. Kim, 2008, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 80), which shows his attitude toward English learning. Cho (2017) also describes his favorable attitude toward the United States: “during the latest Lee Myung-Bak administration (2008–2013), nine out of 20 ministers or 45% held a degree from an American university as of July 2011. Around 21% of lawmakers or 64 out of 299 seats in the National Assembly received a degree from the United States, whereas overseas degrees obtained outside of the United States numbered only seven. In actuality, it is not just politics but business and academia as well, in which English and an American degree occupy a central place in contemporary Korea” (Nam, 2012, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 68).

²⁷ There were talks of making English an official language, at least on Jeju Island, during the previous administration of President Roh Mu-hyun (2003–2008).

²⁸ The TaLK program requires citizenship from one of the same countries that are accepted by the EPIK program. The difference is that eligible participants need a completed associate degree or need to be enrolled in a bachelor's degree program (and be at least in their 3rd year). In addition, teachers are only placed in rural areas.

expensive than South Korean medical schools (*Munhwa Ilbo*, September 30th, 2019).²⁹ Later in life, high school seniors need to score well on the English section of the college entrance examination,³⁰ as it contributes significantly to their overall score.³¹ College students need to continue to focus on English learning because most colleges require a minimum Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) or TOEIC score for graduation, and higher scores on English tests are required for job placement. Workers also need to have a high TOEIC score for upward mobility inside their corporation, so many attend English language institutions before or after work. From preschoolers to middle-aged adults, Koreans sacrifice not only their time and effort, but also their money. Koreans spend about 15 trillion won (\$15.8 billion USD) per year on learning English (Samsung Economic Research Institute [SERI], 2006, as cited in B.-R. Kim, 2015, p.117). *The Korean Times* says, “Government statistics show that parents spend more than 20 trillion won (\$18.24 billion) each year on private tutoring for their children at kindergartens, primary and secondary schools (March 13, 2013)”, which is equivalent to the total amount of public education budget of Korea (T. Kim, 2006, as cited in Chung, 2008, p. 12). Therefore, Koreans are living in an era where learning English is not an option, but a must.

Krashen (2003) coined the term, English fever³² to describe the social phenomenon surrounding English learning, defining it as “the overwhelming desire to (1) acquire English, (2) ensure that one's children acquire English, as a second or foreign language” (p. 100). Krashen thinks that many people have been caught up in English fever because of English’s status as the world’s lingua franca. This is especially true on the Internet, where, at the time of Krashen’s writing in 1999, at least 45% of total web users were native English speakers and over 75% of

²⁹ “The average tuition for English preschools is 11,590,000 won (about \$10,000 USD). The average monthly fee is about \$800 but goes up to \$1500 depending on the area. The average cost of college tuition is 6,710,000 won (about \$6,000 USD), and that of medical schools is 9,630,000 won (about \$8,000 USD). Some English preschools require entrance exams, so some parents pay for tutoring as well. The number of English preschools is increasing, with the total number of English preschools nationwide rising [in 2019] to 558 from 474 in 2017. There are 227 English preschools in the Seoul area, which is an increase of 41% from 161 in 2017.” Translated by the author. Retrieved from <http://www.munhwa.com/news/view.html?no=2019093001071230128001>

³⁰ Or, the College Scholastic Aptitude Test.

³¹ According to the 2000 College Scholastic Aptitude Test, which was given on November 11, 1999, English was allotted 80 points (or 20%) of the total 400 points (*Han'guk Kyoyuk Kwajong P'yonggwon* 1998, as cited in Kim-Rivera, 2011). There were five sections: Korean, math, social studies, science, and English. Each section is allocated 80 points, for a total of 400 points.

³² English fever (Fish, R. J. et al., 2017; Jahng, 2011; Krashen, 2003; J.-K. Park, 2009; Shim & Park, 2008) is often expressed using other terms such as “English frenzy” (B. R. Kim, 2015; J. Lee, 2010; J.-K. Park, 2009; J. S.-Y. Park, 2011; Tsou & Chen, 2017) or “English language learning craze” (Hu, 2009; Jiang, 2011; Tsou & Chen, 2017).

websites were in English (Press, 2000, as cited in Krashen, 2003, p. 100). He specifically expresses worry about the situation in Taiwan, where English has become a “national obsession” (Liu, 2002, as cited in Krashen, 2003, p. 101), as students begin learning English as early as possible and about 29% of all primary school students attend English cram schools (p. 101). The social phenomenon in Taiwan that Krashen describes is exactly the same as what has since occurred in South Korea.

Like Liu’s expression “national obsession,” there are scholars who describe the situation of English learning in South Korea from a similar perspective: B.-R. Kim (2015) criticizes that Koreans’ drive to learn English has reached the point of obsession, leading to anxiety and cultural suppression. Y.-M. Kim (2002) describes the pursuit of English learning as a “collective neurosis of English fever” (as cited in J.-K. Park, 2009, p. 50) and Yoon (2001) says, “what we’ve been going through due to the over-empowerment of English is a kind of self-schizophrenia where ‘oppression & worship’ and/or ‘inferiority & superiority complexes’ about English are structurally twisted and complicated.”; he further argues English build “colonialism” in Korean’s mind (as cited in B.-R. Kim, 2015, p. 119). This begs the question, where did this social phenomenon come from?

Seth (2002) thinks that Korea’s English fever originated from “Education Fever” (*gyoyug-yeol*, 教育熱), or the “national obsession with the attainment of education” (p. 9), which arose out of the meeting of Confucian tradition with Western ideas of egalitarianism (p. 6). Taie (2015) also thinks that Confucianism, the “dominant underlying educational philosophy,” which places an emphasis on education, should be examined in order to understand the status of English education in South Korea (p. 140). J. Park (2007) does not see the correlation between Education Fever and English fever as cause and effect, but rather thinks that English fever is “another, more negative social phenomenon” compared to Education Fever, which turns English into “a class marker” (p. 51).

How has English fever continued, or even deepened in Korean society? The first reason Cho (2017) cites for the emergence of English fever in South Korea is that in the early era of English-language study (between 1882 and 1910), English was considered “a golden opportunity or a

new hope for the underprivileged desiring social mobility”³³ that presented “access [to] power, relatively privileged class identity, and financial success” (p. 45).³⁴ Interpreters, for example, were considered part of the middle class, but were often also extremely wealthy due to their involvement in international trade. Similarly, a royal interpreter could have access to the King and diplomatic power (Y. Kim, 2011, as cited in Cho, 2017, pp. 44-45). According to B.-R. Kim (2015), the association of English with power and the new elite can be traced to the early years of Korea’s modernization. (p. 120). Cho goes on to comment on the role that English plays in contemporary Korean society, saying that “English is really a matter of ‘inevitable survival’ and the survival is not in the literal sense of the word, but a synonym for success and prosperity” (p. 120). Prey (2005) agrees that English proficiency can improve one’s social and economic status (p. 13).

Cho argues that the second reason for English fever is that English has been a marker of class distinction for the privileged class,³⁵ which caused an “English divide,” especially in the late 1980s and the early 1990s.³⁶ J.-K. Park (2004) also notes the recent transition of English from a signifier of upper class status to a necessary skill for success in an increasingly globalized world. (as cited in Chung, 2008, p. 8). The third reason Cho provides for English fever is that English has expanded and transformed into cultural, economic, political, and social capital in modern Korean society (p. 68).

³³ “English education was offered no matter of class and gender, and that was how it attracted young and ambitious people” (Cho, 2017, p. 45). The public perception of English was that it was a “language of opportunities” (Y. Kim, 2011, p. 276, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 45). Another example is seen in President Rhee Syngman who studied at Baejae Boys School and became the first Korean President in 1948 after graduating from Princeton University and having lived in Hawai’i. Henry Appenzeller’s demonstrates this belief among Koreans: “Ask a Korean ‘why do you wish to study English?’ and his invariable answer will be ‘to get rank.’” (Y. Kim, 2011, p. 344, as cited in Cho, 2017 p. 4).

³⁴ The webpage for the Cultural Heritage Administration says that the two main reasons that Sa Yeok Won, the governmental language institution, was popular because it provided access to power and financial success. In addition, Cho (2017) says, “For commoners suffering from the injustice of the caste system, English was a language of opportunity through which to dream of climbing up the social ladder. For the king of the country, it was a language through which to seek protection from the United States against imperial forces. For the progressive elites, English was a tool to modernize and empower the country” (p. 51).

³⁵ B.-R. Kim (2015) says, “English is not only a necessary condition for survival, but also a basic condition for wealth and power. At this point, English is not a symbol of class, but a cultural capital bringing real class difference” (p. 119).

³⁶ B.-R. Kim (2015) does not believe learning English is a matter of survival, because there are not many Korean who need to use English in daily life, but analyzes the situation as the following, “the means of survival signifies a ladder of success to climb into [a] higher position for which English is needed. After all, it means that the social status and economic success of [the] upper-middle class are generalized or transformed into survival criteria for the entire nation” (p. 120).

Finally, as mentioned earlier, Korean government policies have stimulated English fever, especially through the implementation of English education at the primary school level. J. Park (2007) insists that government policies have driven this boom and that Korean parents have adapted in order to ensure their children's success on examinations (p. 18). One way that Korean parents have been able to adapt is through economic investment in their children's education. According to B.-R. Kim (2015), Korea's economic power has provided the capital necessary for parents to invest in their children's education (p. 121).

No matter the reasons behind English fever, it has unintentionally brought about negative social phenomena as elaborated below, including tongue surgery, the high demand for "early study abroad (早期留學)", "goose fathers", broken families, maladjusted returnees from English-speaking countries, and so on. Though not common, there are some children who have tongue surgery in order to have native-like pronunciation. "Early study abroad"³⁷ is when parents send their young children to foreign countries so they can learn a target language in a country where it is spoken. In Korea, most students are sent to English-speaking countries. This can take various forms; a student can be sent alone to a boarding school or to a guardian's home, or go together with their mother, leaving their father in Korea, where he is a so-called "wild goose father."³⁸ This separation can lead to broken families, ending in divorce or psychological distance between family members, especially between a father and children, as a result of the physical distance. In addition, there are many children who struggle to adjust to life in a foreign

³⁷ J. Park (2007) points out that Korean parents' beliefs about English-only environments and negative attitudes toward first-language peers lead young Korean students to study abroad at an early age. Chung (2008) quotes Kim's (2006) study to explain one of the reasons behind this: governmental support for English education in public schools fails to satisfy students and parents (p. 11). Recently, short term visits to English-speaking countries is a trend among parents and students, especially elementary school students. According to a report by the Ministry of Education in 2006, the number of students who visited English-speaking countries for a short time had been increasing. For example, the total number in 2004 was 13,700, but this increased by about 13% to 15,457. Particularly, the number of elementary school students increased year over year; there was an 8% increase in 2005 and 13% increase in 2006. Thirty-one percent of students went to the United States in 2004 (including Canada, it was about 45%). In addition, Chung (2008) shows that the number of temporary migrants, which is defined as a student who stays one to three years abroad (p. 1), in English-speaking countries is increasing. She claims that temporary migration is unique to Korea among other Asian countries (p. 7). In addition, she says that Korea sends the most students to the United States among all the countries of the world.

³⁸ B.-R. Kim (2015) explains that "goose father" refers to "a father who lives alone in Korea, having sent his spouse and children to a foreign country to study English or some other form of advanced study. The goose fathers are estimated to be about 200,000 nationwide in 2008" (p. 117). The reason they live in Korea is to support their spouse and children financially because there is no guarantee that they will find a new job and a stable life in a foreign country. This phenomenon was covered in *The Washington Post* by Phuong Ly on January 9, 2005.

country or to life in Korea after their return. Some students will go back to the foreign country after returning to Korea from early study abroad.

In brief, English plays a major role in society as an “essential skill necessary for survival, [a] symbol of class differences, [a] basic qualification of global citizen[ship], [a] tool for national competitiveness, and [a] fetishized product” (Lee, 2007, as cited in B.-R. Kim, 2015, p. 119). Excessive competition in modern Korean society has led to English fever, which was brought about because of Education Fever, as a result of Confucianism. This phenomenon has resulted in other negative social phenomena like goose fathers and broken families. Nevertheless, the status and importance of English in South Korea, and English fever, is ongoing.

American English in South Korea: Why is it Dominant?

A 1982 report by the British Council explains American English’s dominant position in South Korea compared to British English:

Koreans’ accepted use of the American style of pronunciation is due to the country’s close economic and military relations with the United States... British English has had a minimal effect on English language education in Korea...British ELT materials are not as popular as their American counterparts. Most of the English language textbooks used in universities are produced by American publishers. Koreans are constantly exposed to American films, and there has been a constant presence of the American Forces, which allows Koreans access to American TV and radio programs. In addition, many higher-education educators hold degrees from the United States, and the majority of native English-speaking teachers in private language schools are from the United States (as cited in Kim-Rivera, 2001, pp. 21-22).

American English continues to prevail in South Korea,³⁹ although many Koreans may not realize this fact. This trend began at the start of the Republic of Korea in the early 1950s. The first national curriculum by the MOE (established in 1953) set American English as the target language for Koreans to learn.⁴⁰ The MOE’s preferential treatment of American English is also

³⁹ Most Koreans think that English equals American English. They do not realize that many varieties of English exist, or which varieties of English they have learned or been exposed to unless they visit foreign countries and experience other varieties of English.

⁴⁰ Yoshikawa (2000) says “According to Kwon (1990), the Korean Ministry of Education is strongly emphasizing that Standard American English is the only target for English learners in Korea” (Kwon, 1990, as cited in p. 28). The word “American” was removed from subsequent national curriculum reforms, but the emphasis on American English continues in South Korea today.

seen in the guidelines for the national listening comprehension test for English, which state that an American accent and pronunciation are primary although British English is not excluded. The use of American English is also preferred by Korean English teachers. When the MOE allowed teachers to choose from a variety of Englishes to use in the classroom,⁴¹ the results were almost unanimous: more than 99% of Korean teachers chose to teach American English (Choe, 1996, p. 4, as cited in Shim, 1999, p. 247).

American English teachers are also the majority in South Korea. According to the Korean Ministry of Justice, the nationality of native teachers in South Korea in 2007 was 39% American, 29% Canadian, 9% British, 2% Irish, 4% Australian, 4% New Zealander, and 4% South African (Gone2Korea, n.d.).⁴² This shows that almost 70% of native teachers were from North America, the United States and Canada, and over 90% of native teachers were from inner-circle countries, while only 9% of them were coming from non-inner-circle countries. Furthermore, teachers not coming from the United States and Canada mimicked North American-like English to fit Koreans' expectations of English.

Additionally, the United States has also been the top destination for early study abroad and study abroad among students and parents. Figure 3 shows the number of international students in the United States during the 2018-2019 academic year. South Korea is the third country from the top, behind China and India, with 52,250 students studying in the United States. However, when the number of students as a percentage of the population of their home country is taken into account, it paints a different picture.⁴³ For example, the top two countries, China and India, send only about 0.02% of their population to study in the United States, whereas South Korea and Saudi Arabia send about 0.1% of their population, which is five times higher. This demonstrates the importance Koreans place on studying in the United States.

⁴¹ Choe (1996) explains that, "if she [a teacher] is good at British English, she may choose it to teach, and if she is good at American English, she may teach it" (as cited in Shim, 1999, p. 247).

⁴² <https://www.gone2korea.com/teaching-in-korea/>. According to the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, the nationality of native teachers in Seoul is 50% American, 34% Canadian, 6% British and Irish, 5% Australian, and 1% South African; half of the native-speaking English teachers in Korea are from the United States, and if Canada is included, the number jumps to 84%.

⁴³ The population of each country: 1.386 billion (China), 1.339 billion (India), 51.47 million (South Korea), 32.94 million (Saudi Arabia), and 37.59 million (Canada). The percentage of international students in the United States from each country out of the total population is 0.027% (China), 0.015% (India), 0.106% (South Korea), 0.113% (Saudi Arabia), and 0.069% (Canada). To compare with other Asian countries, Japan sits at 0.014%, and Taiwan at 0.098%.

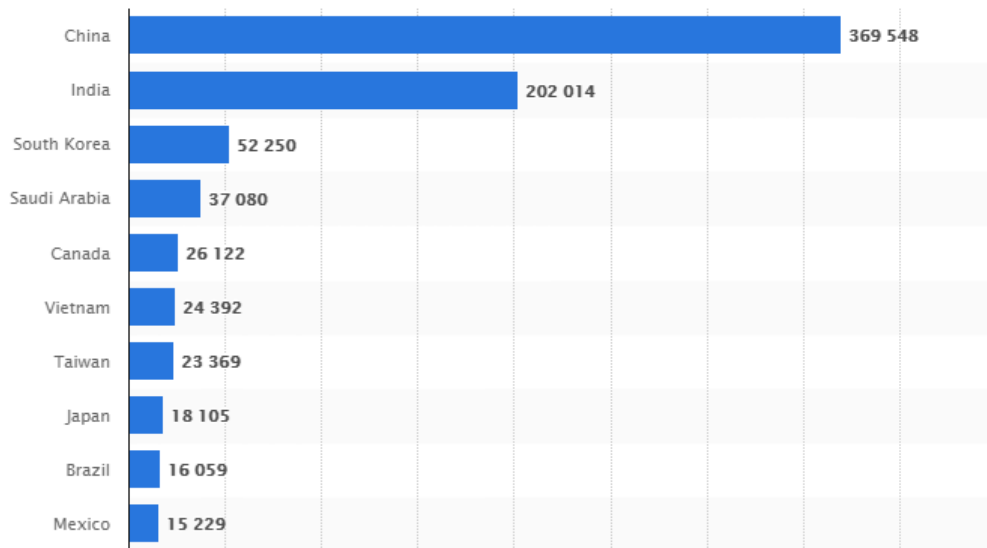


Figure 3. *Number of international students studying in the United States in 2018/19, by country of origin*⁴⁴

Internal Causes

It is not difficult to find records showing that the Korean government and Korean individuals have had a favorable attitude toward the United States since the late 19th century. For example, the name of the United States in Korean, *miguk* (미국, 美國), meaning “beautiful country,” reflecting this high regard. Park (2012) says, “The superior manifestations of the United States established an idealized image of the benevolent, abundant, and advanced America in the popular consciousness of Koreans” (as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 69) and N. Y. Kim (2008) says, “Such beautified images of the United States, in turn, instilled in the Korean populace a desire for the United States” (as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 69).

At the time of the Joseon dynasty, which had a treaty with the United States, progressives, or reformists, saw English as the key to the Korea’s modernization (Moon, 2004, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 43).⁴⁵ King Gojong viewed the United States as a big brother who could protect the

⁴⁴ Figure 3 is taken from <https://www.statista.com/statistics/233880/international-students-in-the-us-by-country-of-origin/> which was made using the numbers from <https://www.iie.org/Research-and-Insights/Open-Doors/Fact-Sheets-and-Infographics/Fast-Facts>, retrieved on March 3, 2020.

⁴⁵ In contrast, conservatives considered English to be a barbarian language and rejected the government’s relationship with the United States (Moon, 2004, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 43).

Joseon dynasty from Japan, replacing the role of China. When the first Korean delegation visited the United States in 1884, they wanted to bring English learning to Korea in order to understand the modernized system of Western countries. The Korean government, therefore, hired three American instructors from the United States who taught English at the Yuk Young Gong Won in 1886 (Kim-Rivera, 2001). As soon as English education started on the Korean peninsula, Koreans learned American English. The fact that there were about 7,000 Korean immigrants to the then U.S. territory of Hawai'i between 1902 and 1905 also shows Koreans' expectations toward the United States.

Later in history, the U.S. military had a direct impact on English education in Korea. For example, U.S. officers taught English to boys in primary school during the Korean War (Hwang, 1998, p. 119, as cited in Collins, 2005, p. 422). The United States continued to exert influence over Korean society after the Korean War through the Korea-U.S. Mutual Defense Treaty (N. Kim, 2015, pp. 11-12). After both emancipation from colonization and the Korean War, Koreans considered English "as a means of survival to stick to the United States" (Collins, 2005, pp. 420-421) and as a language of power, particularly because English was an official language under the U.S. military government (Cummings, 1981, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 61). Fishman et al. (1977) argue that the prominence of the U.S. military is the reason why American English is the norm in English education in Korea; Americans have been stationed in Korea for over half a century and Americans have the highest level of commandship in Korea's military department. In other words, America has power, in terms of the military, in Korea (Fishman, 1977, p. 84, as cited in Prey, 2005, p. 10). In addition, the U.S. military government started the practice of studying English in Korean schools and implemented English education in Korea along with the Korean government (N. Kim, 2015, p. 11-12).

Cho (2017) points out three specific factors that caused American Fever⁴⁶ to emerge in the early history of the Republic of Korea (p. 61): 1) English became highly-valued capital with an attachment to power, especially under the USAMGIK: "The USAMGIK played a crucial role⁴⁷ in consolidating English as a language of power because English reigned as an official language

⁴⁶ Park (1997) phrases this in a different way, calling it "the strong cultural, economic, and political influence of the United States" (p. 12, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 69).

⁴⁷ The USAMGIK made English learning an important part of the Korean school system. For example, almost all colleges had English as a subject of their entrance examinations, which made English an indispensable part of the Korean education system ever since (N. Kim, 2015, p. 11).

during its 3-year tenure” (p. 63); 2) There was a high demand for translators due to the language barrier the USAMGIK faced during its occupation (p. 61); and 3) President Rhee Syngman’s (1948-1960)⁴⁸ America-centered worldview and preference for Koreans with English proficiency⁴⁹ strengthened American Fever among Koreans and the image of English proficiency as a means of opportunity and power. A Korean with an American education and/or fluent English could achieve social mobility in that era, like President Rhee Syngman. In addition, Choi (1993) points out that “Similar to colonial elites, post-1945 Korean elites, too, tried to distinguish themselves as members of the privileged class by ceaselessly acquiring Western, that is, American culture and language” (as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 63). The phenomenon of American Fever continued with the following administrations because of the strong political, military, and economic influences the United States had over South Korea (Moon, 2004, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 69). This led the Korean government to maintain or increase their pro-American attitude. President Park Chung-hee, for example, gave returnees from the United States, who were the sons and daughters of the upper class, the benefit of entering top universities without taking the college entrance examination, even though overseas travel by the public was banned by the government. This, therefore, strengthened the belief among privileged families that English was a class marker, and for the populace that English was a means of success and upward mobility. This, in turn, motivated the entire nation to learn (American) English.

In short, the influence of the U.S. military government, Koreans’ partiality toward the United States, and the social phenomena that led Koreans to consider English to be a language of power and success, all contributed to South Korea’s fixation with learning American English.

External Causes with Macro Perspectives

There are a variety of external causes for the United States’ stature on the world stage. Bang (2006) thinks that because the United States emerged as a superpower after winning World Wars I and II, American English replaced British English as a lingua franca (p. 1). Crystal (1997)

⁴⁸ Due to his extremely favorable attitude toward the United States, there was criticism that he was “an American puppet, propped up and held in power by American bayonets” (Oliver, 1954, p. 322, as cited in Cho, 2017, p. 66). However, he became a model for success for the populace with his high English proficiency, which resulted in higher demand for English learning.

⁴⁹ His cabinet was always filled with politicians who had degrees from universities in the United States and spoke fluent English (Cho, 2017, pp. 64, 67).

similarly argues that American English became a lingua franca because of the United States' military and economic power (as cited in Bang, 2006, p. 17).

The United States enjoys a large population, economic power, a high rate of higher education, an influential media, and political and cultural status. As a result, an affinity for American English has spread all over the world.⁵⁰ Guback (1984) argues that the power of the American media industry exerts extensive cultural influence around the world (p. 155, as cited in Prey, 2005, p. 19). Similarly, Tunstall (1977) notes that “Authentic, traditional and local cultures in many parts of the worlds [are] being overwhelmed by the indiscriminate dumping of large quantities of slick commercial media products, mainly from the United States” (p. 57, as cited in Prey, 2005, p. 19).

Bapuji (1993) emphasizes the support that the United States provides for language training – nearly one billion dollars in 1973 alone – calling it aggressively imperialist (p. 49, as cited in Prey, 2005, p. 14). The United States is not alone in this, as evidenced through the British Council's policy of supplying English educational materials around the world that follow the British Education system and use British English.

Standard English

There are many questions, issues, and debates that surround “Standard English” (SE) such as the notion of SE, the correctness of a language, the ownership of English, SE norms/native-speaker norms, equality between languages,⁵¹ and the ideology of SE or linguistic imperialism. One such question is, “who really has the right to decide what is standard for language with hundreds of millions of users around the world?” (McArthur, 2001, p. 1, as cited in Clement, 2011, p. 11). This section will touch on a few of the issues around SE as they are discussed among linguists and practitioners of English education to give a sense of what is being discussed in the larger WE field.

⁵⁰ Retrieved from <http://www.uta.fi/FAST/US1/REF/usgbintr.html>

⁵¹ Splunder believes that inequality exists although many say that ‘all varieties of English are equal’: “one might argue that ELF is not the ‘equalizer’ it is often believed to be, but that it is about to create new inequalities. Paraphrasing George Orwell, one might conclude that all Englishes are equal, but some are more equal than others. (Splunder, 2012, p. 8).

The term “standard” was not applied to language and literature until the early eighteenth century (McArthur, 1998, p. 102, as cited in Y. Kachru & Nelson, 2006, p. 94). The first attempt to establish the standards for English was led by future-U.S. President John Adams’ suggestion that “Congress institute a body for correcting, improving and ascertaining the English language”, however “no formal body was ever constituted to regulate the use of the language either in Britain or in the USA” (Y. Kachru & Nelson, 2006, p. 95). Received Pronunciation (RP), which was used by social elites, became compulsory in Britain and the British colonies and was not only used in spoken English but was also emphasized in English education. However, many scholars think that Standard English was more a matter of grammar than of pronunciation, which can be said to be more associated with written language than with spoken English (Abercrombie, 1965, McArthur, 1998, Strevens, 1985, Quirk, 1968, and Wyld, 1907, as cited in Y. Kachru & Nelson, 2006, p. 95); Milroy and Milroy (1985), for example, claim that “absolute standardization of a spoken language is never achieved” (p. 22). In addition, Y. Kachru & Nelson (2006) points out that the issue of standardization is more related to matters of power and ideology than of language (p. 95).

In reality, Standard British English and General American English seem to be the only two Standard Englishes⁵² that are accepted in English education.⁵³ They are especially the norm in international English-proficiency tests like TOFEL and TOEIC (Clement, 2011, p. 11). However, Quirk (1985) thinks that “there are few enough (not least among professional linguists) that would claim the existence of a single standard within any one of the ENL countries: plenty that would even deny both the possibility and the desirability of such a thing” (pp. 2-3, as cited in Bex & Watts, 1999, p. 2). Rather, he insists that “different standards for different occasions for different people – and each as ‘correct’ as any other.” Joseph (1987) also thinks that “British, American, Canadian, and Australian English do not differ enough from one another to be labeled [as] separate language[s]” (p. 2, as cited in Bex & Watts, 1999, p. 3).

⁵² McArthur (2001) says that the reason General American English enjoys similar prestige to British English in the world is because of “the growth of the United States, prominence as a global power, and, with the advent of the computer age, the fact that word processing software has nudged standards towards SAE conventions” (p. 6).

⁵³ Y. Kachru and Nelson (2006) say that “The varieties of English that are commonly accepted and are considered ‘legitimate’ for educational purposes all over the world are American and British English. The other varieties, Australian, Canadian and New Zealand English, are still trying to achieve legitimacy (Bell and Kuiper, 1999; Collins and Blair, 1989; Hundt, 1998; Turner, 1997). The national varieties used in countries of Asia and Africa where English has official and societal status raise even more debate and disagreement (p. 12).”

As Clement (2011) points out, there is criticism of the fact that tests of English proficiency follow Traditional Standard English norms. Davies, Hamp-Lyons, and Kemp (2003), for example, ask, “whose norms should be followed in designing tests of English proficiency?” (as cited in Clement, 2011, p. 21). Likewise, there are more complicated SE discussions in English education, such as which is better, teaching SE or accepting a variety of English in the classroom? It seems that many have more tolerance or looser standards for a variety of English when it is used in spoken discourse. However, when it comes to English learning, stricter standards might be applied, on the premise that it should not confuse students or cause difficulties for teachers (in situations such as grading). Splunder (2012) points out the problems that arise when English is used as a lingua franca (ELF) in an international educational context; the particular variety of English that different people use can hinder mutual intelligibility, and different expectations of the language may lead to difficulties, especially when teachers decide what is “correct” or “appropriate” English (p. 1). This might be why scholars like Widdowson (1994) insist that a standard form should be used for teaching English. Such discussions can also be expanded to the issue of (non-)native language teachers. Phillipson (1997), for instance, argues that there is no evidence that a native speaker is a better language teacher than a non-native speaker.

In addition to the discussions regarding SE, there are new voices that insist that the concepts of SE or ownership of English should be reconstructed.⁵⁴ This is especially true in modern society, where non-native speakers of English outnumber native speakers and new varieties of English have emerged, but native speakers and traditional Standard English norms persist.

Korean English

English, especially American English, has changed all aspects of modern Korean society. Koreans commonly encounter English in their daily lives in ads, street signs, and clothing with English text. English has also changed the Korean language. Y. Kachru & Nelson (2006) describe the Englishization of Korean, or the ways in which English has influenced the Korean language from phonetics to the choice of language style. They note that Korean’s use of English

⁵⁴ Seidlhofer (2011) says, “A reconceptualization of English is needed, as well as a discussion about the ownership of English” (p. 10).

loanwords has increased to the point that they have been replacing Chinese-derived characters, or *Hanja* (漢字). However, Shim (1999) points out that English as it is taught in Korean classrooms, and which people believe is American English, is not actually American English but rather codified Korean English. This is especially true of the English in teaching materials such as textbooks. She analyzes the following reasons for these circumstances: Korea failed to change the way that English was taught or the English-learning materials, after emancipation from Japan. Instead, English education continued with the same teachers who worked under the Japanese, using the same materials and textbooks, simply translated from Japanese into Korean. In fact, even Korean-to-English and English-to-Korean dictionaries were translated from Japanese-to-English and English-to-Japanese dictionaries. Furthermore, the USAMGIK could not effect change because the Koreans who were in positions of power in fields such as politics, education, and commerce during the occupation were the same people who had been in power during the colonial era. The USAMGIK decided to keep those Koreans in power, otherwise there would be no one to keep the country operating. As a result, the English language that Koreans learned in the classroom became codified Korean English, rather than American English. Y. Kachru & Nelson (2006) introduce the following characteristics of Korean English, citing Shim (1999):

According to Shim (1999), the English textbooks being used in middle and high schools already exemplify the results of spontaneous codification of Korean English. Although the professed objective of ELT in Korea is based on the American English model, the language embodied in the English textbooks and reference materials examined by Shim differ from the model in three important respects. Under the category of lexico-semantic differences (Shim, 1999:250 ff.) are listed items such as the following: *growth* as a count noun (*hills and valleys... covered with fresh green growths*); *after all* to mean ‘finally’; *do with* to indicate ‘endure’ (*Do you think I can do with an insolent man like him?*); and *make at* to denote ‘attack’ (*the wolf made straight at the travelers*). Under morpho-syntactic differences, items such as the following occur (Shim, 1999: 252 ff.): definite article *the* is presented as an obligatory marker of specificity that must precede the head noun of a relative clause or a noun in a prepositional phrase, thus rendering a grammatical sentence such as *he is a man who can help the police* ungrammatical for Korean English users. Non-count nouns are used as count nouns, as in *a hard work, a great patience*, etc. No distinction is made between simple present and present progressive or simple past and past perfect verb tenses. Pragmatic differences (Shim, 1999: 254 ff.) are exemplified by the use of expressions such as *Why don't you...?* As a suggestion or direction in polite conversation, and questions such as: *What are you?* To ask ‘What profession do you belong to?’ (pp. 177-178).

In addition, Koreans use some English words and expressions which are called “Konglish.”⁵⁵ Some examples commonly used in Korea include A/S, running machine, open car, SNS, morning call, and skin.⁵⁶ “A/S” is an abbreviation of “after service,” which refers to product warranties, “running machine” is a treadmill, “open car” is a convertible, and “morning call” is a (hotel) wake-up call. “SNS” is an abbreviation of social networking service, or social media in English-speaking countries, and “skin” is cosmetic toner. These are terms that native English speakers would not understand because even though they are derived from English, they are not used in the same way in English-speaking countries.

In summary, Korean English, a codified variety of English in Korea, has developed as a distinct variety of English mainly through classroom English education. Shim (1999) believes that Korean English cannot be accepted as an appropriate norm in English education at this time, but she expects that it can be accepted someday, when users of this variety have increased in the world.

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed and investigated the theoretical and historical backgrounds of the topics that were reflected in the survey: Kachru’s Concentric Three Circle model, a history of the English language in Korea, English fever, American English norms in South Korea, several topics of WE, and Korean English. The three circles model attempts to demonstrate the different ways English exists around the world. Although other scholars have made amendments to Kachru’s original model, the three circles paradigm as a whole has been criticized as unsatisfactory in representing the way in which English exists in the world today.

When looking specifically at the Korean example, compared to other foreign languages, English was a latecomer to the peninsula. English education began as a necessity for diplomacy and trade, but over time Korean society as a whole started participating in English education. English proficiency has always been part of the path to success in Korea, and, as a result, Korea

⁵⁵ Konglish refers to a mixture of the Korean and English languages. It covers not only the words introduced in this study but also what Shim (1999) explains in terms of the differences between codified Korean English and American English (such as differences in grammar). However, this gives the impression that Konglish is a less exact or a corrupted form of English compared to Inner Circle English, which is similar to the discussion about Singlish in Singapore discussed in the introduction of this study.

⁵⁶ Retrieved from <https://1boon.daum.net/thequizlive/5e7af3c34f1c9a256d69e75a>.

has been under the spell of “English fever,” which has further encouraged the study of English. Among the varieties of English in the world, American English has asserted its dominance in Korea, partially because of Korea’s strong historical ties to the United States. But American English’s prominence in Korea raises questions. Should American English be the Standard English in Korea? Where does that leave other varieties of English? One variety of English is, in fact, Korean English, which has its own unique characteristics. The remainder of this study will build upon these foundational discussions to show how the English language has functioned and influenced Korean society over time, specifically illuminating Koreans’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the English language and the United States as well as the discussions around World Englishes.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study targets South Korean parents who have children under the age of 18, on the hypothesis that parents will not emphasize their child's English education once the child enters college. It also only includes parents who are married in order to reduce the number of variables.

In addition, it focuses on parents in their 30s and 40s based on the hypothesis that parents in this age range are more likely to concentrate on teaching English to their children; according to Statistics Korea, the average age of first marriage for Korean adults is 33.2 for men and 30.4 for women (Ezyeconomy, 2019, March 20). The survey, however, includes participants between 20 and 50 years of age to compare age groups.

The survey was conducted by a Korean survey agency called Macromill Embrain and the participants constituted of panels of people who joined the survey through online participation. The total number of respondents was 400, allocated equally by gender and age; 50 mothers in their 20s and 50 fathers in their 20s participated. The same survey was administered to respondents in their 30s, 40s, and 50s.

To investigate any meaningful differences in results, the survey included variables other than gender, mother, and father. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the information based on two categories: demographic information and English background/experience.

Table 1*Profile of Participants (N = 400)*

Variable	N	(%)
Gender		
Male	200	50
Female	200	50
Age		
20s	100	25
30s	100	25
40s	100	25
50s	100	25
Highest Degree of School		
Elementary school	2	0.5
Middle school	3	0.8
High school	70	17.5
College (BA)	290	72.5
Graduate school (MA/PhD)	35	8.8
Job status		
Employed for wages	259	64.8
Self-employed	34	8.5
Formerly out of work (but not currently)	2	0.5
Homemaker	102	25.5
Student	3	0.8
Monthly Income*		
Less than 4,000,000 won (\$3,873)	241	60.2
More than 4,000,000 won (\$3,873)	159	39.8

*Note: The Korean ‘won’ was used as the currency in the survey and converted to US dollars according to the exchange rate on August 6, 2014 (\$1= 1032.7 won).

Participants included 200 mothers and 200 fathers, and each age group had 100 participants. Most participants, 81.3%, had at least a bachelor’s degree; only 1.3% did not graduate from high school. In addition, most were employed (64.8%) and homemakers formed the second-largest group (25.5%). With respect to income, the survey provided 11 options, from “under 1,000,000 won/month (about \$1,000)” to “over 10,000,000 won (about \$10,000).” However, according to Statistics Korea in 2011, the average income in Korea was 3,860,000 won (\$3,738 based on the exchange rate on August 6, 2014), and the results are divided into two categories, less than 4,000,000 won and more than 4,000,000. According to this, 40% of the participants have an above-average income.

Table 2*English-related Backgrounds of the Participants (N = 400)*

Variable	N	(%)
How long you have studied English		
Less than three years	68	17
Between three and six years	119	29.8
Between seven and ten years	113	25.8
More than ten years	110	27.5
Level of English		
Speaking		
Beginning	220	55
Intermediate	150	37.5
Advanced	30	7.5
Listening		
Beginning	178	44.5
Intermediate	163	40.8
Advanced	59	14.8
Reading		
Beginning	130	32.5
Intermediate	163	40.8
Advanced	107	26.8
Writing		
Beginning	189	47.3
Intermediate	159	39.8
Advanced	52	13
Overall		
Beginning	180	45
Intermediate	174	43.5
Advanced	46	11.5
Whether you have taken official English tests		
Yes	153	38.3
No	247	61.8
Whether you have been abroad		
Yes	290	72.5
No	110	27.5

Table 2 continued

Variable	<i>N</i>	(%)
Longest period you have been abroad		
Less than a week	160	40
About a month	52	13
Between a month and a year	43	10.8
Between a year and three years	28	7
More than four years	7	1.8
Whether you use English at work		
Yes	83	20.8
No	210	52.5
Missing	107	26.8
Frequency of using English at work	83	
Every day	23	27.7
Two or three times a week	26	31.3
Two or three times a month	28	33.7
Almost not at all	6	7.3
Type of English used at work	83	
Speaking and listening	37	44.6
Reading and writing	25	30.1
All four types	21	25.3
Countries visited*	412	
Inner Circle	103	25
Outer Circle	112	27.2
Expanding Circle	197	47.8

*Note: Participants could choose multiple answers.

When it comes to the participants' English background, there were six questions, but some of them had follow-ups; for example, "Are you using English at work now? If so, what kinds of comprehension skills do you use?"

More than 50% of the participants answered that they have studied English longer than seven years. English was officially taught for six years during middle and high school until 1997, when English became an official subject in elementary schools and this increased to ten years. The result shows that many of the participants probably studied English not only as a school subject but also in other places, such as the private sector of English education or in foreign countries.

The second part of Table 2 shows participants' English abilities: The survey specifies four comprehension areas based on the hypothesis that different levels of comprehension may have different meaningful results. For example, beginner-level speakers of English admire native-likeness in speaking more than advanced speakers. Looking at the results, it is easy to determine that participants feel relatively comfortable with reading, while they feel least confident with speaking.

Participants were also asked if they have ever visited or stayed in a foreign country based on the hypothesis that those who have been in other countries might be more tolerant of other varieties of English or easily accepting of them; 290 participants (72.5%) answered that they have visited another country. Two more questions asked about the longest period a respondent had been abroad and which circle of countries he or she had visited; most respondents (40%) answered "less than a week," and 47.8% of them had visited "expanding circle countries."

Lastly, participants were asked whether they used English at work, and if they did, how often they use it and which skills they use; only 20.8% said they use English at work. This reflects the reality of low English usage despite the prevalence of English fever. Participants also answered questions about whether they have taken official English tests such as TOEFL, TOEIC, and TEPS (Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University or TEPS); 38.3% of participants said they had.

Instrumentation

Table 3

Categorization of Items in the Survey

Part	Section no.	Item no.	Contents
Part I			Parents' opinions based on own English learning experiences
	Section 1	Q5-Q19	Perceptions and attitudes toward English in general
	Section 2	Q20-Q26	Perceptions and attitudes toward Standard English
	Section 3	Q27-Q33	Perceptions and attitudes toward World Englishes
	Section 4	Q34-Q41	Perceptions and attitudes toward Korean English
	Section 5	Q42-Q48	Perceptions and attitudes toward NETs vs. NNETs
Part II		Q49-Q64	Parents' opinions regarding their children's English education

This study employed a quantitative research method. I developed the questionnaire, except for questions 26 and 33, which were taken from Sir's (2010) study. The survey has two parts: The first part asks for participants' opinions based on their own experiences as a learner of English and the second part asks about their beliefs and plans, or their view of education and educational philosophy as parents, in relation to their children's English education. The first part is divided into five subsections according to theme. It includes questions about English in general, Standard English, World Englishes, Korean English, and native English teachers (NETs) vs. non-native English teachers (NNETs). The second part includes the same five themes, but not divided into subsections. The first part has 44 questions: The number of questions for each subsection is S1 (15), S2 (7), S3 (7), S4 (8), and S5 (7). The second part has 16 questions. Both parts also feature a few multiple-choice questions. The survey employed a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neither agree nor disagree*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*.

Procedure

A pilot study was conducted in May 2012 after the first draft of the questionnaire was completed. The pilot study targeted Korean mothers in South Korea as well as in the United States; 10 in each group answered (for a total of 20 participants). The survey had two parts, with 12 questions and 5 questions, respectively. Based on the results of the pilot study, I enhanced the questionnaire and completed the final version, with 60 questions, in early August 2012. In addition, I changed the study's target from mothers in two different places, South Korea and the United States, to fathers and mothers in South Korea. After obtaining approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) in October 2012, the survey was administered through the Korean survey agency for four days at the end of November 2012. The data were collected through online targeting of the agency's existing panels.

Data Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA; Tinsley & Brown, 2000) was employed to define a number of constructs measured by 41 questions in Part 1. Based on the results of the EFA, A t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to examine the differences in

constructs among demographic (e.g., gender) and background of English education variables (e.g., period of learning English). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 18.0 (SPSS; Carver & Nash, 2012; Coakes & Ong, 2011) was used for the EFA and for testing the differences among groups.

In Part 2, as in Part 1, the descriptive statistics of each question were examined first and then these questions were paired with the thematically corresponding questions in Part 1. To see the significant differences between paired questions, a t-test and one-way ANOVA was later conducted.⁵⁷

⁵⁷ See “Results of Part 2” in the following chapter for further analysis and Appendix C for detailed statistical results.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results of Part 1

Part 1 included 44 questions asking about respondents' opinions in relation to five themes, such as World Englishes and Korean English, based on their own experience of studying English. In addition to examining the descriptive statistics (i.e., mean and standard deviation) of each questionnaire, exploratory factor analysis (EFA; Tinsley & Brown, 2000) was employed to define the number of constructs measured by 41 questions except the 3 multiple-choice questions. Using the results of the EFA, eight measures were extracted. In this process, four questions (i.e., item numbers 10, 44, 46, and 47) were dropped which were not included in any measure. In addition, five questions (i.e., item numbers 19, 22, 34, 38, and 41) were later dropped due to differences in theme despite the statistical results.

The resulting eight measures are (1) importance of English (M1), (2) negative perceptions and attitudes toward English (M2), (3) Standard English (M3), (4) recognition of World Englishes (M4), (5) familiarity with American English (M5), (6) importance of native-like skill (M6), (7) acceptance of Korean English (M7), and (8) native English teachers (NETs) versus non-native English teachers (NNETs) (M8).

The results are organized following the order of subsections in Table 3, and the measures are provided within the subsections.

Perceptions of and Attitudes toward English in General

The first subsection, Perceptions of and Attitudes toward English in General, included 15 questions (question numbers 5 through 19). According to the statistical results, the first subsection is classified into two measures, M1 and M2.

M1: Importance of English

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of Importance of English

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
5.	English is essential in modern society.	4.28	.66
6.	English is a global language used throughout the world.	4.25	.68
7.	English is very important for success in South Korea, in terms of both job placement and promotion.	4.23	.72
8.	All Koreans should learn English.	3.31	.99
9.	English should be learned for future success rather than for communication.	3.92	.80

Questions in M1 asked respondents about the importance of English and the purpose of learning it. The results showed that people strongly agree that English is vital for success, particularly in South Korea. This is understandable considering the current status of English in South Korea, as reflected in the phenomenon of English fever.

However, interestingly, the mean of question 8, “All Koreans should learn English,” was only a mean of 3.31, which is surprising given the expectation for a high mean score considering the results from preceding questions. This result probably stems from the environment of English use in South Korea. Korea is a monolingual country, and there are still not many chances to use English on an everyday basis. In reality, even in workplaces, workers do not use English often,⁵⁸ although a high English test score is considered a required qualification on applicants’ résumés. Due to the low usage of English in practice, some Koreans suggest that society should not force people to learn English; instead of pushing all students to have good results in English, the education system should support each student’s unique abilities.

The result of question 9, “English should be learned for future success rather than for communication,” also reflects the reality in Korea. Many studies (Shim et al., 2012; Jang, 2012; Cho, 2014) have concluded that the purpose of learning English for Korean English learners is instrumental. The respondents of this study seem to agree that English is a tool for success in the future rather than a medium to connect people. Again, this result might be driven by the reality of the practical use of English in South Korea. For example, many people, including students and

⁵⁸ Only 20.8% of participants of this study indicated that they use English at work (Table 2).

job applicants, are forced to submit a high score on English tests; one example is the School of Law at Seoul University, which requires a score of at least 800 (out of 990) on the TOEIC test⁵⁹ for graduation. This is a very high standard that might not be easy for some students to achieve. Furthermore, it represents an extra workload on top of passing the bar examination. Many colleges and companies have similar policies. In a sense, such an environment forces people to study English for instrumental purposes. This situation makes the simultaneously high mean of question 7 and the lower mean of question 8 understandable.

Table 5 presents the results of group comparison in measuring the importance of English (M1) using total variables, as seen in Tables 1 and 2. Two more variables have been added from multiple-choice questions, namely ‘age when started learning English’ and ‘ideal country to learn English’. The results only include what is significant (a p-value lower than .050); this applies identically to other measures.⁶⁰

Table 5

Mean Comparison of the Measure of Importance of English (M1) across Demographic and Background Variables.

Variables	t/f	df	p
Gender	2.20	398	.028
Ideal country to learn English	2.57	398	.011
Age when started learning English	7.78	399	.000
Use of English at work	2.03	291	.044
Frequency of use at work	4.30	82	.007
Type of English used at work	4.11	82	.020

A statistically significant difference exists between females and males in their belief about the importance of English. Females tend to believe more strongly in the importance of English than males ($t=2.20$, $p=.028$). This is also true of those who want to go to North America rather than other countries ($t=2.57$, $p=.011$). Those who say that it is better to start learning English at a younger age strongly agree with the importance of English ($t=7.78$, $p=.000$): for 0-3 years old, $M=4.41$; for 4-6 years old, $M=4.11$; for over 7 years old, $M=3.94$; and for other ages,

⁵⁹ <http://www.asiatoday.co.kr/news/view.asp?seq=768904>

⁶⁰ See Appendix B for more detailed results of all measurements.

M=3.63. Also, those who use English at work tend to believe more strongly in the theme than those who do not use it at work ($t=2.03$, $p=.044$). Among those who use it at work, those who use it relatively more frequently agree more strongly ($t=4.30$, $p=.007$): for every day, $M=4.33$; for 2 or 3 times per week, $M=4.22$; and for 2 or 3 times per month, $M=3.82$. In addition, those who use all four skills in English at work agree more strongly with the importance of English ($t=4.11$, $p=.020$): for all, $M=4.39$; for speaking and listening only, $M=4.04$; and for reading and writing only, $M=3.94$.

M2: Negative Perceptions and Attitudes Toward English

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of Negative Perceptions and Attitudes toward English.

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
11.	“English fever” in South Korea is excessive.	4.30	.79
12.	Parents in South Korea emphasize learning English over proficiency of the Korean language.	4.06	.86
13.	Negative side effects of English fever, such as the “wild goose family”, are very serious in South Korea.	4.26	.77
14.	The prevalence of English in South Korea has accelerated the Westernization of its culture.	3.57	.93
15.	English has intensified teenagers’ longing for Western culture.	3.50	.95

M2 has a theme of perceptions and attitudes toward overzealous English learning and teaching, or so-called English fever, and partially deals with the issue of cultural subordination. Respondents generally say that social problems arising from rigorous English education are serious in South Korea and they have negative views on such phenomena: Participants strongly agree that English fever in South Korea is excessive and the negative side effects of English fever are serious. Furthermore, they believe that parents in South Korea emphasize learning English over Korean. In fact, many parents purchase English books and teach their children the ABCs as soon as possible, even before the child speaks Korean. Also, English-speaking preschools are popular, although they are at least three to six times more expensive than Korean preschools; they are even excluded from government subsidies, which provide institutional financial aid for every child in a household to attend Korean preschools.

Such a phenomenon is not decided by parents' preference for an English school, but rather by parents' financial power. This carries over to the issue of the English Divide, which is an issue of social class associated with learning English. Richer families can offer their children more opportunities to learn English from an early age, which may result in higher scores and better English ability; this, in turn, results in admission to better schools and better job opportunities. This continues a cycle where, because these families have a better chance to gain higher social status and higher salaries, they can better educate their children who will also benefit from high-quality education and acquire greater wealth. Some people might say that English ability is not the only element that divides people according to social class, but Korean society requires English as a qualification for many opportunities, such as entering college and getting a job. Furthermore, differences in tuition between English and Korean preschools can also lead to relative deprivation for those who cannot fully support their children. As a result, such feelings of loss or defeat may cause negative attitudes with respect to English learning in society. The results of this survey may include such cases as well.

Questions 14 and 15 asked about the topic of cultural subordination, such as Americanization, with an ideological perspective. Some people worry about cultural subordination and a loss of their own cultural virtues due to the acceleration of rigorous English learning, so I wanted to know what members of society think about the issue; participants of this study did not agree with the topics.

Regarding variables, the same process, group comparison, was followed in M2 as in M1. However, there were no statistically significant results.

Standard English: M3

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of Acceptance of Standard English

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
20.	There is a standard language in English.	3.99	.68
21.	British English and American English are the only two recognized standards of English.	3.65	.82
23.	Only Standard English should be taught in schools and or in the private sector.	3.88	.72
24.	I should learn Standard English.	3.77	.75
25.	American or British English is more authentic than Philippine English.	3.79	.87

26. Please check all the varieties of English that you think are Standard English (multiple answers are possible):

- a. American English b. Australian c. British d. Canadian e. New Zealand
f. Indian g. Filipino h. Hong Kong i. Singaporean j. Malaysian k. South African
l. Bangladesh m. Nigerian n. Sri Lankan o. Tanzanian

M3 is a group of questions addressing the theme of Standard English (SE); question 19 was excluded because it had a theme of ownership of English rather than Standard English.

In addition, this study omits discussion of controversies such as what Standard English is or whether such English exists. The study assumed a conceptual idea of a standard language, including Standard English, in people's minds. Based on this hypothesis, the study tried to determine what Standard English looks like in respondents' minds.

With this intention, the SE section starts with a question, number 20, which asked people about the existence of Standard English. Participants said they agreed that there is a standard language in English. There is a standard language for Korean in South Korea—as there is with Mandarin in China or General American English in the United States—which has developed in Seoul, the capital of the country, and is considered the proper language in broadcasting and education. Therefore, it might be natural for Koreans to think there is a standard language in English as well.

After checking for the existence of Standard English in people's minds, I wanted to figure out what it is and what it looks like: Do people think Standard English belongs to a certain country such as the United States or the United Kingdom? Do they think each English-speaking country has its own Standard English, like Indian Standard English? Questions 21 and 22 were

designed to probe this issue, although question 22 was excluded from the measure based on statistical results.

The results show that question 21, “British English and American English are the only two recognized standards of English,” had a mean of 3.65; Choi (2007) reported survey results with one group of respondents having a mean of 4.47 (out of 5.0) and the other having 3.85 on the statement, “Standard English is British English or American English” (p. 59) and Song (2011) demonstrated that 27 college students (23%) out of 115 agreed with the statement “Only American English is Standard English,” and 17 (15%) out of 111 agreed with “Only British English is Standard English” (p. 208). The result of question 21 had a lower mean than in Choi’s (2007) study; it might have been affected by the word only in the statement—Song’s study showed similar results, although the study did not suggest a mean. This shows that participants in the study did not have a limited perspective on Standard English compared to those in Choi’s (2007) study.

Question 22, “Every country which uses English has its own Standard English, such as Standard Indian English or Standard Singaporean English,” had a mean of 3.35. Both results are fairly neutral, so it is not easy to determine how participants view Standard English among countries that have their own Standard English. However, the result of question 22 is relatively low.

The next issue regarding SE was the acceptance of non-Standard English, especially in the field of education, under the premise of the existence of SE. Question 23, “Only Standard English should be taught in schools and or in the private sector,” had a mean of 3.88, which might be translated to “quite agreeable.” The results might be derived from the fact that standard Korean is considered the proper language to teach while dialects are not and, are thus, excluded from textbooks.

I also wondered what people think they should learn, as an extension to question 23. Question 24, “I should learn Standard English,” had a mean of 3.77.

Question 25 touched on an issue regarding superiority and inferiority among varieties of English in people’s minds, thus expanding on question 21: The varieties of English in the question are the ones most familiar to Koreans. The result of question 25, “American or British English is more authentic than Philippine English,” had a mean of 3.79. Parents in Korea seem to prefer sending their children to the United States over the Philippines if they can, due to the

variations in the language, such as in accents and grammar, so the study sought to identify reasons for this bias in relation to the superiority of a language or another reason. Respondents, at least, did not disagree with the statement; it was closer to the scale of agreement.

Question 26 was a multiple-choice question asking which varieties of English a participant thinks are Standard English; this allows for multiple answers. The results show that respondents mostly perceive English of Inner Circle Countries as Standard English: specifically, American English (376, 91.8%), British English (332, 83.0%), Canadian English (164, 41.0%), Australian English (129, 32.3%), and New Zealand English (51, 12.8%). The remaining choices had less than 4%, except for Filipino English (23, 5.8%). Despite the results of questions 21 and 22, it is clear that respondents consider the English of Inner Circle Countries, especially American English, as a Standard English. In addition, among the answers of Inner Circle Countries, American English had overwhelming support compared to other Inner Circle Countries, suggesting that American English is the most familiar variety to Koreans.

Table 8

Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Acceptance of Standard English (M3)” across Demographic and Background Variables

Variables	t/f	df	p
Gender	2.82	397	.005
Ideal country to learn English	3.66	397	.000
Period of learning English	2.77	398	.042

There is a statistically significant difference between females and males in their belief regarding the “Acceptance of Standard English.” Females tend to accept Standard English more readily than males ($t=2.82$, $p=.005$); females also want to go to North America to learn English more than they want to travel to other countries ($t=3.66$, $p=.000$). Lastly, those who have studied English for less than three years show a lower mean ($t=2.77$, $p=.042$).

World Englishes

M4: Recognition of World Englishes

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of Recognition of World Englishes

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
27.	I know there are various forms of English besides American and British English, such as Filipino and Singaporean English.	3.89	.79
28.	We need to learn and understand various forms of World Englishes in this global era.	3.63	.83
31.	I'm willing to learn various forms of World English.	3.18	.93

M4 consisted of questions asking whether people perceived the varieties of English (WE) and, if so, how familiar they were with these and how favorable their attitudes toward them were. Based on the statistical results, questions 22 and 34 are highly correlated with the other questions in M4, but they are relocated: Question 22 is mentioned in the Standard English section and question 34 is mentioned in the next section, Korean English.

Based on the results of M4, Korean parents perceive other varieties of English to some degree (Q27, $M=3.89$). The preference for learning WE, however, does not seem high (for Q28, $M=3.63$ and for Q31, $M=3.18$). In particular, comparing the results of questions 28 and 31, respondents answered they are less likely to learn WE when it comes to their own experience than the more general statement, "People need to learn and understand WE."

In a similar study I conducted targeting Purdue University students in the United States, the mean of the same question (question 27) was much lower; one reason might be the examples of English provided. The study for Purdue University students included African Englishes, which might be less familiar to the participants. In this study, the examples in question 27 were relatively familiar to Koreans. If this study had included examples like varieties of African English, the results would probably be much lower as well.

One concern regarding the results of question 31 is that the parents' less favorable attitudes toward WE could affect their children's view of WE. It is easy for children to reenact their parents' attitudes. Also, if a parent is unfavorable toward something, there is a higher possibility that his or her children will not be exposed to it.

Table 10

Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Recognition of World Englishes (M4)” across Demographic and Background Variables.

Variables	t/f	df	p
Circle of visiting countries	1.95	398	.052
Period of visit/stay	4.08	289	.003

The results show marginal significance ($p=.052$); the group that visited Outer Circle Countries has higher recognition of WE than the group that visited other circle countries ($t=1.95$, $p=.052$). Also, it is statistically significant that a group visiting other countries for less than a week has lower recognition of WE than groups that stayed longer ($t=4.08$, $p=.003$).

M5: Familiarity with American English

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics of Familiarity with American English

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
29.	I'm most familiar with American English.	3.85	.77
30.	Different uses of grammar/vocabulary/pronunciation can be a problem for mutual understanding when communicating.	3.58	.85
32.	What I want to learn most among various forms of English is American English.	3.68	.86
37.	I sometimes envy those Koreans who use native English and sound like American or British speakers.	4.01	.80

Questions in M5 mostly related to American English (e.g., how familiar respondents are with it). In the case of British Councils mentioned earlier, students are exposed to British English because the British government supports English education in specific countries. Likewise, the special relationship between South Korea and the United States, including a military alliance and an economic league, affects English education in South Korea; for example, schools' textbooks and listening materials are in American English. Therefore, South Koreans are mainly exposed to American English. However, not many Koreans know that they are mostly exposed to a certain type of English or which English that is. I also did not realize that I was accustomed to American

English until I experienced other varieties of English in Australia, such as Singaporean English and British English. It was difficult to understand other varieties of English and easiest to understand American English. Therefore, if the respondents do not have such experience, they probably do not recognize which English they use and are accustomed to; this can be a limitation in assessing the results of M5.

Participants seemed relatively neutral on questions 29 and 32, while a similar study showed that its participants preferred to learn American English. In addition, the mean of question 30 is also similar, although there are problematic issues in practice such as ITAs or NNS groups in the United States. Lippi-Green (1997), for example, investigated discrimination and prejudice against speakers of non-mainstream English. She claimed that often non-mainstream language users carry the entire communicative burden, while the dominant language group members feel justified in rejecting their role as listener (Flowerdew, 2001, p. 121, 140; Garcia, 2007, pp. 63-64; Kubota, 2001; Rubin, 1992, cited in Kubota, 2001, p. 50). However, according to the results of question 37, people seem to want native-likeness in their speech; this may have a thread of connection to Tokumoto and Shibata's (2011) results.

The results of M5 suggest that people do not perceive American English as either the most familiar or the most desirable English to learn. The results also suggest that they do not think different uses of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation are problematic in communication, though they sometimes envy more native-like speaking.

Table 12

Mean Comparison of the Measure of "Familiarity with American English (M5)" across Demographic and Background Variables

Variables	t/f	df	p
Ideal country to learn English	3.06	398	.002
Age when started learning English	6.87	399	.000
Period of learning English	2.64	399	.049

A statistically significant difference exists among the groups who want to travel to North America and those who do not: Those who want to go to North America tend to feel more familiar with American English than those who want to go to other locations ($t=3.06$, $p=.002$). Those who answered that 0-3 years old ($M=4.13$) is the best time to begin learning English feel

the same as those who chose other age groups ($t=6.87$, $p=.000$): for 4-6 years old, $M=3.89$; for over 7 years old, $M=3.73$; and for other ages, $M=3.39$. Lastly, those who have studied English for less than three years tend to be less familiar with American English than those who have studied for more than three years ($t=2.64$, $p=.049$).

Multiple-Choice Question

33. When do you think is the best time for South Koreans to learn about various Englishes?

- a. Preschool b. Elementary school c. Middle school
- d. High school e. College f. After college g. Shouldn't be taught at all
- h. Never thought about this i. Prefer not to answer

The results of question 33 show that participants think the best time to teach other varieties of English to their child are the following: 85 respondents chose preschool level (21.3%), 216 chose elementary school level (54.0%), and 65 chose middle school level (16.3%); the remaining answers each received about 2% of the responses. Considering the fact that official English education starts from the third grade in public schools, respondents might think that other varieties of English could be introduced when the study of English begins.

48. If you want to go abroad to study English, which country do you want to go to?

- a. United States b. Australia c. United Kingdom d. Canada e. Philippines
- f. Other (please specify) g. Prefer not to answer

A majority of respondents answered that they would go to the United States to study English (157, 39.3%). The following is a breakdown of the remaining answers: 98 respondents chose Canada (24.5%), 91 chose Australia (22.8%), 50 chose the United Kingdom (12.5%), 3 chose the Philippines (0.8%), and 1 chose other (0.3%). A total of 255 respondents (63.8%) answered that they would go to North America and only 1.1% chose non-inner circle countries; it is clear from these results that respondents prefer going to inner-circle countries to learn English.

Korean English

As explained in Chapter 2, Korean English differs from American English, the unofficial but most accepted norm for English education (Choe, 1996, p. 4, cited in Shim, 1999, p. 247). Korean English has distinguishable morpho-syntactic, lexical, and pragmatic features which are

only acceptable and understandable in South Korea. One term, “Konglish,” is often used to refer to the nativized form of English in South Korea. This study approaches this topic with questions that touch on issues in terms of accents or acceptance of Korean English on the hypothesis that Koreans are not aware of what Korean English is.

M6: Importance of Native-likeness

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics of “Importance of Native-likeness”

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
17.	It is important to acquire a native-like pronunciation and accent when learning English.	3.53	.91
35.	I sometimes feel afraid to use English because of my Korean accent.	3.46	.94
39.	I am embarrassed by Korean pronunciations and accents in English.	2.54	.97

Tokumoto and Shibata (2011) argue that Japanese and Korean students lack confidence in their accented English and admire native-likeness of English, while Malaysian students feel proud of their English. This study investigates the results when it comes to a different target, Korean parents.

Based not only on Tokumoto and Shibata (2011) but also on other similar studies, I expected a high mean for M6. However, the results of the survey differed from my expectations; the means are not high, but instead fairly neutral. Participants said that they are not embarrassed by their Korean-accented English. Therefore, the results of M6 confirm that Korean parents, at least in this survey, show a different opinion from those in Tokumoto and Shibata’s (2011) study.

Based on the statistical results, question 16 belongs to M6, although it has a theme of “ownership of English,” so it is excluded from the M6 table. However, the results of question 16 will be discussed here with other similar questions, while issues regarding ownership of English are left out of the discussion. For example, insisting on ownership of a language is not appropriate. Question 16, “Only those for whom English is their mother tongue can insist on the correctness of it,” has a mean of 3.03. Question 19, which asks about the theme more directly, “Only those whose mother tongue is English (i.e. a Native English Speaker) can have ownership

of the language,” has a mean of 2.24. Question 38, “Koreans cannot insist ownership of English,” has a mean of 2.88. Based on the answers, respondents do not agree with certain people’s (e.g., NNSs) ownership of English or the idea of ownership of a language more generally.

Table 14

Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Importance of Native-likeness (M6)” across Demographic and Background Variables.

Variables	t/f	df	p
Circle of visiting countries	-2.07	398	.039

There is a significant difference in that those who have visited Inner Circle Countries tend to think that native-likeness is less important than those who have visited Outer and Expanding Circle Countries ($t=-2.07$, $p=.039$).

M7: Acceptance of Korean English

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics of Acceptance of Korean English

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
18.	When speaking English, content is more important than pronunciation and accent.	3.58	.81
36.	I don’t think Korean-accented English is a problem for communication.	3.39	.89
40.	Content is more important than pronunciation or accent in speaking English.	3.57	.86

The results of question 36, “I don’t think Korean-accented English is a problem for communication” showed a similar mean to M6 ($M=3.39$). Questions 18 and 40 are the same questions. By putting the same question in a different section, I sought to confirm the validity of the survey by seeing if respondents showed a consistent opinion; looking at the mean, the responses are consistent. These questions were designed to see which is more important for participants, fluent command and delivery of English or the quality and importance of content when speaking. The results show a mean of about 3.57/3.58.

One additional question is related to the same theme but allocated to M6. Question 34, “Korean English is acceptable for more efficient teaching and learning,” has a mean of 3.40.

Native English Teachers (NETs) vs. Non-Native English Teachers (NNETs): M8

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics for Preference for NETs

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
42.	I would like to learn English from American native teachers rather than from teachers of other nationalities.	3.58	.87
43.	I would like to learn English from British native teachers rather than from teachers of other nationalities.	3.33	.78
45.	I think native teachers are generally better than Korean teachers at teaching English.	3.54	.83

Questions in this section asked how much respondents prefer to learn English from NETs. The results show that they do not highly prefer NETs but might slightly prefer American teachers over British teachers. Also, they do not agree with the statement of question 45. When considering the numbers of students going to English-speaking countries for every vacation, the mean is lower than I expected.

Extra questions were excluded from M8 based on the statistical results. Looking at the results of those questions helps in understanding respondents’ perceptions of and attitudes toward NETs and NNETs. Question 44, “Korean teachers of English are more appropriate/better for me,” has a mean of 3.14 and question 46, “I think the role of Native English teachers and Korean English teachers might be different,” has a mean of 3.78. Feedback from governmental English programs that hire NETs, such as the English Program in Korea (EPIK), suggests that students and parents expect a different role for these teachers during class: They expect to learn speaking and listening comprehension skills such as pronunciation, accent, and expressions of communication from NETs, and reading and writing skills in terms of grammar and structure from Korean English teachers. Looking at this feedback, the mean of my survey is not high (Q45, M=3.54). Lastly, question 47, “An English teacher’s ability is more important than his or her nationality,” has a mean of 3.67. Based on these results, this study confirms that respondents

have a less favorable view of NNETs, which is expected as South Korea has a preference for NETs.

Table 17

Mean Comparison of the Measure of “Preference for NETs (M8)” across Demographic and Background Variables

Variable	t/f	df	p
Ideal country to learn English	3.43	398	.001
Age when started learning English	6.99	399	.000
Use English at work or not	1.97	291	.050

There is a statistically significant difference between groups regarding their preference for NETs. Those who want to go to North America to learn English tend to prefer NETs more than those who want to go to other locations ($t=3.43$, $p=.001$). Those who answered that 0-3 years old ($M=4.0$) is the best time to start learning English answered the same as other age group answerers ($t=6.99$, $p=.000$): for 4-6 years old, $M=3.57$; for over 7 years old, $M=3.43$; and other ages, even much older, $M=3.02$. Those who believe that English education should start at a younger age prefer NETs rather than NNETs. Lastly, those who use English at work prefer NETs more than those who do not ($t=1.97$, $p=.050$).

Results of Part 2

Table 18

All Part 2 Questions and their Results

Questions	Mean	SD
49. Teaching English to my child is compulsory, rather than optional.	3.91	.80
50. I will teach English to my child no matter what.	4.04	.97
51. I will teach my child English for his/her future success rather than for communication.	3.67	1.15
52. I can endure the lifestyle of a wild goose family for my child's English education.	2.68	1.01
53. I hope that my child will acquire native English skills.	3.65	1.02
54. I can accept any resulting financial difficulties because my child's English education is important.	2.88	.83
55. I would like to teach my child various forms of English, rather than teaching only Standard English.	3.30	.81
56. It would be acceptable to teach my child Korean English.	3.27	.85
57. What I most want my child to be taught is American English.	3.64	.95
58. I sometimes worry that my child speaks Korean-accented English.	2.96	.92
59. I prefer to have a native English teacher who uses English as his/her mother tongue.	3.51	.71
60. A Korean English teacher is better/more appropriate for my child.	3.05	1.01
61. Earlier is better when learning English.	3.49	1.11
62. I prefer to send my child to English-speaking preschools rather than Korean-speaking preschools.	2.75	.62
63. When are you going to/when did you expose your child to English?	-	-
64. To which country would you send your children abroad to study English?	-	-

Part 2 requires answers about participants' beliefs (also known as views of English education or educational philosophy) and plans for their children's English education, while Part 1 seeks answers regarding their opinions based on their own English learning experience. Part 2 has fewer questions but contains the same five themes (or eight measurements) as Part 1.

In Part 2, I first paired questions with corresponding questions from Part 1 based on the theme.

Table 19*Pairs of Questions in Part 2 and Part 1*

Theme of the questions	Part 2	Part 1
Importance of English	Q49	Q5
Willingness of learning/teaching English	Q50	Q8
Purpose of learning/teaching English	Q51	Q7, 9
Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English	Q52	Q11, 13, M2
Native-likeness of English	Q53	Q17, 18, 36
Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English	Q54	Q11, 13, M2
Standard English and World Englishes	Q55	Q23, 24, 28, 31
World Englishes including Korean English	Q56	Q34
American English and native-likeness of English	Q57	Q28, 31, 32
World Englishes including Korean English	Q58	Q34, 35, 36, 37, 39, 40
NETs vs. NNETs	Q59	Q42, 43, 44, 45, 47, M8
NETs vs. NNETS (Korean English teachers)	Q60	Q44, 47

Then, a t-test and one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the differences between the paired questions; the tables only contain statistically significant results, where the p-value is lower than .050. Questions were dropped if the p-value was higher than .050, even though they were related to a question in Part 2. For example, question 18, which was originally matched with question 53, was dropped from the table due to the p-value. Each table states if there is a dropped question.⁶¹

The purpose of comparing corresponding questions in Parts 1 and 2 is to see whether participants change their answers when it comes to their children's English education compared to their own study of English. For example, respondents might answer that people need to learn varieties of English and they are also willing to learn them, but then answer that they will not expose their children to other varieties of English. That is, the study investigates whether respondents have contradictory attitudes when they confront these issues in relation to their children's education.

The question pairs between Parts 1 and 2 are shown in Tables 20 through 26, which are presented in order of question number, but organized and gathered into one group based on the theme, which is consistent with the subsections in Part 1. The tables show Part 2 questions first and then compare these to the questions from Part 1.

⁶¹ See Appendix C for detailed results.

Table 190*Pairs of Questions Regarding General Ideas of English*

Part	Subscales	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
2	Teaching English to my child is compulsory, rather than optional. (Q49)	3.91	.89			
1	English is essential in modern society. (Q5)	4.28	.65	-9.19	399	.000
1	All Koreans should learn English. (Q8)	3.31	.99	15.00	399	.000
2	I will teach English to my child no matter what. (Q50)	4.04	.80			
1	All Koreans should learn English. (Q8)	3.31	.99	15.00	399	.000
2	I will teach my child English for his/her future success rather than for communication. (Q51)	3.67	.97			
1	English is very important for success in South Korea, in terms of both job placement and promotion. (Q7)	4.23	.72	-11.61	399	.000
1	English should be learned for future success rather than for communication. (Q9)	3.92	.80	-6.05	399	.000

The scale of agreement for the paired questions 49 and 5 shows that English is perceived as essential in South Korea. In terms of a statistically significant result, the word compulsory in question 49 may have deterred respondents from selecting *strongly agree*. The difference between the means of questions 49 and 8 reflects the fact that respondents might have a contradictory attitude between their beliefs as a learner and as a parent, which is confirmed in the following question.

The results of question 50 shows how important respondents think teaching English is, as an extension of question 49. Even though the question uses the phrasing “no matter what,” participants agreed with the statement, “I will teach English to my child no matter what.” The difference in the means of the two questions shows that respondents display conflicting attitudes because they did not agree with question 8 but did agree with question 50. Furthermore, the statistical results suggest that there is a significant difference between the means of the two questions, which confirms that they have an ambivalent attitude when it comes to their children’s English education.

The results of question 51 are also intriguing. They show that participants have different expectations in terms of the reasons for teaching English to their child, where they have learned

English for more instrumental purposes. Respondents answered that English is very important for success in South Korea (Q7, M=4.23), and they agree that English should be learned for future success rather than for communication (Q9, M=3.92). However, the mean of question 51, “I will teach my child English for his/her future success rather than for communication,” is 3.67, lower than those of the pairs. Parents probably want their children to communicate with others more fluently and with more pleasure in a global era, rather than focusing on test scores or making English a tool of qualifications for success.

Table 21 shows pairs of questions that have a theme of negative perceptions and attitudes toward English.

Table 201

Pairs of Questions Regarding Negative Perceptions and Attitudes toward English

Part	Subscales	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
2	I can endure the lifestyle of a wild goose family for my child’s English education. (Q52)	2.68	1.15			
1	“English fever” in South Korea is excessive. (Q11)	4.30	.78	-21.07	399	.000
1	Negative side effects of English fever, such as the “wild goose family”, are very serious in South Korea. (Q13)	4.26	.77	-22.03	399	.000
1	M2. ($\alpha=.742$) Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English (Q11-Q15)	3.93	.61	-19.15	399	.000
2	I can accept any resulting financial difficulties because my child’s English education is important. (Q54)	2.88	1.02			
1	“English fever” in South Korea is excessive. (Q11)	4.30	.78	-20.05	399	.000
1	Negative side effects of English fever, such as the “wild goose family”, are very serious in South Korea. (Q13)	4.26	.77	21.13	399	.000
1	M2. ($\alpha=.742$) Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English (Q11-Q15)	3.93	.61	-18.03	399	.000

The results of M2, a group of questions related to social phenomena driven by English fever, show that respondents recognize the trend of rigorous English education and are tired of the resultant social problems, such as the broken family or the so-called wild goose family. The results of comparable questions in Part 2, questions 52 and 54, show that respondents disagree

with both statements, which suggests that respondents do not want social problems to negatively influence their households. Therefore, the results of Parts 1 and 2 show that participants are on the same page with regards to English fever, which differs from my hypothesis that respondents would agree with Part 2 questions despite disliking the excessive learning of English in South Korea. Contrary to this hypothesis, respondents' negative attitudes toward English fever are consistent with their beliefs and their will regarding the English education of their children.

Table 212

Pairs of Questions Regarding Native-likeness

Part	Subscales	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
2	I hope that my child will acquire native-like English skills. (Q53)	3.65	1.01			
1	It is important to acquire a native-like pronunciation and accent when learning English. (Q17)	3.53	.91	2.27	399	.002
1	I don't think Korean-accented English is a problem for communication. (Q36)	3.39	.89	3.81	399	.000

Question 53 was matched with questions 17, 18, and 36. However, question 18 was dropped because the p-value was higher than .050, which means that the result was not statistically significant or there was no significant difference between the two means.

Interestingly, the mean of question 53 is not very high considering the mean of question 37, "I sometimes envy those Koreans who use native English and sound like American or British speakers" (M=4.01); respondents feel envious when they see other Koreans who use native-like English, but this does not mean they want their child to use such English. This finding is also lower than my expectations. However, according to the statistical results, participants think that native-likeness is more important in a child's education than in general English education (Q17) and that native-likeness is relatively competitive over Korean English (Q36). This also links to hypotheses in relation to parents' conflicting attitudes.

Table 223*Pairs of Questions Regarding Standard English and WE*

Part	Subscales	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
2	I would like to teach my child various forms of English, rather than teaching only Standard English. (Q55)	3.30	.83			
1	Only Standard English should be taught in schools and or in the private sector. (Q23)	3.88	.72	-10.35	399	.000
1	I should learn Standard English. (Q24)	3.77	.75	-8.46	399	.000
1	We need to learn and understand various forms of World English in this global era. (Q28)	3.63	.83	-7.40	399	.000
1	I'm willing to learn various forms of World English. (Q31)	3.18	.93	2.62	399	.009

Understanding might be better facilitated by breaking question 55 into two statements, “I would like to teach my child various forms of English” and “I would like to teach my child only Standard English.” Furthermore, WE and Standard English are not equivalents. However, if considered only through the results in this table, it seems that people give more weight to Standard English (Q23, 24) and have relatively less favorable attitudes toward WE (Q31), compared with the results of question 55.

In addition, the results of Table 23 show parents’ inconsistent answers between the two parts. When comparing the results of questions 55 and 28, participants agree less with teaching WE to their own children than they do in the general statement. This shows that parents might have more rigid attitudes or restrictive views toward teaching varieties of English to their children than learning such varieties themselves.

Table 234*Pairs of Questions Regarding “Acceptance of Korean English”*

Part	Subscales	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
2	It would be acceptable to teach my child Korean English. (Q56)	3.27	.81			
1	Korean English is acceptable for more efficient teaching and learning. (Q34)	3.40	.75	-2.84	399	.005
2	I sometimes worry that my child speaks Korean-accented English. (Q58)	2.96	.95			
1	Korean English is acceptable for more efficient teaching and learning. (Q34)	3.40	.75	-7.27	399	.000
1	I sometimes feel afraid to use English because of my Korean accent. (Q35)	3.46	.94	-9.70	399	.000
1	I don’t think Korean-accented English is a problem for communication. (Q36)	3.39	.89	-6.19	399	.000
1	I sometimes envy those Koreans who use native English and sound like American or British speakers. (Q37)	4.01	.80	-18.93	399	.000
1	I am embarrassed by Korean pronunciations and accents in English. (Q39)	2.54	.97	8.71	399	.000
1	Content is more important than pronunciation or accent in speaking English. (Q40)	3.57	.86	-9.10	399	.000

The inconsistency in parents’ answers can be seen in these results in relation to the “Acceptance of Korean English.” Participants answered that Korean English is less acceptable for their child’s English education (Q56) compared to the general statement (Q34). Again, the difference between the means is statistically significant.

Regarding question 58, I assumed that parents would not favor Korean-accented English based on Tokumoto and Shibata’s (2011) study, but participants did not agree with the statement; rather, the results are relatively close to disagreement. When considering the mean of question 37, the result of question 58 is more surprising. One uncertain element is whether the result comes from parents not caring about Korean-accented English or from their expectations that their child will not speak Korean-accented English.

Table 245*Pairs of Questions Regarding Preference for American English*

Part	Subscales	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
2	What I most want my child to be taught is American English. (Q57)	3.64	.85			
1	I'm willing to learn various forms of World English. (Q31)	3.18	.93	7.58	399	.000

Question 57 was matched with questions 18, 31, and 32. Only the pair between question 57 and 31 has a statistically significant result. The mean of question 57 is 3.64, which suggests that respondents do not exhibit a high preference for having their child taught in American English. The mean of question 31 is 3.18, which suggests that respondents are neither willing nor unwilling to learn various forms of World English. However, the statistical results suggest that they exhibit a higher preference for having their child taught American English over various forms of World English.

Additionally, the mean of question 57 is much lower than I expected and also dissimilar to other studies which have shown a high preference for American English. There might be a limit to Koreans' recognition of what American English is and how much they are exposed to it in South Korea.

Table 256*Pairs of Questions Regarding NETs vs NNETs*

Part	Subscales	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
2	I prefer to have a native English teacher who uses English as his/her mother tongue. (Q59)	3.51	.92			
1	I would like to learn English from British native teachers rather than from teachers of other nationalities. (Q43)	3.33	.78	3.93	399	.000
1	A Korean teacher of English is more appropriate/better for me. (Q44)	3.14	.79	5.44	399	.000
1	An English teacher's ability is more important than their nationality. (Q47)	3.67	1.24	-2.83	399	.005
2	A Korean English teacher is better/more appropriate for my child. (Q60)	3.05	.71			
1	A Korean teacher of English is more appropriate/better for me. (Q44)	3.14	.79	-2.23	399	.026
1	An English teacher's ability is more important than their nationality. (Q47)	3.67	1.24	-10.34	399	.000

Question 59 was originally paired with questions 42, 43, 44, 45, 47, and M8, but only questions 43, 44, and 47 had statistically significant results, so the rest of the questions were dropped.

In contrast to my estimations based on other studies, which showed a strong preference for NETs, the results of this study do not reflect the same opinions as question 59, which has a mean of 3.51. However, this confirms that a NET might be preferred over a Korean teacher (Q44) based on the pairing of questions 59 and 44. This is confirmed in the following question (Q60). Although the means of questions 60 (M=3.05) and 44 (M=3.14) appear similar, the slight difference between the means is statistically significant. This shows that respondents think that a Korean teacher of English is better/more appropriate for themselves (Q44) than for their children (Q60).

Extra Questions in Part 2

Questions 61 through 64 ask for more general ideas about English rather than offering points of comparison between Part 1 and Part 2. The results are shown in Table 27.

Table 267*General Ideas Regarding Teaching English*

Questions	Mean	SD
Q61. Earlier is better when learning English.	2.75	1.11
Q62. I prefer to send my child to English-speaking preschools rather than Korean-speaking preschools.	2.65	.62
	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Q63. When are you going to/when did you expose your child to English?	400	100
1) 0-3 years old	15	3.8
2) 4-6 years old	128	32.0
3) after 7 years old	241	60.3
4) Other age	16	4.0
64. To which country would you send your children abroad to study English?		
1) United States	400	100
2) Australia	146	36.5
3) United Kingdom	90	22.5
4) Canada	41	10.3
5) Philippines	111	27.8
6) Other (please specify) _____	7	1.8
	5	1.3

Respondents in this study provided consistent answers regarding several issues, such as studying abroad at an early age. The results of questions 61 and 62 reflect those attitudes: participants disagree with “Earlier is better when learning English” and “I prefer to send my child to English-speaking preschools rather than Korean-speaking preschools.” Considering the results of question 63, most respondents think that it is best to start learning English once children are over 7 years old. Elementary school age can still be a young age to start learning a foreign language, but it is not especially early considering the reality that many parents expose their babies to English from infancy and then send their children to English preschool when they are 3-4 years old. Additionally, official English education starts from the third grade in public schools. Therefore, the results of this survey differ from my hypothesis as well as what is commonly perceived in society.

However, from a different perspective, one can say that 35.8% of participants have not or will not expose their children to English before the age of 6 although they disagree with the statement of question 61. In addition, even though respondents show a mean of 3.64 for question

57, “What I most want my child to be taught is American English,” the results of question 64 reveal that the majority of respondents, 36.5%, chose the United States as the preferred study abroad location for their children. Also, most of the answers show that people chose Inner Circle Countries, as seen in the statistical results.

Clark (2013) shed light on the number of Korean students in undergraduate programs in the United States, based on the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Institute for Statistics (UIS) Global Education Digest 2012 in World Education News & Review (June 1, 2013):

The United States is far and away the most popular destination for Korean students studying overseas. Of the more than 126,000 students⁶² who were studying abroad in 2012, over 72,000 were enrolled at U.S. universities (IIE [the Institute of International Education] Open Doors: 2012) — third overall behind China and India, despite having a population that is less than 1/20th of those nations.

⁶² The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) revealed the number of Korean students who have studied abroad between kindergarten and 12th grade—excluding those who are family members of resident employees and immigrants—and according to these numbers, 3,943 students out of 12,218 (32.3%) went to the United States.

CHAPTER 5: LIMITATIONS OF THE RESERACH AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The first limitation of this study has to do with the means of data collection. Data was collected from adults who were registered with one survey agency, so it is difficult to tell if these individuals are representative of South Korean parents as a whole or if they are a particular subset of that population. On the other hand, working with an agency allowed for streamlined data collection, a large sample size, and high-quality responses because the respondents regularly work with this agency to answer surveys.

Secondly, this study leaves some controversy out of the discussion, such as what Standard English is, and instead relies on each respondent's definition of different concepts. This means that the ideas behind certain words like Standard English and Korean English could differ from person to person. However, the purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions and attitudes toward several issues related to English from the respondents' perspective rather than to discuss or educate them on these issues, so this did not affect the outcome of the study.

Lastly, because of Korean culture, Koreans are sometimes reluctant to voice strong opinions, so respondents might have been more conservative in their answers by selecting 2 or 4 rather than 1 or 5 on the scale. If this did occur, the results could be slightly skewed. Regardless, the overall trends that emerged from the results would still be preserved. For example, even if respondents selected 4 (*agree*) instead of 5 (*strongly agree*) about their preference for NETs, although the degree of their preference would not be as high, it would still contribute toward the overall trend of the answer.

Further research could investigate the perceptions and attitudes of younger Korean students (elementary through high school) toward similar ideas explored in this study. It would be meaningful to compare the results between parents and young students because previous studies have mainly focused on college students. In addition, younger students have enjoyed different circumstances from those of their parents' generation, as they are more easily exposed to other countries and other varieties of English through technology and travel. Therefore, further research could confirm the levels of exposure Korean students have to different varieties of English, whether or not they have a favorable attitude toward them, and their level of

understanding of WE. It could also examine if their parents' perceptions and attitudes influence their outlook on similar issues.

The survey used in this study could also be conducted at a later date to see if any new trends have emerged in Korean parents' perspectives on English. In addition, other scholars have directed studies where they teach people about WE and the value of equality between English varieties; further research into this kind of education could confirm if the results of these experiences are positive for the participants.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

English proficiency has long been an important contributor to success in Korean society. This puts immense pressure on Koreans of all ages and in every stage of life to study English, which has impacted Korean society in a variety of ways, both positive and negative. This study investigated what Korean parents think about the English language and English-related issues, including World Englishes, Standard English, and Korean English. Previous studies have not specifically targeted Korean parents or touched on broader topics such as Standard English and Korean English within one study. Korean parents (mothers in particular) are the ones who make decisions about their children's English education, but they are also language learners themselves. Therefore, this study focused on finding out if parents hold contradictory attitudes depending on which perspective they are viewing English through—that of learner or that of parent—by comparing their answers to the same questions in different contexts. One stereotype of Korean mothers is that they are the key decision-makers when it comes to what their children study, while fathers often disagree with those decisions. Therefore, this study also offered an opportunity to see if mothers and fathers hold different views about English education.

By conducting surveys and analyzing the results, this study confirms or identifies the following: Korean parents acknowledge that learning English is crucial in South Korea, not necessarily for the purposes of communication, but for achieving future career success in the global era. However, they report wanting their children to benefit in other ways from learning English (for example, being able to communicate in English), which shows that they believe there are benefits to learning English beyond meeting the requirements for career success.

At the same time, Korean parents express tiredness at the social pressure to learn English and hold negative attitudes toward social problems that can result from the intensive emphasis on English education, such as broken families or so-called “wild goose families”. However, they do not think that Korea's emphasis on English proficiency results in cultural subordination. They also did not provide paradoxical answers regarding English fever; rather, they consistently answered that they do not let social problems negatively affect their household. These results are meaningful because they challenge the stereotype that Korean mothers would not hesitate to spend large amounts of money despite their income or that they would be willing to go to Inner

Circle countries for their children's English education, enduring separation from their spouses. Thus, stories of families going to these lengths are more likely to represent the extreme than the norm. This was shown in the responses to Q 52, "I can endure the life style of a wild goose family for my child's English education," and Q 54, "I can accept any resulting financial difficulties because my child's English education is important," which had means of 2.68 and 2.88, respectively. This shows a clear disagreement with the statements, which differs from both the prevailing prejudice and my own hypotheses at the outset.

In addition, respondents do not show high-levels of familiarity with American English, a high preference for NETs, or any embarrassment or denial of Korean English, which is dissimilar to the results reported in previous studies. Participants do have a certain concept of Standard English but, given the results, it is not easy to determine what that is. In contrast to the findings of other studies, they do not believe Standard English is limited to only American English or British English; however, what they consider to be Standard English is indeed that originating in Inner Circle countries. They seem somewhat close to agreement on the suitability of teaching Standard English, but this does not mean that they would exclude World Englishes.

There were no specific variables that consistently showed statistically significant results. Rather, each variable functioned differently according to the questions asked. For example, regarding the topic of Standard English, variables such as gender, the preference for learning English in North America, and the length of time spent studying English had statistically significant results. For the topic of World Englishes, demographic variables do not result in statistically significant results, but variables as which circle countries the respondents visited and the duration of those visits do impact the responses.

In terms of gender, there were not significant differences in the results between mothers and fathers, in spite of the stereotype mentioned above. Rather both display inconsistent answers between Part 1, which asked respondents to answer as an English learner, and Part 2, which asked respondents to answer the same questions as a parent; their answers are not full contradictory, but are inconsistent to a certain degree. For example, respondents are fairly neutral in assessing whether "All Koreans should learn English." (Q8) (M=3.31) in Part 1, but expressed agreement when it came to their own children in Part 2, with the statements: "I will teach English to my child no matter what" (Q50) (M=4.04) and "Teaching English to my child is compulsory, rather than optional." (Q49) (M=3.91). It is especially interesting that the mean was so high for

Q50 even though it included the condition “no matter what”. Additionally, the survey found that respondents are less likely to be open-minded about teaching varieties of English to their children or to hire Korean teachers or NNETs. They are more likely to prefer NETs for their children. While this study identifies meaningful differences based on statistical results, this does not mean that respondents displayed totally opposing opinions or attitudes when comparing their own educational preferences to that of their children.

However, the inconsistencies between Part 1 and Part 2 are important because the results of many questions in Part 2 stand in contrast to social prejudices and the results of previous studies. Participants answered negatively to questions such as “I hope that my child will acquire native English skills” (M=2.88), “What I most want my child to be taught is American English” (M=2.96), “Earlier is better when learning English” (M=2.75), and “I prefer to send my child to English-speaking preschools rather than Korean-speaking preschools.” (M=2.65). Similarly, they answered positively to the following questions: “It would be acceptable to teach my child Korean English” (M=3.64), and “A Korean English teacher is better/more appropriate for my child” (M=3.49).

These results were unexpected when considering questions like 37, “I sometimes envy those Koreans who use native-like English of American or British speakers,” which had a mean of 4.01. It might seem logical to assume that because the mean of question 37 was high, the corresponding question in Part 2 (question 53, “I hope that my child will acquire native-like English skills”) would have a mean closer to *strongly agree* (5), but the mean was 2.88, which is closer to *disagree* (2).

Although respondents did not express a desire for their children to acquire native-like English skills, they were hesitant to accept other varieties of English; for example, the mean of question 31, “I’m willing to learn various forms of World English,” is 3.18, relatively very low compared to other results in the same category, and the mean of question 55, “I would like to teach my child various forms of English, rather than teaching only Standard English,” is 3.30, whereas the mean of question 28, “We need to learn and understand various forms of World English in this global era,” is 3.63, is somewhat positive. It seems that respondents are accepting of WE in a general sense, but more resistant to it when it comes to learning it themselves or to having their children learn it.

I want to conclude with a discussion of the pedagogical implications of this study. The survey responses used here reinforce the idea that people may be indifferent about or reluctant to learn other varieties of English. This study confirms the necessity of educating people to recognize other varieties of English so that they can be tolerant of all varieties of English. Other studies show that such efforts can increase understanding between individuals who speak different varieties of English; Plakans' (1997) and Rubin's (1992) studies show that the more courses American college students take from ITAs, the more positive their attitudes become toward them (as cited in Kubota, 2001, p. 49). Baik & Shim (2002) designed and taught a class about WE via the Internet that encouraged students to broaden their understanding of other varieties of English and to be more open-minded towards them. At the end of the 15-week curriculum, students better understood other varieties of English and were more tolerant toward individuals who speak other varieties of English. Other studies have suggested which direction we should go when approaching this task, for example, Said (2003) states: "As educators, our roles require understanding and compassion for others, which is not a monopoly of any particular political theory, but might instead be seen as part of a 'worldly humanism' that has the potential to connect with others" (as cited in Bolton, 2005, p. 79). It is my hope that every country can implement educational policies that help English learners gain both awareness of and tolerance toward other varieties of English and that educators conduct research with a nonjudgmental and respectful attitude.

APPENDIX A. SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Survey Questionnaire (in Korean) – total 60 questions

Demographic Info and other variables

(Demographic info (Q1-Q4) was asked before answering the questionnaire and other variables (Q65-Q81) were asked after finishing the questionnaire.)

[Q1] SQ1 귀하의 성별은 어떻게 되십니까?

남자

여자

[Q2] SQ2 귀하의 연령은 어떻게 되십니까?

만 18 세 이하

만 19~29 세

만 30~39 세

만 40~49 세

만 50~59 세

만 60 세 이상

[Q3] SQ3 귀하의 결혼여부를 선택하여 주시기 바랍니다.

미혼

기혼

[Q4] SQ4 귀하께서는 슬하에 자녀가 있으십니까? 자녀의 나이대를 모두 응답하여 주시기 바랍니다.

자녀 없음

만 0~3 세 (영유아)

만 4~6 세 (미취학 아동)

초등학생

중학생

고등학생

성인 자녀

[Q65] DQ1 귀하의 최종학력은 어떻게 되십니까?

초등학교 졸업

중학교 졸업

고등학교 졸업

대학교 졸업

대학원 이상

[Q66] DQ2 귀하의 직업은 어떻게 되십니까?

직장에 다니고 있는 중

자영업

구직중

휴직중

가정주부

학생

퇴직

일할 수 없는 상태

[Q67] DQ3 귀하의 직장에서는 영어를 사용하십니까?

사용한다

사용하지 않는다

[Q68] DQ3-1 사용하신다고 응답하셨다면, 얼마나 자주 사용하십니까?

매일

일주일에 2-3 번

한 달에 2-3 번

거의 사용하지 않는다

[Q69] DQ3-2 사용하신다고 응답하셨다면, 사용형태는 어떻게 되십니까?

말하기/듣기 위주

읽기/쓰기 위주

말하기/듣기/읽기/쓰기 모두

[Q70] DQ4 귀하의 월평균 소득은 어느정도 되십니까?

100 만원 미만

100-200 만원 사이

200-300 만원 사이

300-400 만원 사이

400-500 만원 사이

500-600 만원 사이

600-700 만원 사이

700-800 만원 사이

800-900 만원 사이

900-1000 만원 사이

1000 만원 이상

[Q71] DQ5-1 다른 나라를 방문 또는 거주해보신 경험이 있으신가요?

네

아니오

[Q72] DQ5-2 방문 또는 거주한 경험 중 가장 오래 머문 기간은 어느 정도입니까?

일주일 미만

대략 한 달정도

한 달 이상, 1 년 미만

1-3 년정도

4 년 이상

[Q73] DQ5-3 다음 중 방문 또는 거주해 본 국가가 포함된 그룹에 체크해주세요. (복수 응답 가능)

미국, 영국, 캐나다, 호주, 뉴질랜드, 아일랜드, 남아프리카 공화국

인도, 필리핀, 싱가포르, 말레이시아, 나이지리아, 방글라데시, 파키스탄, 탄자니아, 케냐

중국, 러시아, 일본, 유럽 국가, 이집트, 인도네시아 등

기타

[Q74] DQ6 귀하의 영어 학습 기간은 어느 정도입니까?

3 년 미만

3-6 년 정도

7-10 년 정도

10 년 이상

[Q75] 말하기 (1 (매우 부족) – 10 (매우 능숙))

[Q76] 듣기(1 (매우 부족) – 10 (매우 능숙))

[Q77] 읽기(1 (매우 부족) – 10 (매우 능숙))

[Q78] 쓰기(1 (매우 부족) – 10 (매우 능숙))

[Q79] 총괄(total) (1 (매우 부족) – 10 (매우 능숙))

[Q80] DQ8-1 귀하께서는 토익, 토플, 텡스, IELTS 과 같은 시험 영어를 보신 경험이 있으신가요?

네

아니오

[Q81] DQ8-2 어떤 시험을 치뤄보셨나요?

토플

토익

IELTS

텡스

기타

Questionnaire Part 1. - A 5-point Likert scale was used (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree).

[Q5] 영어는 현대사회를 살아가는데 반드시 필요하다고 생각한다

[Q6] 영어는 어느 나라에서나 통용되는 세계공용어라고 생각한다

[Q7] 우리나라에서 영어는 구직이나 승진과 같은 성공을 위해서 중요하다고 생각한다

[Q8] 우리나라 사람들 모두가 영어를 배워야 한다고 생각한다

[Q9] 영어는 단순히 외국인과의 의사소통(대화)을 잘 하기 위해서라기 보다는 미래의 성공을 위해 배울 필요가 있다고 생각한다

[Q10] 나는 영어를 실제로 사용하기 위해서 보다는 시험, 취직을 위해서 공부하였다

[Q11] 한국의 영어 교육 열풍은 지나친 면이 있다

[Q12] 우리나라 부모들은 자녀들에게 국어보다는 영어를 더 잘해야 한다고 강조하고 있다고 생각한다

[Q13] 영어 교육 열풍의 부작용으로 기러기 가족과 같은 사회 문제가 매우 심각해졌다고 생각한다

[Q14] 영어로 인해 우리나라 문화의 서구화가 심화되고 있다고 생각 한다

[Q15] 영어로 인해 우리나라 청소년의 서구문화에 대한 동경이 심화 되고 있다고 생각한다

[Q16] 영어는 그것을 모국어로 사용하는 원어민만이 영어의 정확성에 대해 판단할 수 있다

[Q17] 영어를 배울 때 원어민과 같은 발음과 억양을 습득하는 것은 중요하다

[Q18] 영어를 구사할 때, 발음이나 억양보다는 내용이 더 중요하다고 생각한다

- [Q19] 영어는 영어를 모국어로 사용하는 사람들만이 소유권을 갖는다
- [Q20] 영어에도 표준어가 있다고 생각한다
- [Q21] 영국 영어와 미국 영어만이 가장 대표적으로 널리 인식된 표준 영어라고 생각한다
- [Q22] 영어를 사용하는 모든 나라에는 인도 표준영어, 싱가포르 표준 영어와 같은 영어 표준어가 존재한다고 생각한다
- [Q23] 학교나 학원 등 교육현장에서는 표준영어를 가르쳐야한다고 생각한다
- [Q24] 나는 표준 영어를 배울 것이다
- [Q25] 미국영어나 영국영어가 필리핀영어 보다 정통영어라고 생각 한다
- [Q26] 다음 중 표준영어라고 생각하는 나라의 언어를 체크해주세요 (복수응답 가능)
- [Q27] 나는 세상에 미국 영어, 영국 영어 외에 필리핀영어, 싱가포르 영어와 같이 다양한 영어들이 존재한다는 것을 알고 있다
- [Q28] 나는국제화 시대에 세계 여러나라의 다양한 영어들을 배우고 이해하는 것이 중요하다고 생각한다
- [Q29] 나에게는 미국 영어가 가장 친숙하다
- [Q30] 영어에서 문법, 단어, 발음 등에 차이가 있다면 그것이 의사 전달이나 상호 이해에 걸림돌이 될 수 있다고 생각한다
- [Q31] 나는 세계의 다양한 영어들을 배울 의향이 있다
- [Q32] 내가 가장 공부하고 싶은 영어는 미국영어이다
- [Q33] 한국에서 다양한 영어를 배우기 시작하기에 가장 적합하다고 생각되는 시기는 언제 입니까?
- [Q34] 나는 보다 효율적인 영어교육을 위해서 한국영어를 인정할 수 있다
- [Q35] 나는 때때로 한국식 억양 때문에 영어로 말하기가 두렵거나 꺼려질 때가 있다
- [Q36] 나는 기본적으로 한국식 억양과 발음이 영어로 의사소통하는데 문제가 된다고 생각하지 않는다
- [Q37] 나는 미국인이거나 영국인과 같은 원어민 영어를 구사하는 우리 나라 사람을 볼 때 부럽다
- [Q38] 한국 사람은 영어에 관해 소유권을 주장할 수 없다
- [Q39] 나는 한국식 발음과 억양이 부끄럽다고 생각한다
- [Q40] 영어 구사시 발음이나 억양보다는 내용이 더 중요하다고 생각 한다
- [Q41] 한국 영어만의 특징(예를 들면 전치사의 쓰임)이 미국 영어나 영국 영어의 쓰임과 다르다면 그것은 특징이 아니라 예러 (잘못된 영어)라고 생각한다
- [Q42] 나는 이왕이면 다른 국적보다 미국 국적 선생님께서 영어를 배우고 싶다
- [Q43] 나는 이왕이면 다른 국적보다 영국 국적 선생님께서 영어를 배우고 싶다
- [Q44] 나한테는 우리나라 영어선생님이 더 적합하다고 생각한다
- [Q45] 전반적으로 원어민 선생님이 영어를 가르치는 데 더 낫다/적합 하다고 생각한다
- [Q46] 원어민 선생님과 한국인 영어 선생님의 역할이 다르다고 생각 한다
- [Q47] 영어 선생님의 영어 실력이 그 사람의 국적보다 더 중요하다

Part 2.

- [Q48] 해외 연수를 간다면 가고 싶은 나라는?
- [Q49] 자녀의 영어교육은 선택사항이 아니라 필수다
- [Q50] 내 자녀에게 영어를 반드시 가르칠 것이다
- [Q51] 나는 내 자녀에게 단순히 의사소통의 목적보다는 자녀의 성공을 위해 영어를 가르칠 것이다
- [Q52] 내 자녀의 영어 교육을 위해서라면 기러기 가족도 감수할 수 있다
- [Q53] 내 자녀가 원어민과 같은 영어를 구사하기를 바란다
- [Q54] 자녀의 영어교육이 중요하므로 어떠한 경제적 어려움도 감수할 수 있다
- [Q55] 내 자녀에게 표준영어만 가르치기보다는 다양한 영어를 배우게 할 것이다
- [Q56] 내 자녀에게 한국 영어를 가르쳐도 무방하다고 생각한다
- [Q57] 내 자녀에게 가장 가르치고 싶은 영어는 미국 영어이다
- [Q58] 내 자녀가 한국식 엑센트가 있는 영어를 구사할까 염려된다
- [Q59] 내 자녀의 영어 선생님이로 영어를 모국어로 하는 원어민 선생님을 선호한다
- [Q60] 내 자녀에게는 한국인 영어 선생님이 더 적합하다고 생각한다
- [Q61] 영어 교육은 어릴 때 시작할수록 좋다고 생각한다
- [Q62] 일반 유치원보다는 영어 유치원을 선호한다
- [Q63] 자녀에게 영어를 가르치기 시작할/시작한 나이는?
- [Q64] 자녀를 해외연수 보낸다면 어느 나라로 보내고 싶습니까?

Survey Questionnaire (in English)

Demographic Info and other variables

(Demographic info (Q1-Q4) was asked before answering the questionnaire and other variables (Q65-Q81) were asked after finishing the questionnaire.)

- [Q1] Gender
Male
Female
- [Q2] SQ2 Age
Under 18
19-29
30-39
40-49
50-59
over 60

[Q3] SQ3 Marital status

unmarried

married

[Q4] SQ4 Have a child? If so, check the age.

No child

0-3 years old

4-6 years old

Elementary school age

Middle school age

High school age

Adult

[Q65] DQ1 The highest level of education

Primary school

Middle school

High school degree

Bachelors degree

Graduate degree

[Q66] DQ2 Job description

Employed

Self-employed

Seeking a job

Unemployed

Homemaker

Student

Retired

Unable to work

[Q67] DQ3 Do you use English at work?

Yes

No

[Q68] DQ3-1 If yes, how often do you use English?

Every day

2-3 times a week

2-3 times a month

Almost never

[Q69] DQ3-2 If yes, what kind of English skills are you using?

Mainly speaking and listening

Mainly reading and writing

All four skills

[Q70] DQ4 Income level

Under \$1000

\$1000-2000

\$2001-3000

\$3001-4000

\$4001-5000

\$5001-6000

\$6001-7000

\$7001-8000

\$8001-9000

\$9001-10,000

over \$10,000

[Q71] DQ5-1 Have you ever traveled abroad?

Yes

No

[Q72] DQ5-2 If yes, what is the longest period you have spent abroad?

Less than a week

About a month

Longer than a month but less than a year

1-3 years

Over 4 years

[Q73] DQ5-3 please check where you have visited (multiple answers possible)

US, UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Iceland, South Africa

India, Philippines, Singapore, Malaysia, Nigeria, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Tanzania, Kenya

China, Russia, Japan, European countries, Egypt, Indonesia

Other countries ()

[Q74] DQ6 Period of learning English

Less than three years

3-6 years

7-10 years

Over 10 years

[Q75] Level of your speaking (1-10 scale)

[Q76] Level of your listening (1-10 scale)

[Q77] Level of your reading (1-10 scale)

[Q78] Level of your writing (1-10 scale)

[Q79] Total based on four skills (1-10 scale)

[Q80] DQ8-1 Have you ever taken a test like TOEFL, TOEIC, TEPS, or IELTS?

Yes

No

[Q81] DQ8-2 Which test did you take?

TOEFL

TOEIC

IELTS

TEPS

Other ()

Questionnaire Part 1. - A 5-point Likert scale was used (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree).

Part 1.

[Q5] English is essential in modern society.

[Q6] English is a global language used throughout the world.

[Q7] English is very important for success in South Korea, in terms of both job placement and promotion.

[Q8] All Koreans should learn English.

[Q9] English should be learned for future success rather than for communication.

[Q10] I studied English mainly for a test or to get a job rather than out of a need to use it in everyday life.

[Q11] “English fever” in South Korea is excessive.

[Q12] Parents in South Korea emphasize learning English over proficiency of the Korean language.

[Q13] Negative side-effects of English fever, such as the “wild goose family”, are very serious in South Korea.

[Q14] The prevalence of English in South Korea has accelerated the Westernization of its culture.

[Q15] English has intensified teenagers’ longing for Western culture.

[Q16] Only those for whom English is their mother tongue can insist on the correctness of it.

[Q17] It is important to acquire a native-like pronunciation and accent when learning English.

[Q18] When speaking English, content is more important than pronunciation or accents.

[Q19] Only those whose mother tongue is English can have ownership of the language.

[Q20] There is a standard language in English.

[Q21] British English and American English are the only two recognized standards of English.

[Q22] Every country which uses English has its own Standard English, such as Standard Indian English or Standard Singaporean English.

[Q23] Only Standard English should be taught in schools and or in the private sector.

[Q24] I should learn Standard English.

[Q25] American or British English is more authentic than Philippine English.

[Q26] Please check all the varieties of English that you think are Standard English :

- a. American English b. Australian c. British d. Canadian e. New Zealand
f. Indian g. Filipino h. Hong Kong i. Singaporean j. Malaysian k. South African
l. Bangladesh m. Nigerian n. Sri Lankan o. Tanzanian

[Q27] I know there are various forms of English besides American or British English, such as Filipino or Singaporean English.

[Q28] We need to learn and understand various forms of world Englishes in this global era.

[Q29] I’m most familiar with American English.

[Q30] Different uses of grammar/vocabulary/pronunciation can be a problem for mutual understanding when communicating.

[Q31] I’m willing to learn various forms of world English.

[Q32] What I want to learn most among various forms of English is American English.

[Q33] When do you think is the best time for South Koreans to learn about various Englishes?

a. Preschool b. Elementary school c. Middle school

d. High school e. College f. After college g. Shouldn't be taught at all

h. Never thought about this i. Prefer not to answer

[Q34] Korean English is acceptable for more efficient teaching and learning.

[Q35] I sometimes feel afraid to use English because of my Korean accent.

[Q36] I don't think Korean-accented English is a problem for communication.

[Q37] I sometimes envy those Koreans who use native English and sound like American or British speakers.

[Q38] Koreans cannot insist ownership of English.

[Q39] I am embarrassed by Korean pronunciations and accents in English.

[Q40] Content is more important than pronunciation or accent in speaking English.

[Q41] If Korean English is different from American or British English, it might be because of errors rather than a reflection of Korean English's unique characteristics.

[Q42] I would like to learn English from American native teachers rather than from teachers of other nationalities.

[Q43] I would like to learn English from British native teachers rather than from teachers of other nationalities.

[Q44] A Korean English teacher is more appropriate/better for me.

[Q45] I think native teachers are generally better than Korean teachers at teaching English.

[Q46] I think the roles of Native English teachers and Korean English teachers might be different.

[Q47] An English teacher's ability is more important than their nationality.

[Q48] If you want to go abroad to study English, which country do you want to go to?

a. United States b. Australia c. United Kingdom d. Canada e. Philippines

f. Other (please specify) g. Prefer not to answer

Part 2.

[Q49] Teaching English to my child is compulsory, rather than optional.

[Q50] I will teach English to my child no matter what.

[Q51] I will teach my child English for his/her future success rather than for communication.

[Q52] I can endure the lifestyle of a wild goose family for my child's English education.

[Q53] I hope that my child will acquire native English skills.

[Q54] I can accept any resulting financial difficulties because my child's English education is important.

[Q55] I would like to teach my child various forms of English, rather than teaching only Standard English.

[Q56] It would be acceptable to teach my child Korean English.

[Q57] What I most want my child to be taught is American English.

[Q58] I sometimes worry that my child speaks Korean-accented English.

[Q59] I prefer to have a native English teacher who uses English as his/her mother tongue.

[Q60] A Korean English teacher is better/more appropriate for my child.

[Q61] Earlier is better when learning English.

[Q62] I prefer to send my child to English-speaking preschools rather than Korean-speaking ones.

[Q63] When are you going to/when did you expose your child to English?

- a. 0-3 years old b. 4-6 years old c. after 7 (in the elementary schools) d. Other (please specify)
- e. Prefer not to answer

[Q64] To which country would you send your children abroad to study English?

- a. United States b. Australia c. United Kingdom d. Canada e. Philippines
- f. Other (please specify) g. Prefer not to answer

APPENDIX B. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF VARIABLES

M1	N	M	SD	t/f	df	Sig.
Sex	400	-	-	2.20	398	0.028
Female	200	4.06	0.59			
Male	200	3.94	0.56			
Wanted Country for learning English	400	-	-	2.57	398	0.011
North America	257	4.05	0.55			
Other locations	143	3.9	0.62			
Time of starting to learn English	400	4.00	0.58	7.78	399	.000
0~3	15	4.41	0.47			
4~6	128	4.11	0.52			
over 7	241	3.94	0.58			
other age	16	3.63	0.72			
Use or not	293	-	-	2.03	291	0.044
yes	83	4.10	0.57			
no	210	3.95	0.58			
Frequency of use	83	4.10	0.57	4.30	82	0.007
everyday	23	4.33	0.52			
2 or 3 times per week	26	4.22	0.54			
2 or 3 times per month	28	3.82	0.58			
never	6	4.03	0.32			
Type of use	83	4.10	0.57	4.11	82	0.02
speaking/listening	37	4.04	0.53			
reading/writing	25	3.94	0.62			
all	21	4.39	0.5			
Period of learning English	400	4.00	0.58	3.24	399	0.022
Less than 3 years	68	3.94	0.66			
3-6 years	119	4.14	0.53			
7-10 years	103	3.95	0.59			
over 10 years	110	3.93	0.55			

M3	N	M	SD	t/f	df	Sig.
Sex	399	-	-	2.82	397	.005
Female	200	3.89	0.51			
Male	199	3.74	0.59			
Wanted Country for learning English	399	-	-	3.66	397	.000

North America	257	3.89	0.48			
Other locations	142	3.68	0.65			
Period of learning English	399	3.82	0.56	2.77	398	.042
Less than 3 years	68	3.65	0.65			
3-6 years	119	3.89	0.52			
7-10 years	103	3.81	0.51			
over 10 years	109	3.85	0.56			

M4	N	M	SD	t/f	df	Sig.
Circle of visiting countries	400	-	-	1.95	398	.052
Outer circle	108	3.57	0.48			
Other circles	292	3.46	0.51			
Period of visiting/staying	290	3.48	0.51	4.08	289	.003
A week	160	3.40	0.48			
A month	52	3.61	0.57			
A year	43	3.55	0.55			
Between a year and three	28	3.66	0.43			
over 4 years	7	3.09	0.49			

M5	N	M	SD	t	df	Sig.
Circle of visiting countries	400	-	-	-2.07	398	.039
Inner circle	103	3.02	0.61			
Other circles	297	3.18	0.66			

M6	N	M	SD	t/f	df	Sig.
Wanted Country for learning English	400	-	-	3.06	398	.002
North America	257	3.84	0.56			
Other locations	143	3.66	0.60			
Time of starting to learn English	400	3.78	0.58	6.87	399	.000
0~3	15	4.13	0.42			
4~6	128	3.89	0.56			
over 7	241	3.72	0.57			
other age	16	3.39	0.81			
Period of learning English	400	3.78	0.58	2.64	399	.049
Less than 3 years	68	3.63	0.60			
3-6 years	119	3.86	0.55			
7-10 years	103	3.74	0.53			
over 10 years	110	3.81	0.64			

M8	N	M	SD	t/f	df	Sig.
Wanted Country for learning English	400	-	-	3.43	398	.001
North America	257	3.57	0.66			
Other locations	143	3.33	0.67			
Time of starting to learn English	400	3.48	0.67	6.99	399	.000
0~3	15	4.00	0.58			
4~6	128	3.57	0.66			
over 7	241	3.43	0.65			
other age	16	3.02	0.83			
Use or not	400	-	-	1.97	291	.050
yes	83	3.60	0.68			
no	210	3.43	0.68			
missing responses	107					
Period of learning English	400	3.48	0.67	2.35	399	.072
Less than 3 years	68	3.29	0.74			
3-6 years	119	3.52	0.58			
7-10 years	103	3.49	0.65			
over 10 years	110	3.55	0.73			

APPENDIX C. PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS

T-TEST PAIRS=Q49 WITH Q5

CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S11-Q49	3.91	400	.892	.045
	S1-Q5[M1]	4.28	400	.655	.033

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	S11-Q49 & S1-Q5[M1]	400	.478	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S11-Q49 - S1-Q5[M1]	-.375	.816	.041	-.455	-.295	-9.190	399	.000

T-TEST PAIRS=Q50 WITH Q8

CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S11-Q50	4.04	400	.800	.040
	S1-Q8[M1]	3.31	400	.991	.050

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	S11-Q50 & S1-Q8[M1]	400	.430	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S11-Q50 - S1-Q8[M1]	.728	.970	.048	.632	.823	15.002	399	.000

T-TEST PAIRS=Q51 WITH Q9 Q7
CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S11-Q51	3.67	400	.969	.048
	S1-Q9[M1]	3.92	400	.803	.040
Pair 2	S11-Q51	3.67	400	.969	.048
	S1-Q7[M1]	4.23	400	.721	.036

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	S11-Q51 & S1-Q9[M1]	400	.596	.000
Pair 2	S11-Q51 & S1-Q7[M1]	400	.372	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S11-Q51 - S1-Q9[M1]	-.245	.810	.041	-.325	-.165	-6.047	399	.000
Pair 2	S11-Q51 - S1-Q7[M1]	-.563	.969	.048	-.658	-.467	-11.613	399	.000

T-TEST PAIRS=Q52 WITH Q13 Q11 M2
CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
--	--	------	---	----------------	-----------------

Pair 1	S11-Q52	2.68	400	1.149	.057
	S1-Q13[M2]	4.26	400	.772	.039
Pair 2	S11-Q52	2.68	400	1.149	.057
	S1-Q11[M2]	4.30	400	.785	.039
Pair 3	S11-Q52	2.68	400	1.149	.057
	q11-q15 (a=.742) Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English	3.9340	400	.60528	.03026

Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 S11-Q52 & S1-Q13[M2]	400	-.072	.153
Pair 2 S11-Q52 & S1-Q11[M2]	400	-.233	.000
Pair 3 S11-Q52 & q11-q15 (a=.742) Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English	400	-.020	.685

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S11-Q52 - S1-Q13[M2]	-1.575	1.430	.071	-1.716	-1.434	22.030	399	.000
Pair 2	S11-Q52 - S1-Q11[M2]	-1.618	1.535	.077	-1.768	-1.467	21.071	399	.000
Pair 3	S11-Q52 - q11-q15 (a=.742) Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English	-1.25400	1.30980	.06549	-1.38275	-1.12525	19.148	399	.000

T-TEST PAIRS=Q53 WITH Q17 Q18 Q36
CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S11-Q53	3.65	400	1.006	.050
	S1-Q17[M5]	3.53	400	.906	.045
Pair 2	S11-Q53	3.65	400	1.006	.050
	S1-Q18[M7]	3.58	400	.806	.040
Pair 3	S11-Q53	3.65	400	1.006	.050
	S4-Q36[M7]	3.39	400	.891	.045

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	S11-Q53 & S1-Q17[M5]	400	.441	.000
Pair 2	S11-Q53 & S1-Q18[M7]	400	-.078	.119
Pair 3	S11-Q53 & S4-Q36[M7]	400	-.011	.825

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S11-Q53 - S1-Q17[M5]	.115	1.015	.051	.015	.215	2.267	399	.024
Pair 2	S11-Q53 - S1-Q18[M7]	.063	1.337	.067	-.069	.194	.935	399	.350
Pair 3	S11-Q53 - S4-Q36[M7]	.258	1.351	.068	.125	.390	3.811	399	.000

T-TEST PAIRS=Q54 WITH Q11 M2
CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S11-Q54	2.88	400	1.016	.051
	S1-Q11[M2]	4.30	400	.785	.039
Pair 2	S11-Q54	2.88	400	1.016	.051
	q11-q15 (a=.742) Negative perceptions and attitudes	3.9340	400	.60528	.03026

toward English				
----------------	--	--	--	--

Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 S11-Q54 & S1-Q11[M2]	400	-.217	.000
Pair 2 S11-Q54 & q11-q15 (a=.742) Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English	400	.031	.542

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S11-Q54 - S1-Q11[M2]	-1.415	1.412	.071	-1.554	-1.276	20.047	399	.000
Pair 2	S11-Q54 - q11-q15 (a=.742) Negative perceptions and attitudes toward English	-1.05150	1.16621	.05831	-1.16613	-.93687	18.033	399	.000

T-TEST PAIRS=Q55 WITH Q23 Q24 Q28 Q31

CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 S22/S33-Q55	3.30	400	.832	.042
S2-Q23[M3]	3.88	400	.715	.036
Pair 2 S22/S33-Q55	3.30	400	.832	.042
S2-Q24[M3]	3.77	400	.749	.037
Pair 3 S22/S33-Q55	3.30	400	.832	.042
S3-Q28[M4]	3.63	400	.834	.042
Pair 4 S22/S33-Q55	3.30	400	.832	.042
S3-Q31[M4]	3.18	400	.932	.047

Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 S22/S33-Q55 & S2-Q23[M3]	400	-.016	.745
Pair 2 S22/S33-Q55 & S2-Q24[M3]	400	.046	.359
Pair 3 S22/S33-Q55 & S3-Q28[M4]	400	.444	.000
Pair 4 S22/S33-Q55 & S3-Q31[M4]	400	.419	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S22/S33-Q55 - S2-Q23[M3]	-.573	1.106	.055	-.681	-.464	-10.354	399	.000
Pair 2	S22/S33-Q55 - S2-Q24[M3]	-.463	1.094	.055	-.570	-.355	-8.456	399	.000
Pair 3	S22/S33-Q55 - S3-Q28[M4]	-.325	.878	.044	-.411	-.239	-7.401	399	.000
Pair 4	S22/S33-Q55 - S3-Q31[M4]	.125	.955	.048	.031	.219	2.618	399	.009

T-TEST PAIRS=Q56 WITH Q34)

CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 S44-Q56	3.27	400	.809	.040
S4-Q34[M4]	3.40	400	.749	.037

Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 S44-Q56 & S4-Q34[M4]	400	.363	.000

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig. (2-
--	--------------------	---	----	----------

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S44-Q56 - S4-Q34[M4]	-.125	.881	.044	-.212	-.038	-2.837	399	.005

T-TEST PAIRS=Q57 WITH Q28 Q31 Q32

CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S33-Q57	3.64	400	.850	.043
	S3-Q28[M4]	3.63	400	.834	.042
Pair 2	S33-Q57	3.64	400	.850	.043
	S3-Q31[M4]	3.18	400	.932	.047
Pair 3	S33-Q57	3.64	400	.850	.043
	S3-Q32[M6]	3.68	400	.861	.043

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	S33-Q57 & S3-Q28[M4]	400	.088	.078
Pair 2	S33-Q57 & S3-Q31[M4]	400	.075	.134
Pair 3	S33-Q57 & S3-Q32[M6]	400	.612	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S33-Q57 - S3-Q28[M4]	.010	1.137	.057	-.102	.122	.176	399	.860
Pair 2	S33-Q57 - S3-Q31[M4]	.460	1.213	.061	.341	.579	7.583	399	.000
Pair 3	S33-Q57 - S3-Q32[M6]	-.037	.753	.038	-.112	.037	-.996	399	.320

T-TEST PAIRS=Q58 WITH Q34 Q35 Q36 Q37 Q39 Q40

CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S44-Q58	2.96	400	.954	.048
	S4-Q34[M4]	3.40	400	.749	.037
Pair 2	S44-Q58	2.96	400	.954	.048
	S4-Q35[M5]	3.46	400	.944	.047
Pair 3	S44-Q58	2.96	400	.954	.048
	S4-Q36[M7]	3.39	400	.891	.045
Pair 4	S44-Q58	2.96	400	.954	.048
	S4-Q37[M6]	4.01	400	.798	.040
Pair 5	S44-Q58	2.96	400	.954	.048
	S4-Q39[M5]	2.54	400	.965	.048
Pair 6	S44-Q58	2.96	400	.954	.048
	S4-Q40[M7]	3.57	400	.858	.043

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	S44-Q58 & S4-Q34[M4]	400	-.006	.897
Pair 2	S44-Q58 & S4-Q35[M5]	400	.410	.000
Pair 3	S44-Q58 & S4-Q36[M7]	400	-.144	.004
Pair 4	S44-Q58 & S4-Q37[M6]	400	.208	.000
Pair 5	S44-Q58 & S4-Q39[M5]	400	.494	.000
Pair 6	S44-Q58 & S4-Q40[M7]	400	-.109	.029

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S44-Q58 - S4-Q34[M4]	-.443	1.217	.061	-.562	-.323	-7.274	399	.000
Pair 2	S44-Q58 - S4-Q35[M5]	-.500	1.031	.052	-.601	-.399	-9.701	399	.000
Pair 3	S44-Q58 - S4-Q36[M7]	-.433	1.397	.070	-.570	-.295	-6.194	399	.000
Pair 4	S44-Q58 - S4-Q37[M6]	-1.050	1.109	.055	-1.159	-.941	-18.931	399	.000

Pair 5	S44-Q58 - S4-Q39[M5]	.420	.965	.048	.325	.515	8.706	399	.000
Pair 6	S44-Q58 - S4-Q40[M7]	-.615	1.351	.068	-.748	-.482	-9.102	399	.000

T-TEST PAIRS=Q59 WITH Q42 Q43 Q44 Q45 M8 Q47
CRITERIA=CI(.9500))

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S55-Q59	3.51	400	.920	.046
	S5-2-Q42[M8]	3.58	400	.870	.043
Pair 2	S55-Q59	3.51	400	.920	.046
	S5-2-Q43[M8]	3.33	400	.777	.039
Pair 3	S55-Q59	3.51	400	.920	.046
	S5-2-Q44	3.14	400	.786	.039
Pair 4	S55-Q59	3.51	400	.920	.046
	S5-2-Q45[M8]	3.54	400	.828	.041
Pair 5	S55-Q59	3.51	400	.920	.046
	q42 43 45 Perceptions and attitudes toward NETs vs. NNETs	3.4833	400	.67104	.03355
Pair 6	S55-Q59	3.51	400	.920	.046
	S5-2-Q47	3.67	400	.971	.049

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	S55-Q59 & S5-2-Q42[M8]	400	.645	.000
Pair 2	S55-Q59 & S5-2-Q43[M8]	400	.476	.000
Pair 3	S55-Q59 & S5-2-Q44	400	-.268	.000
Pair 4	S55-Q59 & S5-2-Q45[M8]	400	.617	.000
Pair 5	S55-Q59 & q42 43 45 Perceptions and attitudes toward NETs vs. NNETs	400	.716	.000
Pair 6	S55-Q59 & S5-2-Q47	400	.216	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S55-Q59 - S5-2-Q42[M8]	-.070	.756	.038	-.144	.004	-1.852	399	.065
Pair 2	S55-Q59 - S5-2-Q43[M8]	.173	.877	.044	.086	.259	3.932	399	.000
Pair 3	S55-Q59 - S5-2-Q44	.370	1.361	.068	.236	.504	5.437	399	.000
Pair 4	S55-Q59 - S5-2-Q45[M8]	-.038	.770	.038	-.113	.038	-.974	399	.331
Pair 5	S55-Q59 - q42 43 45 Perceptions and attitudes toward NETs vs. NNETs	.02167	.64292	.03215	-.04153	.08486	.674	399	.501
Pair 6	S55-Q59 - S5-2-Q47	-.168	1.184	.059	-.284	-.051	-2.828	399	.005

T-TEST PAIRS=Q60 WITH Q44 Q47

CRITERIA=CI(.9500)

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	S55-Q60	3.05	400	.710	.035
	S5-2-Q44	3.14	400	.786	.039
Pair 2	S55-Q60	3.05	400	.710	.035
	S5-2-Q47	3.67	400	.971	.049

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	S55-Q60 & S5-2-Q44	400	.486	.000
Pair 2	S55-Q60 & S5-2-Q47	400	-.002	.974

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			

					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	S55-Q60 - S5-2-Q44	-.085	.761	.038	-.160	-.010	-2.234	399	.026
Pair 2	S55-Q60 - S5-2-Q47	-.623	1.204	.060	-.741	-.504	- 10.344	399	.000

REFERENCES

- Aslan, M & Akbarov, A. (2012). EFL Learners Perceptions and Attitudes towards English for the Specific Purposes. *Acta Didactica Napocensia*, 5(4), 25-31.
- Bahk, E.-J. (2013, March 13). *Early English education can go further*. The Korea Times. http://www.koreatimes.co.kr/www/news/special/2015/02/181_132038.html
- Baik, M., & Shim, R. (2002). Teaching world Englishes via the Internet. *World Englishes*, 21(3), 427-430.
- Bang, H. (2006). (A) Study of American English for effective teaching [Master's thesis, Chungnam University]. RISS (Research Information Sharing Service). <http://www.riss.kr/link?id=T11007890>
- Bapuji, B. R. (1993). *Society, State and Education: Essays in the Political Sociology of Language Education*. T.R. Publications Pvt. Ltd.
- Bex, T. & Watts, R. J. (1999). *Standard English the widening debate*. London ; New York : Routledge.
- Blommaert, J. (2010). *The sociolinguistics of globalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bolton, K. (2005). Where WE stands: approaches, issues, and debate in world Englishes. *World Englishes*, 24(1), 69-83.
- Brutt-Griffler, J. (2002). *World English: A study of its development*, Multilingual Matters Ltd, Clevedon, UK.
- Carver, R. & Nash, J. G. (2012). *Doing Data Analysis with SPSS Version 18*. Brooks/Cole Cengage Learning.
- Chang, B.-M. (2009). Korea's English education policy innovations to lead the nation into the globalized world. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 13(1), 83-97.
- Chang, V. W. (2007). A Brief Sketch of Taiwan's English Education at Primary Level. In Powell-Davies, P. (Ed.). *Primary Innovations Regional Seminar Hanoi*. (pp. 67-74). British Council. <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/download-accessenglish-publications-proceedings-hanoi2007.pdf>

- Chung, K. (2008). *Korean English Fever in the United States: temporary migrant parents' evolving beliefs about normal parenting practices and children's natural language learning*. (Publication No. 3337739) [Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.
<https://search.proquest.com/docview/304628031>
- Chung, J. & Choi, T. (2016). English Education Policies in South Korea: Planned and Enacted. In R. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *English Language Education Policy in Asia, Language Policy* (pp. 281-299). Springer International Publishing.
- Cho, J. (2017). *English Language Ideologies in Korea (Interpreting the Past and Present)*. Springer International Publishing.
- Cho, Y.-G. (2014). English Learning Motivation and Its Causal Factors among Korean Elementary School Students. *초등영어교육*, 20(2), 351-372.
- Choi, K. (2007). Study on students' attitude towards World Englishes and non-native English teachers. *English Teaching*, 62(4), 47-68.
- Clark, N. (2013, June 1). Education in South Korea. World Education News and Reviews, <http://wenr.wes.org/2013/06/wenr-june-2013-an-overview-of-education-in-south-korea/>
- Clement, K. A. (2011). *The World Englishes Paradigm and its Implications for International Students' Acquisition of Standard American English for University-Level Studies in the United States* (Publication No. 272) [Master's thesis, Minnesota State University]. Cornerstone.
- Coakes, S. J. & Ong, C. (2011). *SPSS Version 18.0 for Windows : Analysis without Anguish*. John Wiley & Sons Australia Ltd.
- Collins, S. G. (2005). 'Who's this Tong-il?': English, culture and ambivalence in South Korea. *Changing English: Studies in Culture and Education*. 12(3), 417-429.
- Crystal, D. (1995). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a Global Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2001). *Language and the Internet*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cumings, B. (1997). *Korea's place in the sun*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

- Dalton-puffer, C., Kaltenboeck, G., & Smit, U. (1997) Learner attitude and L2 pronunciation in Austria. *World Englishes*, 16(1), 115-128.
- Despagne, C. (2010). The Difficulties of Learning English: Perceptions and Attitudes in Mexico. *Canadian and International Education*, 39(2), 55-74.
- Eun, J. (2003). *How Idealized American English Norms Are Created And Reinforced In English Lessons On Television: A Discourse*. [Unpublished doctoral Dissertation]. Pennsylvania State University. https://etda.libraries.psu.edu/files/final_submissions/3149
- Fish, R. J., Parris, D. L., & Troiolo, M. (2017). Compound Voids and Unproductive Entrepreneurship: The Rise of the “English Fever” in China. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 51(1), 163-180. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00213624.2017.1287506>
- Fishman, J. A., Cooper, R. L., & Conrad, A. W. (1977). *The Spread of English: The sociology of English as an additional language*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.
- Flowerdew, J. (2001). Attitudes of Journal Editors to Nonnative Speaker Contributions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(1), 121-150.
- Friedrich, P. (2000). English in Brazil: functions and attitudes. *World Englishes*, 19(2), 215-233.
- Garicia, C. (2007). American Identity and Attitudes Toward English Language Policy Initiative. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 34(1), 63-82.
- Graddol, D. (1997). *The future of English?*, London: British Council.
- Graddol, D. (2006). *English next: Why global English may mean the end of ‘English as a foreign language’*, London: British Council.
- Guback, T. (1984). International Circulation of U.S. Theatrical Films and Television Programming. In G. Gerbner and M.Siefert (Eds.), *World Communications: A Handbook* (pp. 153-163). New York: Longman.
- Harada, S. (2009). The Roles of Singapore Standard English and Singlish. *文教大学情報学部『情報研究』*, No.40, 69-81.
- Hickey, M. (2018). Thailand’s ‘English fever’, migrant teachers and cosmopolitan aspirations in an interconnected Asia. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*. 39(5). 738-751. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01596306.2018.1435603>

- Hu, G. (2009). The craze for English-medium education in China: driving forces and looming consequences. *English Today*, 25(4), 47-54.
- Jahng, K. E. (2011). Perspectives in Education - English education for young children in South Korea : Not just a collective neurosis of English fever!. *Perspectives in Education*, 20(2), 61 – 69.
- Jenkins, J. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 157-181.
- Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a lingua franca: Attitude and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jang, B. H. (2012). Korean EFL Learners` Attitudes toward the Use of CALL and Their Motivations for Learning English in Korea. *영어영문학연구*, 54(4), 437-460.
- Jiang, Z. (2011). A Research and Counter-measures of English Cultural Hegemony in China. *Asian Social Science*, 7(1), 194-200.
- Jin, J. Y. (2002). (A) Study on English Education in Elementary Schools with an Emphasis on Teachers' Ability and Quality. [Unpublished master's thesis]. Sungkyunkwan University.
- Jin, S. H (2011, April, 19). New Groom's average age is 31.8 and New Bride's one is 28.9. *The Chosun Biz*. http://biz.chosun.com/site/data/html_dir/2011/04/19/2011041901258.html
- Jung, G.H. (2011, May 20). 2011 *The first quarter Household Data in Policy News*. Statistics Korea. http://kostat.go.kr/portal/korea/kor_nw/3/index.board?bmode=read&aSeq=247558
- Kachru, B.B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the Outer Circle. In R. Quirk & H. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp. 11-30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kachru, B.B. (1989). Teaching world Englishes. *Cross Currents: An International Journal of Language Teaching and Cross-Cultural Communication*, 16 (1), 15-21.
- Kachru, B. B. (1996) World Englishes: Agony and Ecstasy. *Journal of Aesthetic ducation*, 30(2), 135-155.
- Y. Kachru and Nelson (2006). *Asian Englishes Today: World Englishes in Asian contexts*. Hong Kong University Press
- Kim, B.-R. (2015). The English Fever in South Korea: Focusing on the Problem of Early English Education. *Journal of Education & Social Policy*. 2(2). 117-124.

- Kim, B. R. (2019, March 20). [*이/지 보고서*] 결혼 '줄고', 이혼 '늘고'... 평균 초혼 연령 남자 33.2 세, 여자 30.4 세 ([Ezy report] Marriage 'reducing' and divorce 'increasing': The average age of first marriage is 33.2 for men and 30.4 for women). The ezyeconomy. <http://www.ezyeconomy.com/news/articleView.html?idxno=89064>
- Kim, E.-G. (2008, April 16). Beginning of English language education. *Korea Times*. <http://www.koreatimes.co.kr/www/news/include/print.asp?newsIdx=22588>.
- Kim, N. G. (2015). A History of American Studies in Korea. *The Japanese Journal of American Studies*, No. 26, 7-17.
- Kim-Rivera, E. (2001). *The Government's Role in the Early Development of English Language*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The University of Texas.
- Krashen, S. (2003). Dealing with English Fever. In English Teachers' Association/ROC (Eds), *Selected Papers from the Twelfth International Symposium on English Teaching* (pp. 100-108). Taipei: Crane Publishing Company.
- Kubota, R. (2001). Teaching world Englishes to native speakers of English in the USA. *World Englishes*, 20(1), 47-64.
- Lasagabaster, D. (2003). Attitudes toward English in the Basque Autonomous Community. *World Englishes*, 22(4), p. 585-597.
- Lee, H.-E. (2007). English Village and Relocating Reality. *Korean Journal of Journalism & Communication Studies*, 51(4), 90-91.
- Lee, J. (2010). Ideologies of English in the South Korean "English Immersion" Debate. In Prior, M. T. et al. (Eds), *Selected Proceedings of the 2008 Second Language Research Forum: Exploring SLA Perspectives, Positions, and Practices* (pp. 246-260). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project. <http://www.lingref.com/cpp/slrf/2008/paper2397.pdf>
- Lee, K.-S. (2015). History of foreign language education in Korea. *Foreign Language Education Research*, 18, 37-52.
- Lippi-Green, R. (1997). *English with an accent: Language, ideology, and discrimination in the United States*. London & New York: Routledge.
- McArthur, T. (1998). *The English Languages*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- McArthur, T. (2001). World English and world Englishes: Trends, tensions, varieties, and standards. *Language Teaching*, 34, 1-20.

- McKay, S. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language: Rethinking goals and approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Milroy, J. & Milroy, L (1985). *Authority in language; Investigating language prescription and standardisation*. England: Routledge & Kegan Paul PLC.
- Min, C. K. (2007). Innovative English Education Curricula and the Strategies of Implementation in Korea. In Asia TEFL (Eds.), *ELT Curriculum Innovation and Implementation in Asia* (pp. 101-129). Asia TEFL. <http://www.asiatefl.org/main/main.php?main=3>
- Moon, Y. (1976). A historical review of the teaching of English in Korea (1883-1976) (in Korean). *Eungyoung Eonohak* [Applied Linguistic] 8(2), 203-222.
- Moon, Y. (1991). *English education in Korea: A retrospective review of last 100 years*. Seoul: Hanshin Publishing Company.
- Park, J. (2007). *Korean parents in 'English Fever' and their 'early study abroad' children in the United States: parental beliefs and practices concerning first language peers*. (Publication No. 3278230) [Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.
- Park, J.-K. (2009). 'English Fever' in South Korea: its history and symptoms. *English Today* 97, 25 (1), 50-57. <http://sites.middlebury.edu/shapiro/files/2014/06/EnglishFever.pdf>
- Park, J. S.-Y. (2011). The promise of English: linguistic capital and the neoliberal worker in the South Korean job market. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. 14(4). 443-455. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2011.573067>
- Park, N.-S. (1992). Foreign-Language Education in Korea: Past, Present and Future. *語學研究*, 28(1), 149-174.
- Phillipson, R. (1997). Realities and Myths of Linguistic Imperialism. *Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. 18(3), 238-248.
- Prey, R. (2005). *How Do You Say 'Imperialism'? The English Language Teaching Industry and The Culture of Imperialism in South Korea*. [Unpublished master's thesis]. Simon Fraser University. <http://summit.sfu.ca/item/8706>
- Schneider, E. W. (2010). Developmental patterns of English: Similar or different? In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of World Englishes* (pp. 372-384). London: Routledge

- Shim, R. J. (1999). Codified Korean English: process, characteristics and consequence. *World Englishes*, 19(2), 247-258.
- Shim, J. H., Kim, J. Y., & Park, H. S. (2012). A Study of English Learning Motivation for Korean High School Student in a New Town. *영어영문학*, 25(4), 373-394.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Seth, M. J. (2002). *Education Fever*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Sharifian, F. (2009). *English as an international language: Perspectives and pedagogical issues* (F. Sharifian, Ed.). Multilingual matters, Bristol.
- Shim, D. & Park, S. (2008). The Language Politics of English Fever in South Korea. *KOREA JOURNAL*, 48(2), 136-159. https://www.ekoreajournal.net/issue/view_pop.htm?Idx=3464
- Sir (2011). *World Englishes: Korean EFL Teachers' Attitudes and their Perceptions of Distinctive Grammatical Features*. [Unpublished master's thesis]. Ajou University.
- Smith, L. (1976). English as an international auxiliary language. *RELJ Journal*, 7(2), 38-42.
- Snodin, N. S. & Young, T. J. (2015). 'Native-speaker' varieties of English: Thai perceptions and attitudes. *Asian Englishes*, 17(3), 248-260.
- Song, S. (2011). *The Study of Adults' perception on English as an International Language*. [Unpublished master's thesis]. Sookmyung Women's University.
- Splunder, Frank. van. (2012). All Englishes Are Equal (But Some Are More Equal Than Others). *Boğaziçi University Journal of Education*. 30 (1). 1-10. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/43801>
- Taie, M. (2015). English Language Teaching in South Korea: A Route to Success?, *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Col. 4(1), 139-146
- Tanghe, S. (2014). Integrating World Englishes into a university conversation class in South Korea. *English Today*, 30(2), 18-23.
- Tinsley, H. E. A & Brown, S. D. (2000). *Handbook of Applied Multivariate Statistics and Mathematical Modeling*. Academic Press
- Tokumoto, M. & Shibata, M. (2011). Asian varieties of English: Attitudes towards pronunciation. *World Englishes*, 30(3), 392-408.

- Tsou, S.Y. & Chen, Y.L. (2017). EFL College Students' Perceptions toward Native and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 5(12), 1182-1190.
- Tunstall, J. (1977). *The Media are American: Anglo-American Media in the World*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly* 28(2), 377-389.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1997). EIL, ESL, EFL: global issues and local interests. *World Englishes* 16(1), 135-146.
- Yamanaka, N. (2006). An Evaluation of English Textbooks in Japan from the Viewpoint of Nations in the Inner, Outer, and Expanding Circles. *JALT Journal*, 28(1), 57-76
- Yoshikawa, H. (2000). The Attitude toward and recognition of English in Korea with reference to English in Japan. *Intercultural Communication Studies* X:1, 23-28.
- Yonhap news. (2012, September 6). Once-flourishing English Villages struggle to survive. http://koreatimes.co.kr/www/news/nation/2012/09/113_119289.html
- Yoon, J. A. (2019, September 30). 의대보다 비싼 영어유치원... 年 1159 만원 (English preschools more expensive than medical schools...\$10,000 a year). <http://www.munhwa.com/news/view.html?no=2019093001071230128001>
- Young, C. & Yee, M. (August, 2006). Macao students' attitudes toward English: a post-1999 survey. *World Englishes*, 25(3-4), 479-490.