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Tertiary Korean Language Programmes in New Zealand

How Can They Better Meet Students' Needs?

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*A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy, The University of Auckland, 2015.*

Abstract

Previous studies have stressed the importance of taking students' learning needs into account when teaching a second/foreign language (L2) to prevent or reduce negative outcomes, such as demotivation (e.g., Banno, 2003; Canagarajah, 2002; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Long, 2005b; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014). However, research on Korean language teaching and learning has been noticeably absent in New Zealand. It is therefore difficult to determine what students need and expect in learning Korean and whether the language learning needs that students bring with them are actually informing pedagogical decisions. With a view to strengthening tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand, the main purpose of this research project was to explore students' perceived needs in and beliefs about learning the Korean language as an L2 in a New Zealand tertiary programme. Teachers' perspectives about teaching Korean effectively, and their expectations of students to make learning in class more productive and help the students successfully achieve their goals, were also gauged to attain a more complete picture of the state of tertiary Korean language acquisition programmes in the country.

This investigation adopted a mixed methods approach: focus group interviews, a survey, and in-depth interviews, with the aim of examining students' learning needs and their perspectives on effective language acquisition and instruction. Additionally, in order to obtain information about teachers' points of view, individual interviews with teachers were conducted. The findings indicate that there may be a mismatch between students' and teachers' perspectives on learning and teaching Korean. On the basis of the findings, this research suggests that in order to better meet students' learning needs, teachers should teach grammar deductively and explicitly before moving to an activity and provide focused, direct, explicit feedback in a supportive encouraging environment. Furthermore, the findings suggest that it is helpful to provide more opportunities for meaningful interaction and collaboration within a small class and to integrate cultural aspects into the courses, as such methods would stimulate students' interest in learning Korean. Finally, students should actively take the initiative to assume personal responsibility for their own learning, although they may need the teacher's guidance and support to become more ready for self-directed learning.

Acknowledgements

Although I had to overcome many hardships during the journey that comprised this PhD study, it has been a wonderful privilege for me to look closely at students' and teachers' perspectives on effective learning and teaching of the Korean language. First, I glorify Jesus Christ who has proved who He is throughout the process of this journey. A number of people have contributed to the process of developing and completing this thesis in many different ways. I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisors, Associate Professor Martin East at the Faculty of Education and Professor Emmanuel Manalo at the Graduate School of Education at Kyoto University. They brought to light new ways of thinking and widened the scope of what was useful and possible in conducting my research. I would not have been able to complete this without their insightful, critical, and invaluable suggestions and comments. I also deeply appreciate their helpful advice and heartfelt encouragement when I was suffering from personal difficulties. Furthermore, I am immensely grateful to the students and teachers who willingly participated in my research. I thankfully acknowledge that I could not have succeeded in the task without their contribution. Particular acknowledgment goes to Ms Reiko Kondo, Ms Michiyo Mori, and Ms Kaori Oishi of the Japanese Department for their thoughtful assistance. They generously took time from a very busy teaching schedule to check qualitative data in order to determine the reliability of the data analyses. I would like to express deep appreciation to Ms Claudine Wagg who helped in checking the transcriptions of the student interviews against the audio recorded files and proofreading some chapters. I also wish to express my special thanks to Mr Stuart Johns for his kind support and rapid response in proofreading all chapters. Finally, I have been indebted to my parents and would like to thank them for standing by me through this entire path with their everlasting love, understanding, patience, support, and encouragement beyond the call of duty. This thesis is dedicated to my parents.

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List of Acronyms

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CF	Corrective Feedback
CHC	Confucian Heritage Culture
ESL	English as a Second Language
FFI	Form-Focused Instruction
FonF	Focus-on-Form
FonFS	Focus-on-FormS
FonM	Focus-on-Meaning
GE	General Education
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LSD	Least Significant Difference
L2	Second/Foreign Language
MO	Motivational Orientation
PIS	Participant Information Sheets
PPP	Presentation-Practice-Production
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SR	Student's Roles
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TR	Teacher's Roles
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Background

Korea is an important country for New Zealand, both societally and economically. The Korean community is one of the more influential ethnic minority groups in New Zealand, especially in the Auckland area. Korean people have increasingly immigrated to New Zealand and there have been significant numbers of foreign students and travellers from Korea each year (New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2006; see also Choe, 2005). Korea is also one of six major export countries for New Zealand along with Australia, the US, Japan, China, and England (Compilation Committee of a History of Koreans in New Zealand, 2007). When the languages used between the countries are considered, English is commonly used in Australia, the US and England. In terms of foreign languages for trade, the report of the Compilation Committee of a History of Koreans in New Zealand (2007) indicated that the Korean language should be among the most important foreign languages for New Zealanders, alongside Chinese and Japanese. Being able to speak Korean may be helpful for a future career, or for living together with Korean people inside and outside of New Zealand. The reality, however, is that Korean is not a popular foreign language to learn in New Zealand. This thesis therefore explored the current teaching of Korean in one tertiary institution, from both students' and teachers' perspectives, with a view to finding out what might help to strengthen Korean language programmes.

Choe's (2005) useful introduction to the history of teaching Korean as a second/foreign language (L2) in New Zealand noted the lack of any apparent national policy for L2 teaching and learning at the tertiary level in New Zealand. Thus, the initiative to introduce a Stage I (first year *ab initio*) Korean language programme at one of New Zealand's universities in 1989 was made on the basis of support from a Korean non-government foundation rather than from New Zealand's Ministry of Education. Korean has since been developed as one of the Asian languages on offer in the School of Asian Studies of this university. A few other tertiary institutions subsequently offered Korean language degree courses or certificate courses (see Choe, 2005; Keating, 2004 for details), but these programmes have now been discontinued. At the time of writing this thesis, the university that is the focus of this thesis remains the only university which

provides Bachelor and Master degrees in Korean in New Zealand. This development has been confirmed by the current researcher's personal contact with the tertiary institutions.

Many studies focusing on overseas tertiary Korean language acquisition have been carried out by researchers in the US, where the number of students wishing to learn Korean has increased considerably since 1990 (e.g., Byon, 2008; Kang, 2005; E. Kim, 2005). In New Zealand, however, teaching Korean at the tertiary level is an infrequently explored field of research, and only a few recent studies about teaching Korean as an L2 have been carried out. For example, Choe (2005) described the history of general Korean in L2 education in New Zealand, while Choe Yoon (2004) suggested how to teach Korean pronunciation. Additionally, H. Kim's (2003) case study examined students' subjective needs in a tertiary beginner Korean language acquisition course.

Although there is minimal relevant research in New Zealand, it is not entirely appropriate to use research findings from the US to inform the New Zealand Korean curricula since the New Zealand teaching environment differs from that of the US. In New Zealand, for instance, there are far more students from non-Korean heritage backgrounds, such as students from China, Japan, and European countries (see Choe, 2005), while the majority of the students taking Korean in the US are of Korean-American heritage (Byon, 2008; E. Kim, 2005; H. Sohn, 2005). H. H. Kim (2001) explained that the label 'Korean-heritage' generally refers to students whose parents are native Korean immigrants and who have been exposed to the Korean language by their parents and/or the Korean community. They are generally confident in speaking and listening, but not in writing (E. Kim, 2005). The learning needs of students with a different background may influence teaching approaches, so the findings from the US may not be suitable for the New Zealand teaching contexts. According to Shin (2004), when designing an effective curriculum, teachers should reflect local needs, particularly learners' needs, which "seem to be the single most important parameter" (p. 91). Thus, it is both important and beneficial to undertake research into students' needs and beliefs in the New Zealand context, because findings of such research may prove useful in developing the teaching of Korean as an L2 in New Zealand. The present study aimed at being able to provide practical guidance in teaching Korean to students from non-Korean heritage backgrounds, particularly in cases where such students are the majority.

1.2. Importance of the research topic

Choe (2005) noted that, until 2001, half of the students taking a Stage I (first year) Korean language acquisition course in New Zealand had enrolled in a Stage II (second year) language course, but in 2002, only one third of the students in Stage I decided to take a Stage II course, and since then there have been difficulties in retaining students who wish to continue their study to a higher level. Furthermore, as Table 1 shows, although the number of students enrolled in the first semester of Stage I has increased substantially since 2008, there have continuously been high losses from the first semester to the second semester of Stage I. The data were collected from the enrolment status spreadsheet files at the beginning of each semester in the School of Asian Studies.

Table 1: The number of Year 1 students of Korean between 2007 and 2013

Year \ Semester	Semester 1	Semester 2
2007	71	28
2008	115	28
2009	107	16
2010	123	22
2011	109	26
2012	100	20
2013	136	33

Why did many students decide not to take a further course in the second semester of Stage I? One of the reasons might be found in the university policy that students can choose a language course as one of their compulsory general education (GE) papers and are not required to undertake any further study beyond their GE requirements. Although this may be true to some extent, it seems unreasonable to assume that it is the only reason for this high attrition. Choe (2005) and H. Kim (2003) have revealed that many students of Korean learned the language because of perceived practical uses (e.g., using Korean when travelling, increasing job opportunities) or interest in the Korean language, people and culture. The primary reason for taking a Korean course was not to meet the GE requirement. These findings suggest that if students do not lose their interest, they might continue to learn Korean to a higher level. In order to better understand reasons for high attrition from the first semester to the second semester in Stage I Korean language acquisition courses, it is useful to investigate not only why

students choose to learn the Korean language, but also why they decide to continue or discontinue their study. Although this research did not directly address the problem of attrition, it suggests which factors may demotivate students from continuing in courses and recommends improvements that could aid in stimulating a continuous study of Korean to higher levels.

In this light, it is worth noting the influential role that teachers might play either in motivating students to learn or in causing students to lose interest. Not only teaching styles and approaches, but also teachers' personalities, their relationships with students, and their organisation of grouping patterns in the classroom can contribute to fostering positive involvement of students in the learning process (Carter, 2006; Dörnyei, 2001). At the same time, teachers can have a negative impact on the enthusiasm and motivation that students possess for learning an L2 (Dörnyei, 2001). Furthermore, despite the teacher's motivational impact on language learning, students have their own crucial roles to play in the learning process. As Nunan (1995) noted, "it is the learner who must remain at the centre of the process, for no matter how much energy and effort we [teachers] expend, it is the learner who has to do the learning" (p. 155). A successful learning outcome depends on students' own contribution to the learning process (e.g., Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1999; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014). This previous research suggests that it is beneficial to examine what students of Korean expect from the teacher, what they think they need to do, and what teachers expect students to do for successful learning outcomes.

Teaching practices formed by teachers' experiences and beliefs may not always positively match the students' needs and expectations in learning an L2 (e.g., A. Brown, 2009; Griffiths, 2007; Schulz, 1996, 2001). Nunan (1988) asserted that the approach to teaching was the area that was often mismatched with student learning needs. Particularly, grammar teaching, error correction, and group work are the frequent factors about which teachers and students have shown different perspectives (e.g., M. Li, 2000; Loewen et al., 2009; Schulz, 1996, 2001). For instance, A. Brown's (2009) findings revealed mismatches between teachers' and students' perceptions of effective L2 teaching. The teachers favoured more communicative approaches in classroom practices, while the students preferred a grammar-based approach. A mismatch between

learning expectations and teaching practices can have negative effects, such as student confusion, demotivation, and dropout (Oxford & Anderson, 1995; Schulz, 1996, 2001).

With regard to teaching approaches in Korean as an L2, it is useful to consider the general educational teaching strategies and styles used in Korea because many teachers come from Korea. H. Kim (2003) indicated that “the traditional and still conventional method of instruction in the current Korean classroom is teacher-centred, mono-directional learning, where teachers decide the contents of classes and give prepared lectures to students without considering students’ individual characteristics” (p. 147). Flaitz (2003, p. 75) summarised teaching styles in Korea as follows:

- The Korean teacher as the giver of knowledge generally lectures and asks questions in front of the class.
- Class discussion and group activities, such as role playing, problem solving, and completing exercises together, are rare in the classroom.
- Students are quite passive in classroom activities: interruption by asking the teacher questions in class is rare; rather, students are expected to answer questions from the teacher, perform tasks at the blackboard and do abundant homework.

Chung (2004, pp. 25-29) indicated that the teaching of Korean as an L2 inside and outside Korea has adopted structure-based approaches, the focus of which is on repetition and drills. In the New Zealand context, however, H. Kim (2003) reported that the predominant classroom activity employed was role-playing, which was done as a whole class or in pairs. At the same time, she also revealed that students of Korean preferred structure-focused learning working in pairs or small group settings. Despite these interesting findings which might appear to support congruence between teachers’ and students’ views, crucial questions about the congruence between teaching approaches employed and the learning needs of students remain unanswered. There is a need to explore what teaching approaches are primarily used in current classroom instruction and are most suitable for students of Korean in the New Zealand context. There is also scope to clarify whether structure-based approaches meet the students’ needs in the New Zealand educational context.

In addition, related to students' learning needs and expectations, it is vital to take into account students' individual differences such as cultural/educational backgrounds and language proficiency because these could affect their perceived needs and preferences for learning an L2 (e.g., Banno, 2003; Littlewood, 1981a). For example, the teaching and learning styles of Asian countries such as China, Japan and Taiwan are very similar to those of Korea (Flaitz, 2003). Accordingly new immigrant Asian students (i.e., those born in Asian countries, who have subsequently moved to another country like New Zealand) may have a preference for traditional teaching methods because they are used to these approaches due to past educational experience in their own countries. This study included investigation of different student differences in order to elucidate the extent to which such factors might influence their perceived learning needs.

Finally, one point that needs to be stressed here is that, in order to discover the extent to which the teaching of Korean matches the learning needs of students of Korean in New Zealand, it is important to examine actual teaching situations. As has been previously stated, however, there remains only one tertiary Korean language programme in New Zealand, and there are only a few teachers. In addition, the researcher was involved in teaching the Korean courses when this study was conducted. Because of the limited number of potential teacher participants, it was not possible to collect and analyse comparable sets of data from teachers in the same way as it was for students. Moreover, it was difficult to get permission for classroom observations. Thus, in this research, teachers' points of view were sought through interviews in order to help understand their actual teaching practice. Although the reality of what teachers do in their classrooms may be different from teachers' beliefs (e.g., Borg, 2006), many researchers have pointed out that teachers' intuitive beliefs and experiences about language learning and teaching often influence their teaching practices (Batstone, 2006; Carter, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014; Willing, 1989). Therefore, considering teachers' beliefs can help to illuminate their actual practices.

1.3. The main purposes of the research and research questions

This research project primarily aimed to discover ways in which tertiary Korean language programmes could better meet students' learning needs in New Zealand so that programmes could better motivate students to learn and to persist in studying the language. This study investigated students' needs in and beliefs about taking Korean

language acquisition programmes in a New Zealand tertiary educational context. Individual factors (e.g., gender, number of years learning the L2) were also considered in relation to students' perceived learning needs. Furthermore, the study investigated students' perspectives about teachers' responsibilities for teaching Korean effectively, the roles that students played in successful learning, and the ways in which teachers might be able to help students take responsibility for their study. Additionally, teachers' perspectives about teaching Korean effectively, and their expectations of students to make learning in class more productive and help the students achieve their goals successfully, were examined to complement the students' perspectives. The overarching research questions were:

1. What do students need in, and believe about, the learning of Korean?
2. What do teachers believe about the teaching of Korean?

The following subsidiary research questions were addressed:

1. Students' needs and beliefs
 - a. How do students want to learn Korean?
 - b. What do students expect teachers to do in teaching Korean effectively?
 - c. What do students think they need to do in order to learn Korean effectively?
 - d. Why do students take a tertiary Korean language course in New Zealand?
 - e. What do students expect to be able to do as a consequence of taking Korean?
 - f. What makes students decide to continue or discontinue their Korean language course?
 - g. How are students' individual differences (cultural/educational backgrounds and language-proficiency levels) related to their perceived learning needs and beliefs?
2. Teachers' beliefs
 - a. How do teachers want to teach Korean?
 - b. What do teachers think about their responsibilities for teaching Korean effectively and realistically?

- c. What do teachers expect students to do when learning Korean effectively?
- d. How should teachers help students take responsibility for learning Korean effectively?
- e. What specific characteristics of the New Zealand educational context do teachers consider as being important to take into account in designing and teaching the Korean language acquisition courses?

1.4. The structure of the thesis

This chapter has provided a context for this study, establishing a niche by indicating a gap in the previous research and raising some important questions that are still to be addressed in this topic area. After that, it has outlined the current study's main purposes and research questions with a view to addressing the identified gaps in research.

Chapters 2 and 3 provide a theoretical and empirical framework for the study by reviewing current literature. Chapter 2 presents students' needs and their beliefs about learning an L2, along with individual factors that could influence those needs and beliefs. It also provides an overview of major teaching approaches that foster L2 acquisition in terms of their strengths and weaknesses. Chapter 3 discusses crucial factors in L2 learning and teaching. It considers students' and teachers' beliefs about effective L2 acquisition and their preferences for teaching approaches. Furthermore, it addresses fundamental issues on improvement in teaching and learning Korean, including students' and teachers' roles in enhancing effective L2 acquisition.

Chapter 4 explains the methods used for conducting the current research and the analysis of the data used in this study. In order to answer the research questions with regard to the students' views, data were gathered using three methods: focus group interviews, questionnaires, and individual interviews with students. These research methods focused on why students take Korean, what they expect from the course and the teacher, how they feel about learning Korean, and what they think they need to do when learning Korean. In addition, within the constraints noted (i.e., only a few potential teacher participants), individual interviews with teachers were conducted in order to obtain some insight into teachers' beliefs about the teaching of Korean, including the theoretical perspectives that underpin their teaching practices, and the

roles that teachers expect students to play in learning the language effectively. This chapter describes the study sites and participants, the operational procedures used for this research project, the instruments for data collection, the methods of data analysis, and the results of data analysis for this research project.

Chapters 5 to 8 present findings from the data sets gathered using the research methods noted above, with discussion of the findings and the issues raised in the light of previous studies relevant to each area as presented in the literature review. Chapter 5 reports the findings from the focus group interview analysis, which gave some insights into preferences for different classroom activities, important factors in encouraging students to learn the language successfully, and the students' reasons for studying Korean at university. Chapter 6 reports results of the questionnaire-based study on students' opinions about their preferred teaching approaches (i.e., grammar instruction, corrective feedback (CF), and grouping patterns), their expectations of teachers, beliefs about their own roles in effective learning, reasons for and expectations of learning Korean, and reasons for discontinuing their studies, along with the statistically significant differences that emerged between groups categorised according to language proficiency levels, ethnicity, and educational backgrounds. Using semi-structured interviews, Chapter 7 presents a range of opinions on methods of grammar teaching and CF, which are helpful to better understand why the students desired both structure-focused instruction and a communicative approach. This chapter suggests how teachers could encourage students to study effectively, considering their own roles and their students' roles. It also reveals more detailed reasons for and factors in the continuation or discontinuation of study. Chapter 8 reports findings from teachers' interviews, which provides background information on teaching and suggestions from the teachers' point of view. The findings provided helpful information concerning teachers' beliefs about effective Korean language instruction in the New Zealand educational context, their roles in achieving successful outcomes, and the roles that they expect students to play in learning the language effectively.

Chapter 9 discusses the findings derived from all the research methods used, comparing students' and teachers' points of view on effective learning and teaching of Korean and considering current teaching and learning situations. This chapter suggests some

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directions for the development of Korean language programmes based on both students' and teachers' perspectives.

On the basis of the findings, Chapter 10 indicates some of the pedagogical implications of the research findings for the development of New Zealand tertiary Korean programmes, and draws conclusions from this study. In addition, it acknowledges the limitations of the research, and briefly discusses possible directions for further research.

Chapter 2. Students’ learning needs and approaches to language teaching

2.1. Introduction

The main objective of this research is to explore students’ perceived learning needs and views about what is involved in learning Korean, and teachers’ perspectives about effective teaching of Korean, in order to suggest ways to motivate students and to enhance their successful acquisition of the language. This chapter discusses the literature related to students’ needs and beliefs about learning an L2 and the influence of individual differences. It also provides an overview of three major teaching approaches adopted to foster effective L2 acquisition and discusses their strengths and weaknesses. With regard to effective teaching methods, different perspectives described in previous studies are considered, particularly with regard to grammar teaching, corrective feedback (CF), and group work, along with cooperative learning.

2.2. Students’ beliefs and their perceived learning needs

To better understand students’ perspectives on the Korean teaching context, it is helpful to overview the arguments from the literature about what students feel and think about effective learning in L2 programmes. This section briefly identifies the student learning needs and the relationship between these perspectives and learning behaviour. It presents two previous studies on students’ reasons for learning Korean in New Zealand, which suggest the need for further research. In addition, it discusses the impact of student individual differences on their learning needs and expectations.

2.2.1. Students’ learning needs and the impact of beliefs on learning behaviour

West (1994) argued that, since the establishment of courses and programmes in English for Specific Purposes, needs analysis has been emphasised as “a logically necessary first step” in L2 course design (pp. 1-2). The concept of ‘students’ needs’ has been understood in a number of different ways, such as students’ necessities, wants, beliefs, motivations, expectations, reasons for learning a language, preferences for different

learning styles, learning strategies, teaching methods, and so on (e.g., Byon, 2008; Dörnyei, 1998; Richards & Gravatt, 1998; Seedhouse, 1995; Shin, 2004; West, 1994). Needs have been typically divided into objective needs and subjective needs: the former could be observed without direct contact with students while the latter should involve students in their identification (Nunan, 1988). Nunan maintained that subjective needs related to “affective needs, expectations and preferred learning styles” (p. 5) and subjective information was “at the heart of learner-centred procedures” (p. 24). In this study, ‘students’ perceived learning needs’ are regarded as subjective needs, involving reasons for taking Korean, expectations of the course, and beliefs about effective learning and teaching.

As a result of students’ different learning experiences from a variety of different teachers, students may have their own views about effectiveness of teaching and could value a variety of activities and approaches offered by different teachers (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). According to Seedhouse (1995), language learners, even young learners, have “a very clear idea of their own needs and wants” (p. 64). Horwitz (1987) stated that students’ beliefs about language learning are mainly formed by their previous experiences as language learners and by cultural backgrounds, which can affect “the students’ acquisition and use of effective language learning strategies” (p. 120). Richards and Lockhart also mentioned that students’ perspectives on L2 learning and teaching influence “how they approach their learning” (p. 52), and their cognitive beliefs can closely impact on their motivation for learning, expectations from teachers, perceptions about language learning, and preferences for approaches to learning.

Long (2005b) noted that “[l]earners are far more active and cognitively-independent participants in the acquisition process than is assumed by the erroneous belief that what you teach is what they learn, and when you teach it is when they learn” (p. 3). Furthermore, Schulz (1996) asserted that “[w]hile opinions alone do not necessarily reflect the actual cognitive processes that go on in language acquisition, perceptions *do* influence reality. Indeed, some would argue that perception *is* reality for the individual learner” (p. 349, emphasis in original). More importantly, “beliefs play a central role in learning experience and achievements” (Cotterall, 1999, p. 494). In other words, what students believe can affect how they perform to achieve learning goals and ultimately successful outcomes (Horwitz, 1985). Therefore, investigating students’ beliefs about

effective L2 learning and their perceived learning needs is conducive to understanding their learning behaviour and improving the methods employed to teach a language (in the case of this thesis, Korean).

2.2.2. Reasons for learning L2

In the New Zealand tertiary educational context, Richards and Gravatt’s (1998) study demonstrated that the common reasons that L2 learners most often listed for learning an L2 were “interest or a pure desire to learn (61%) and a desire to travel in a country where the language is spoken (60%)” (p. 8). Their study also indicated that “many students take a beginners level course in one or more languages as part of their degrees in other subjects” (p. 3) and the most common reason for discontinuation of their study was higher priority demands on their time. Furthermore, the New Zealand university students seemed to believe that learning a language should be fun (97%), and many of the students stressed that they wanted to improve speaking and listening skills.

With regard to reasons for learning Korean in a New Zealand university, H. Kim (2003) conducted a case study using a questionnaire. Thirty-two Stage I undergraduate students, consisting of 23 English speakers, eight Chinese speakers, and one Japanese speaker, participated in her research. The findings showed that the primary reasons for learning Korean were practical language uses and genuine interests in the language, for example: “I want to use Korean when I travel,” “of pure interest and a desire to learn,” and “It will increase my chance of getting a job” (p. 34). The least important reasons were a personal need to communicate (e.g., “I have relatives or friends who speak Korean” (p. 34)), and language requirements (e.g., “I need some points to finish my degree” (p. 34)). As H. Kim did not discuss any comparisons of the ethnic groups or how many students chose each of the provided categories, it is not clear whether there were any differences or similarities among the different groups.

Another example of a study that investigated students’ reasons for learning an L2 was Choe (2005). A questionnaire was administered to 42 respondents, consisting of 15 English speakers, 21 Chinese speakers and four Japanese speakers. Choe found both differences and similarities among the groups of students. The results revealed that the most prominent reason for learning Korean was getting along well with Korean people. This was so for both English (73.7%) and Chinese native speakers (71.4%). The next

major reasons differed, however, between the native language speaker groups. English speakers selected reasons relating to future career: getting a job and working in Korea (46.7%), and working with Korean people (40%), whereas Chinese speakers (57.1%) chose a culture-related reason such as “I like Korean dramas and movies” (p. 547). These findings suggest that students’ cultural or educational backgrounds might influence their motivation for learning Korean.

These previous studies suggest that students of Korean are mainly motivated to learn the language for intrinsic reasons, that is, “to experience pleasure and satisfaction” rather than extrinsic reasons, that is, “to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g., good grades)” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 121). Despite the interesting findings, the reliability and validity of the measurement and instrument were limited as follows. H. Kim’s (2003) questionnaires seemed to have given inadequate consideration to balance and representativeness of the range of options provided in the Likert-type scales used. For instance, she asked the students to rate nine reasons for learning Korean on a 3-point Likert scale: 1 “not important at all,” 2 “quite important,” and 3 “very important.” This did not include “neutral” or “important” ratings, forcing the participants to choose either the “not important at all” or “quite important” category, even when they may have felt that the reasons were neither. Choe’s (2005) study appears to have been informally conducted, and she did not explain the details of the study, such as when, where, how and by whom the research was conducted.

2.2.3. The impact of students’ individual differences on their learning needs

Previous studies have indicated that teachers can more effectively help students learn an L2 in an actual teaching context by taking into account students’ individual differences, because these may affect students’ learning needs and beliefs. A number of L2 researchers have drawn attention to the impact that personal differences of language learners, such as age, language proficiency level, and ethnic background, could have on their learning process (e.g., Ellis, 1986). Lightbown and Spada (2006) argued that “[l]earner variables interact in complex ways” and “[t]he complexity grows when we realize that individual learners will react to different learning conditions in different ways” (p. 75). Learner variables are not solely related to one specific difference but are more dynamic.

There are some examples regarding students’ individual differences that affect their learning needs and beliefs. Firstly, A. Brown (2009) surveyed 49 teachers and about 1,600 of their students from nine first and second year foreign language classes in the University of Arizona on their beliefs about effective teaching behaviours. One of the aims of the study was to identify students’ ideals of effective L2 instruction, taking into account the relationship between students’ responses and language type and class level. Although different languages and levels did not particularly affect the responses to questionnaire items (i.e., no statistically significant differences were found), the results revealed that the first year students tended to have a stronger preference for discrete grammar instruction and explicit CF than their second year counterparts. This finding suggests that students may change their perceptions about L2 teaching approaches “from their first to second year of L2 study” (p. 55).

Secondly, Ryu Yang (2003) examined reasons for taking East Asian languages such as Chinese, Japanese and Korean, and the impact of student differences on those Motivational Orientations (MOs) that referred to reasons for taking an L2. The results revealed that all the participants valued integrative MO (e.g., interest in L2 people and culture) more strongly than instrumental MO (e.g., job or educational opportunities). Many of these students, for example, studied East Asian languages “regardless of requirement” (p. 51). The findings also indicated that the students wanted to improve speaking and listening skills rather than reading and writing skills. Furthermore, the results demonstrated that student variables (language of study, gender, heritage learner status, requirement, and language proficiency) noticeably affected their MOs. In particular, heritage learner status was the most important variable: for instance, heritage students were greatly motivated by a language paper requirement, while non-heritage students were attracted to learn the target language more by interest MO.

Thirdly, Banno (2003) explored students’ views about good L2 teachers, and similarities and differences among students from different cultures: Japanese students studying English, and American and Chinese students learning Japanese. The students, particularly Japanese and Chinese students, expressed similar notions of the qualities of good language teachers which appeared to be related to their cultural ties. The findings from the investigation also indicated that there were some outstanding differences in expectations of L2 teachers among the student groups. Banno concluded that “students

from different cultural backgrounds may have different expectations of their teachers” (p. 340), suggesting that teachers should understand students’ expectations to avoid possible conflicts caused by underestimating the different cultural backgrounds that students bring to L2 classrooms.

Finally, with regard to the influence of students’ cultural differences, it is important to note that, as pointed out in the previous chapter, many students of Korean are Asian and of non-Korean heritage (Choe, 2005). According to Gan’s (2009) argument, “Asian students are believed to favour rote learning and lack critical thinking skills, looking on teachers as close to gods and reluctant to question the textbook” (p. 43). Grainger’s (1997) study, by contrast, indicated that “Asian backgrounds do not follow traditional patterns of strategy use as identified in other major studies of language-learning strategies” (p. 383). The research showed that, regardless of background, the most preferred strategy was “social learning”, whereas “rote learning” was the least preferred strategy aspect among the group of Asian students (pp. 380-381). It may be concluded, therefore, that it is not appropriate to have stereotypical thoughts about Asian students. Furthermore, some of the Asian students of Korean were born in New Zealand or came to the country when they were children, and have been educated in the New Zealand school system. Accordingly, they may have adapted to the predominant teaching and learning approaches, and their new culture and educational system may influence their views and attitudes in learning Korean.

2.2.4. Summary

The studies reviewed above have suggested that knowledge of students’ requirements for and perspectives on language learning can be helpful in understanding their behaviours in the process of learning. It should also be noted that students’ perceived learning needs and beliefs have a strong influence on ultimate learning outcomes. The previous literature has also revealed that there is a need to further investigate students’ reasons for learning Korean. One could easily imagine that if students chose the language as one of their compulsory general subject papers, many of them would not continue their study to a higher level. Many students, however, took Korean because of practical uses or interests in Korean language, people and culture (Choe, 2005; H. Kim, 2003). The previous studies did not provide clear evidence regarding what caused a majority of students to lose their interest. There is, therefore, scope to investigate what

factors compelled students who took Korean to decide to discontinue. Finally, the previous studies showed that students’ individual differences may affect students’ needs and beliefs about their learning.

2.3. Teaching approaches and L2 acquisition

There is general agreement among researchers that teaching practices should be eclectic, with a careful consideration of various contextual factors (e.g., Bax, 2003; D. Bell, 2007; Hiep, 2007). Nevertheless, it is helpful in determining effective methods in a particular context to overview a brief history of language teaching approaches in three broad and contrasting ways: traditional approaches, communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches, and form-focused instruction (FFI). The latter two teaching approaches have attracted considerable research attention in L2 acquisition for several decades. In particular, grammar teaching, error correction and cooperative learning with group work are discussed in this connection. An underlying knowledge of the approaches will help with appreciating students’ and teachers’ perspectives on effective learning and teaching.

2.3.1. Traditional approaches to teaching L2: Grammar Translation and Audiolingualism

In the Western world, the so-called ‘classical languages’ (i.e., Latin and Greek) had been taught in schools via the Classical method, which “came to be known as the Grammar Translation method” in the late nineteenth century (H. D. Brown, 2000, p. 15). This method also came to influence how so-called ‘modern’ foreign languages were taught. In the Grammar Translation method, teachers draw students’ attention to new vocabulary and grammatical rules in a direct way, testing and improving their memory thereof, and the students often read a text line by line and are asked to translate each sentence (H. D. Brown, 2000; DeKeyser, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 2008). Johnson (2001) also noted that in this method, the teachers present the lessons, which characteristically begin with a lengthy grammar explanation, almost always using the learner’s first language, followed by examples and sentence-level practice. The major focus of this approach in the classroom is on reading and writing, while “little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 6).

There are no specific theoretical underpinnings behind this method. Richards and Rodgers (2014) noted that:

[T]hough it may be true to say that the Grammar-Translation Method is still widely practiced, it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory. (p. 7)

The Audiolingual Method developed “in part as a reaction to the grammar translation approach” (Lightbown & Spada, 2008, p. 138). Based on a belief that, with regard to modern languages, speech has “a priority in language teaching” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 63), in the audiolingual approach “the language was taught by systematic attention to pronunciation and by intensive oral drilling of its basic sentence patterns” (p. 52). Thus, audiolingualism, in common with grammar translation, was strongly influenced by behaviourism, which regards language development as “the formation of habits,” emphasising the importance of imitation, practice, and reinforcement (Lightbown & Spada, 2008, p. 34). The audiolingual method, which is “a linguistic, or structure-based, approach to language teaching” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 66), stresses mechanical practice by providing repetition and the substitution of models, transformation exercises, display questions, and explicit negative feedback such as error correction (Long & Robinson, 1998). The teacher presents sentence patterns one by one and, in order to avoid errors from the beginning, moves to the next level only when the students master the previous one (Johnson, 2001).

However, structure-based approaches have been subject to considerable critique (e.g., Benson & Voller, 1997; Johnson, 2001; Krashen, 1993, 2003; Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Nunan, 1988; Savignon, 1991; Thompson, 1996). The emphasis of these approaches is placed on linguistic accuracy isolated from context, and most of the practice and drills are decontextualized and merely engaged in for the purposes of developing knowledge of vocabulary and grammar points. Consequently, although learners might obtain knowledge *about* the language, they often lack the ability to communicate effectively *in* the language. Lightbown and Spada (2008) maintained that focus on grammatical or structural forms through repetition and drills of decontextualized sentences could enable students to accumulate knowledge about linguistic elements but cannot ensure the development of comprehension, fluency and communicative abilities – that is, proficiency in language in actual use. Similarly,

Krashen (1981, 1992, 1993, 2003) has asserted that students’ accumulated knowledge about linguistic elements cannot guarantee successful communication in real life. Moreover, decontextualized linguistic knowledge may lead to inappropriate language use and misunderstanding in conversation.

Furthermore, and bearing in mind the behavioural underpinnings, it should be noted that the learning activities in Grammar Translation and Audiolingualism are not learner-centred but teacher-centred approaches, in which teachers, often ignoring learners’ positions, judge what students need to learn and choose what to teach, and “classroom activities are based on teacher-talk and student-listen routine” (Cheung, 2001, p. 55). Students are usually taught what they have to do and how to achieve it, according to what the teacher sees would benefit them. In other words, the teacher always initiates and the learner only responds, which limits learners’ communicative functions and interactional skills (Littlewood, 1981a). For this reason, the students need neither to talk with others nor to solve problems in lessons, and they might even think different things in their mind (i.e., not be paying attention) while doing the repetitive tasks (Lightbown & Spada, 2008). The roles of students are hence passive and they just follow the teacher’s instruction irrespective of their intention or needs.

2.3.2. Communicative approaches: Communicative Language Teaching

In the 1970s, many researchers began to question the meaningless linguistic practice in behaviourist and structure-based approaches and started to pay attention to language in actual use (e.g., Carter, 2006; Celce-Murcia, 2007; Johnson, 2001; Krashen, 1981, 1992, 1993, 2003; Krashen & Terrell, 1988; Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Littlewood, 1981a; Savignon, 1991; Thompson, 1996). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which arose out of dissatisfaction with the limitations of traditional approaches, “puts the focus on the learner” and their communicative needs, and aims to develop the ability of communicative language use (Savignon, 2002, p. 3). Swaffer and Woodruff’s (1978) research, for instance, suggested that such meaning-focused approaches not only provide students with positive attitudes and achievements but also positively influence student motivation for learning a language and reduce the attrition rate.

2.3.2.1. Communicative competence

The starting point of communicative approaches was the acknowledgment that communicative competence could hardly be achieved by the traditional structure-based methods focusing on linguistic elements. The term “communicative competence,” which became “part of the theoretical justification” for CLT (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 42), was firstly introduced by Hymes (1967) as an argument against Chomsky’s mentalistic theories focusing on linguistic competence in terms of the absence of social factors. Hymes added sociolinguistic competence in his model of communicative competence. His concept of communicative competence has, since then, been adopted by many applied linguists (e.g., Bachman, 1990; Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980). Canale and Swain (1980) and later Canale (1983) further categorised communicative competence as having four dimensions:

- grammatical competence: “knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 29);
- discourse competence: “intersentential relationships” in oral and written communication (H. D. Brown, 2000, p. 247); “cohesion and coherence” of discourse (Bachman, 1990, p. 85);
- sociolinguistic competence: “knowledge of the sociocultural rules of language and of discourse” (H. D. Brown, 2000, p. 247);
- strategic competence: verbal and non-verbal coping strategies that speakers use in order to compensate for breakdowns in communication and to enhance the effectiveness of communication.

The first two components focus on “the use of the linguistic system itself,” while the last two are concerned with “the functional aspects of communication” (H. D. Brown, 2000, pp. 246-247). This framework of communicative competence has been reinterpreted, modified, and extended over the years.

Among refined models is Bachman’s (1990) framework. Bachman proposed a framework of communicative language ability comprising three components:

- language competence (communicative competence in earlier models): a set of specific knowledge utilized in communication, which was further classified into organizational competence and pragmatic competence;
- strategic competence: metacognitive capacity for appropriate language use;
- psychophysiological mechanisms: neurological and psychological processes in actual use of language.

H. D. Brown (2000) explicated the components of Bachman’s language competence, comparing it with that of Canale and Swain’s communicative competence model as follows:

Bachman places grammatical and discourse (renamed “textual”) competence under one node, which he appropriately calls organizational competence... Canale and Swain’s sociolinguistic competence is now broken down into two pragmatic categories: functional aspects of language (illocutionary competence, or, pertaining to sending and receiving intended meanings) and sociolinguistic aspects (which deal with such considerations as politeness, formality, metaphor, register, and culturally related aspects of language). (p. 248)

More importantly, Bachman held a different conceptualisation of strategic competence to Canale and Swain. He entirely separated strategic competence from language competence. In his framework, strategic competence links the language competence to features of the context of the situation in actual implementation of language and to language users’ knowledge (of the world) structure. Bachman perceived strategic competence as an overarching and holistic mental domain, asserting that “strategic competence performs assessment, planning, and execution functions in determining the most effective means of achieving a communicative goal” (pp. 107-108).

2.3.2.2. Two realisations of Communicative Language Teaching

According to Howatt (1984, p. 279), there are “strong” and “weak” versions of communicative approaches: the former refers to using a target language to learn it, while the latter refers to learning to use the language. The most fundamental difference between the two versions can be found in their position regarding the role of explicit knowledge of the language (i.e., knowledge of grammatical rules and how this is acquired) in language acquisition. The strong version emphasises the use of meaningful language without any explicit grammar teaching, a reaction against the behaviourist-fuelled structure-based approach. Krashen’s (1981, 1982, 1992, 1993, 2003; Krashen &

Terrell, 1988) Natural Approach, for example, relates to this “strong” version, which has been supported for a long time by many researchers in L2 acquisition.

According to Krashen and Terrell (1988), the major principles of the Natural Approach are: “the goal of the Natural Approach is communicative skills”; “comprehension precedes production”; “production emerges as the acquisition process progresses”; “acquisition activities are central”; and “lower the affective filter” (p. 58). Krashen has argued that a focus on linguistic forms (i.e., direct teaching of grammar and rules as under a behaviourist approach) could seriously disrupt conversation and it is difficult for the learner to consider form and meaning at the same time, so large amounts of comprehensible input are more effective in language acquisition and comprise the only way to effectively elevate language competence. Error correction should also be avoided. There are five hypotheses of L2 acquisition theory which underlie the Natural Approach:

- The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis: Language acquisition is subconsciously picking up a language in natural and communicative situations; while language learning refers to knowing about a language, having conscious rules and error correction;
- The Natural Order Hypothesis: Grammatical structures are acquired (not necessarily learned) in a predictable order because, in general, certain structures tend to be acquired early and others later;
- The Monitor Hypothesis: Conscious learning has only a limited function as a monitor. For optimal monitor use, learners must know the rule, have sufficient time to apply the rule and be focused on form;
- The Input Hypothesis: Learners acquire language when they can obtain enough comprehensible input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence ($i + 1$). They are allowed to have a silent time in order to build up competence through comprehensible input;
- The Affective Filter Hypothesis: Attitudinal variables such as anxiety directly affect language acquisition. Learners with optimal attitudes have a lower affective filter, which means that they are more ready for comprehensible input. (Krashen & Terrell, 1988)

Strong CLT is, however, not without its problems. Long and Robinson (1998) highlighted key problems arising in the strong version of CLT as follows:

- A new language simply from exposure to its use may not be able to cover learners’ limited capacity to attain native norms.
- Some errors can be traced to infrequent exposure in classroom input.
- Avoiding correction may cause fossilization of misuse.
- It may be difficult to learn some grammatical contrasts between the learner’s native and target language from positive evidence alone.
- Learners who have received formal instruction have better learning outcomes than those who had learned in a natural environment only.

In particular, doubts have been expressed by quite a number of researchers about the hypothesis that comprehensible input is the only way to promote communicative competence and any attention to explicit formal instruction including linguistic components and CF needs to be prohibited in language classrooms. For instance, DeKeyser (1998) pointed out that Krashen’s natural approach not only avoids structural/linguistic instruction but also rejects the notion of practice in production. Likewise, Nunan’s (1991) criticism of “these ‘acquisitionist’ methods” was that “they oversimplify the nature of first language acquisition, and mislead teachers by suggesting that it is possible to recreate in the classroom the conditions underlying successful first language acquisition” (p. 244). As a result, many of those who were closer to Krashen’s view started to change their position to one that would allow for the teaching of grammatical aspects within a CLT framework (e.g., Lightbown, 1998).

The other version of CLT, the so-called “weak” version, allows direct grammar teaching as part of CLT. Savignon (1991) emphasised that “[c]ommunication cannot take place in the absence of structure, or grammar, a set of shared assumptions about how language works, along with a willingness of participants to cooperate in the negotiation of meaning” (p. 268). To facilitate the development of communicative competence in learners, weak CLT pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural/linguistic aspects of language in a situational and social context (Littlewood, 1981a, 1981b). In other words, this version of CLT includes grammar teaching, based on a belief that “grammar is necessary for communication to take place efficiently” (Thompson, 1996, p. 10). Thus, the learners can improve comprehension, fluency and

communicative abilities while achieving linguistic proficiency. In weak CLT, although teachers direct and lead the class when structural practice is involved, they withdraw from their teaching position in conversational activities, and students take more responsibility for their learning (Littlewood, 1981a). D. Li (1998) summarised the main characteristics of weak CLT as having the following characteristics in addition to the explicit teaching of grammar:

- A focus on communicative functions;
- A focus on meaningful communicative tasks rather than on language per se (e.g., grammar or vocabulary study);
- Efforts to make tasks and language relevant to a target group of learners through an analysis of genuine, realistic situations;
- The use of authentic, from-life materials;
- The use of group activities;
- The attempt to create a secure, nonthreatening atmosphere. (p. 679)

Klapper (2003) characterised classroom activities of weak CLT as “more structured to enable learners to practise communicative functions in a controlled way and gradually to build up to freer, less directed meaningful L2 exchanges” (p. 34). Littlewood (1981a) explained the methodological framework of weak CLT as being from controlled practice to creative language use: (1) pre-communication activities consist of structural activities and quasi-communicative activities. These activities focus on linguistic forms and acceptable language use, in order to “prepare the learner for later communication” (p. 87); (2) communicative activities contain functional communicative activities and social interaction activities that emphasise meaningful communication. This pedagogical sequence of weak CLT supports “the classic lesson structure of Presentation-Practice-Production, or ‘PPP’” (Klapper, 2003, p. 34), which refers to “the idea that a grammatical structure should be first presented explicitly and then practised until it is fully proceduralised” (Ellis, 2005, p. 37). In PPP, only after controlled practice do learners “engage in open practice, free of teacher control, where the focus is on meaning” (Klapper, 2003, p. 34). In this connection, East (2012) argued that weak CLT frequently pays explicit attention to grammar in a teacher-dominated way via the PPP technique.

By contrast, Littlewood (1981a) argued that, unlike PPP, the weak CLT framework can reverse the sequence from pre-communication activities to communicative activities:

[T]he teacher may *begin* a teaching unit with a communicative activity... On the basis of his own diagnosis and perhaps after discussion with the learners, the teacher can organise controlled practice of language forms which would have enabled the learners to communicate more effectively or appropriately. (pp. 87-88, emphasis in original)

Furthermore, Thompson (1996) suggested the principle of “the learners discovering grammar” (p. 11) through CLT: First, the teacher exposes learners to new concepts of language in a comprehensible context for understanding of the function and meaning. Then, the learners examine and discover the grammatical forms that have been used to convey the meaning. It can, therefore, be said that weak CLT involves broad meanings (varying along a continuum from the weakest version to ‘less’ weak versions to the near strong version of CLT) in terms of ways to integrate grammatical features into languages programmes. In other words, in order to develop overall communicative competence (including linguistic competence), in weak CLT grammatical aspects can be explained explicitly at the beginning of class or later after communicative activities. Learners may be expected to discover linguistic rules after meaning-focused interaction.

2.3.2.3. Recent operationalisations of CLT

The goal of CLT is to develop learners’ communicative competence, where “meaning is paramount” (D. Li, 1998, p. 678). According to H. D. Brown (2000), “CLT is best understood as an approach, not method” (p. 266). Similarly, Richards and Rodgers (2014) indicated that “[b]oth American and British proponents typically described CLT as an approach” (p. 85), which refers to “theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching” (p. 22), rather than as a method, which refers to “a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning” (p. 3). This view is well expressed by the following researchers:

- The general principles of CLT are still widely accepted in language teaching today but have been interpreted and applied in a variety of ways. (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 81)

- Although the theory of communicative competence on which CLT is based is uniform, it is broad. As a result, what CLT looks like in classroom practices may not be uniform. (Hiep, 2007, p. 195)
- CLT has generated many different ways of understanding, descriptions, and uses, challenging what it actually means to classroom teachers. (Hiep, 2007, p. 193)
- In fact, in recent years the CLT framework has been challenged as different emphases have been brought to bear on it. (East, Doogan, & Bjorning-Gyde, 2007, p. 61)

In other words, the current situation is that CLT, and grammatical aspects within it, have been construed in various ways, and CLT in teaching practice differs according to the interpretation and understanding of teachers.

2.3.3. Form-focused instruction: Focus-on-form and Focus-on-forms

Despite the range of interpretations and practices of CLT, Randall (2007) argued that “present day CLT has moved from a primary concern with meaning to one that incorporates more attention to language form” (pp. 160-161), grounded on a belief that “knowledge of grammar is essential for clarity of communication in both the written and the spoken form” (Bade, 2008, p. 182). Thus, the strongest forms of CLT have been eschewed in favour of approaches that incorporate some systematic attention to grammatical form. Since the early 1990s, a number of researchers have supported the idea of incorporating grammar instruction into language teaching in some ways, noting the limitations of strong CLT based on an innatist paradigm (i.e., Krashen’s Input Hypothesis) (e.g., Lightbown & Pienemann, 1993; Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Long & Robinson, 1998; Nunan, 1991; Savignon, 1991). The concept of weak CLT raises issues regarding how to cover the grammatical aspects of language learning effectively.

Furthermore, empirical research and teaching experience have highlighted the reality that exclusive meaning-focused approaches have led to failure in meeting linguistic (i.e., grammatical) competence in the CLT environment (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Lightbown, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Lyster, 1994). In other words, there is a growing consensus that instruction is most effective when a focus on form is incorporated into meaning. Lightbown (1998), for instance, indicated positive results for

young francophone learners who experienced an integration of form and meaning in intensive English as a Second Language (ESL) classes. The learners reported that teachers who focused learners’ attention on specific language features during the interactions, without discouraging learners’ conversation, were more effective than those who never focused on form or who did so only in isolated grammar lessons. Also, Lyster (1994) investigated the effects of an instructional approach by improving learners’ sociolinguistic competence in French immersion classrooms. He included form-focused instruction, explicitly drawing students’ attention to the sociolinguistic distinction between the use of the second person singular pronouns *tu* and *vous*. The findings indicated that an explicit focus on form resulted in considerable improvement in the appropriate use of the forms. He concluded that selective grammatical explanation may help students learn forms that are redundant or infrequent in the language they are exposed to in communicative-based approaches. According to Lightbown and Pienemann (1993), incorporating grammatical aspects into communicative-based approaches may not only be beneficial but also essential according to different learning needs and contexts (see also Lightbown, 1998; Savignon, 1991). In this light, in the following section the notion of form-focused instruction is discussed.

2.3.3.1. Definition of form-focused instruction

Spada (1997) defined form-focused instruction (FFI) as “any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners’ attention to language either implicitly or explicitly,” including “the direct teaching of language (e.g., through grammatical rules) and/or reactions to learners’ errors (e.g., CF)” (p. 73). It is distinguished from focus-on-meaning (FonM), exemplified in strong CLT, “where there is no attempt to attend to linguistic form at all” (Ellis, 2001b, p. 15). FFI implies both structure-based approaches and primarily meaning-focused approaches to teaching linguistic forms (Ellis, 2001b).

Long (1991) distinguished two types of FFI as follows: focus-on-forms (FonFS) and focus-on-form (FonF). The former teaches discrete linguistic forms isolated from context, as in the traditional approach to grammar teaching and some forms of weak CLT, whereas the latter teaches grammatical rules incidentally and implicitly with a brief explanation in communicative activities. According to Long’s definition of FFI, PPP may fit the FonFS model because, as previously noted, PPP primarily involves

explaining the pre-selected grammar rules followed by intensive practice. The main characteristics of FonF are that “attention to forms arises *incidentally* in response to communicative needs” (Ellis, 2001b, p. 15, my emphasis) in meaning-focused activities. In other words, the teacher focuses primarily on meaning (i.e., language in actual use) but draws the students’ attention to grammatical rules and corrects errors as they arise in the context of language in use. While developing communicative skills, learners improve their knowledge and use of particular grammatical features (Lightbown & Spada, 2008).

Ellis (2001b) asserted that FonFS primarily involves teaching the preselected grammar rules followed by intensive practice, which is “evident in the traditional approach to grammar teaching” (p. 14). Also, *planned* FonF, like FonFS, involves intensive instruction, in which learners have “the opportunity to attend to a single, preselected form many times” (p. 16) but, unlike FonFS, the chief focus is placed on meaning rather than linguistic elements. *Incidental* FonF, on the other hand, draws students’ attention to a wide range of linguistic forms in an incidental and transitory way during communicative activities mainly focusing on meaning-centred contexts (see also Ellis, Loewen, & Basturkmen, 1999).

2.3.3.2. Rationale for form-focused instruction

Schmidt (1990) argued that conscious noticing in input leads to intake, and although noticing does not necessarily guarantee L2 acquisition, it plays a vital role in the process of acquisition. In other words, in order to facilitate acquisition, “learners must consciously notice forms (and the meanings these forms realize) in the input” (Ellis, 2001b, p. 7). Furthermore, Schmidt (1990) indicated that incidental learning can take place when a task requires noticing relevant language forms in the input process, stating that adults can “learn incidentally (without trying) when task demands force attention on specific information” (p. 16). In this light, it can be said that “FFI can aid acquisition by drawing learners’ attention to forms in the input” (Ellis, 2001b, p. 8).

Another theoretical perspective that supports FFI relates to the comprehensible output hypothesis proposed by Swain (1998), which claims, based on the idea that understanding and producing are different, that comprehensible input alone is not enough for L2 acquisition: that is, output also plays a part in successful acquisition. In

the classroom context, “learners need the opportunity for pushed *output*... in order to develop advanced levels of grammatical competence” (Fotos & Ellis, 1991, pp. 609-610, emphasis in original). Thus, it is necessary for teachers to create conditions for comprehensible output that “stretches the learner’s competence through the need to express an idea in language that is accurate and appropriate” (Ellis, 2001a, p. 136). In other words, learners should be pushed to produce output by attempting to speak and write (Johnson, 2001; Randall, 2007).

In addition, according to Long and Robinson (1998), FonF is motivated by Long’s (1983a, 1983b) Interaction Hypothesis, which claims that acquisition in L2 takes place through communicative interaction between learners and other interlocutors and negotiation for meaning when misunderstandings occur (see also H. D. Brown, 2000; Ellis, 2005; Fotos & Ellis, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998; Randall, 2007). Long suggested that “comprehensible input is a *necessary* condition for first or second language acquisition” (1983a, p. 191, emphasis in original), but “it is most effective when it is modified through the negotiation of meaning” (Ellis, 1997, p. 47). Long (1983a) claimed that linguistic and conversational adjustments (e.g., comprehension checks, clarification requests) play a crucial role in Second Language Acquisition (SLA): the adjustments promote comprehension of input, and comprehensible input promotes acquisition, and this relationship can deduce a conclusion that the adjustments promote acquisition.

2.3.3.3. Task-Based Language Teaching

With regard to FonF approaches, among recent trends in L2 teaching increasing numbers of researchers and teachers have paid attention to Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) as a specific realisation of CLT. This is an approach using tasks “as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 174). Tasks here refer to “meaning-based activities closely related to learners’ actual communicative needs” (Klapper, 2003, p. 35). Skehan (1996) regarded a task as “an activity in which meaning is primary, there is some sort of relationship to the real world, task completion has some priority, and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome” (p. 38). Task-based curricula are “designed to provide learners with maximum opportunity to use language for a purpose” (Savignon, 2002, p. 4).

According to Skehan (1996), there are two forms of the task-based approach: One is a strong form, which claims that “tasks should be the *unit* of language teaching, and that everything else should be subsidiary,” and the other is a weak form, which argues that “tasks are a vital part of language instruction, but that they are embedded in a more complex pedagogic context” (p. 39, emphasis in original). He asserted that the latter version is “clearly very close to general communicative language teaching” (p. 39). Klapper (2003) indicated that TBLT can be seen “as an offshoot from or a development of CLT, especially the ‘strong’ version” in terms of placing emphasis on sufficient comprehensible input for language acquisition; however, unlike strong CLT, it covers grammatical elements in such a way that “initial fluency work should lead gradually to accuracy-focussed activities” (p. 35) – a FonF approach. Klapper went on to explain the common elements of a task-based lesson: pre-task (involving the teacher’s introduction to topic and task), task (creating “an actual need for language to be used and for learners to identify what language they need in order to perform the task”), and post-task (gradually moving to “a greater focus on form with supported consciousness-raising and analysis and practice”) (p. 37). Thus, grammar is attended to, in a FonF way, in the post-task phase.

2.3.4. Three important factors in classroom activities

2.3.4.1. Grammar teaching

The operationalisation of FFI, as stated above, has been realised in several ways. Another way of viewing this is to consider grammar teaching in terms of two distinct emphases, which relate to implicit/integrated versus explicit/isolated approaches to teaching grammar. Doughty and Varela (1998), Long (1991), and Long and Robinson (1998) have advocated abandonment of explicit grammar teaching and placed emphasis on implicit grammar-based instruction in a meaningful context. Doughty and Varela (1998), for instance, asserted that teachers should incidentally draw students’ attention to linguistic items in a way whereby the primary focus can remain on meaning and the intervention should not discourage communication. In contrast, DeKeyser (1998), Littlewood (1981a), Lightbown (1998), and Lyster (1994) have claimed that, for certain learners and certain classroom environments, implicit teaching of grammar is not enough. Lyster (1994) asserted that selective grammatical explanation may help students learn forms that are redundant or infrequent in the language they are exposed to

in meaning-focused approaches. Ellis (2005) also stressed that in some cases such as in “internalizing abstract rules,” explicit grammar teaching is clearly beneficial to learners (p. 33).

Another way of characterising this distinction in grammar teaching is to use the terms inductive versus deductive instruction. In the former approach, learners have opportunities to discover the rules on their own before having their attention brought to the rule, while, in the latter approach, learners are taught rules directly by teachers before language use (Ellis, 2001b; Nunan, 1991). Nunan (1991) indicated that traditional structure-based instruction has emphasised deductive learning. McKay (1987) maintained that while inductive learning would be most productive for children, adults, particularly academically oriented adults, may expect teachers to explain grammatical rules (pp. 5-7). Ausubel (1964) further stressed this point. Despite the apparent benefits of inductive learning for young children, the inductive process of discovery learning is “exceedingly wasteful and unnecessary when we deal with older learners who are perfectly capable of comprehending abstract syntactic propositions” (p. 422). In other words, deductive learning of grammatical rules is arguably more efficient for adults because “no time is wasted in discovering, and both the generalization and the experience of applying it to appropriate exemplars are transferable from the very beginning of practice” (p. 422).

Based on the theoretical assertions of McKay (1987) and Ausubel (1964), deductive grammar instruction would presumably be more effective for learners of Korean in the New Zealand tertiary teaching context because the learners are “academically oriented adult” students.

2.3.4.2. Corrective feedback

Another controversial issue in FFI is how to give CF. Broadly speaking, there are two aspects to consider in error correction. One is when and how often teachers should provide CF. H. D. Brown (2000) indicated that if errors are corrected too often, this would demotivate learners from attempts at speaking, while if errors are uncorrected even when the message students try to convey is not clear, this would result in reinforcing the errors. Thus, teachers need to develop an intuition for determining the

necessity for correction and appropriate timing when students make a mistake (H. D. Brown, 2000).

The other aspect pertaining to CF is how teachers should correct students’ errors. Parallel to the methods for grammar teaching, errors can be corrected explicitly or implicitly. Some authors have more specifically distinguished types of CF. For instance, with the main purpose of measuring the pedagogical effectiveness of CF in classroom settings, Lyster and Saito (2010) divided CF types into three and compared explicit correction (i.e., explicit feedback that clearly indicates and corrects learners’ deviant utterances), recasts (i.e., implicit feedback that reformulates learners’ deviant utterances), and prompts (i.e., various signals that prompt learners to self-correct their deviant utterances), considering feedback types in terms of reformulation as well as explicitness and implicitness:

[B]y prompting, a teacher provides cues for learners to draw on their own resources to self-repair, whereas by providing explicit correction or recasting, a teacher both initiates and completes a repair within a single move. (pp. 268-269)

Doughty and Varela (1998) suggested that teachers should offer CF implicitly during students’ activity times in pairs or in small groups. Furthermore, Yoshida (2010) indicated the strength and weakness of implicit CF as follows:

Implicit CF, such as recasts, is useful for providing correct forms without disturbing the flow of interactions and intimidating learners by not explicitly pointing out their errors. However, it can sometimes hinder students from noticing CF or correct forms. (p. 309)

A number of studies (e.g., Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009) have revealed the effectiveness of explicit error correction over implicit feedback. Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen (2009), for example, claimed that explicit CF was more effective than implicit because of the clear nature of “meta-discourse” (p. 92), as well as raising learners’ metalinguistic awareness of corrected forms. Furthermore, Ellis et al.’s (2006) experimental research revealed that explicit error correction in the form of metalinguistic information is generally more effective than implicit CF in L2 learning. MacKey et al. (2007) also supported the effectiveness of explicit CF, noting that learners are more likely to understand the teachers’ intentions when they explicitly correct errors.

2.3.4.3. Group work and cooperative learning

In connection with effective teaching approaches based on the aims of CLT, many researchers in L2 teaching have indicated the importance of learner-centred instruction, which focuses on learners' learning needs (e.g., Carter, 2006; Ghaith & Kawtharani, 2006; Jacobs, 1998; Jacobs & McCafferty, 2006). In learner-centred approaches, teachers share with students their responsibilities for learning in the classroom. While teachers are “the locus of control for teaching and learning” and they are responsible for a teaching process encouraging students' participation, students are “active agents of their own learning” and they have primary responsibility for learning (Carter, 2006, p. 19). Cooperative learning through group work activities is a good way to empower students to be responsible for their learning. H. D. Brown (2007) defined “group work” as “a generic term covering a multiplicity of techniques in which two or more students are assigned a task that involves collaboration and self-initiated language” (p. 224).

Many researchers have highlighted various potential advantages of cooperative learning using small group work (e.g., Ghaith & Kawtharani, 2006; Jacobs, 1998; Jacobs & McCafferty, 2006; Long & Proter, 1985). One of the benefits of cooperative learning in group work was that students could have multiple opportunities to talk to one another (H. D. Brown, 2007; Jacobs & McCafferty, 2006). Long and Proter (1985), for instance, compared the average time that students spoke in group work to that in a teacher-fronted lesson. The results showed that the students spoke one quarter of a 50 minute lesson in groups of three. On the other hand, under the teacher-fronted teaching, the students spoke only 30 seconds during the same period because only one person talked at a time in this teaching mode.

In order to better understand the effectiveness of cooperative learning in group work, it is useful to consider group work against the backdrop of sociocultural theory, which is based on the Vygotskyian notion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The Russian psychologist, Lev Vygotsky (1978) explained ZPD as follows:

It is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (p. 86)

Vygotsky’s theory suggests that learning takes place when a learner engages in a social activity in his or her ZPD, “in which the learner is capable of performing at a higher level” because of an interlocutor’s support (Lightbown & Spada, 2008, p. 47). Lightbown and Spada (2008) explained that cognitive processes are tightly connected with speaking, which means that “people can gain control over their mental processes as a consequence of internalizing what others say to them and what they say to others” (p. 47). From a sociocultural perspective, learners develop their language abilities through social interaction, including collaborative activities such as paired and group work (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

Another benefit of cooperative group work activities is that students can have opportunities to use languages that they have learned and to complete a task in a nonthreatening learning environment (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Fukai (2000) suggested that students are more likely to feel comfortable when interacting with others in paired or group work. H. D. Brown (2007) also indicated that group work generates interaction in a less stressful and affective climate, which increases student motivation. It also promotes each member of the group to assume their own responsibility and leads to the development of their learning autonomy. Furthermore, Ghaith and Kawtharani (2006) emphasised that cooperative learning in groups could increase motivation, promote active involvement, enhance social skills, and boost learning achievement “in a stress-reduced and supportive environment” (p. 76). According to Dörnyei (2001), a cooperative learning approach is “superior to most traditional forms of instruction in terms of producing learning gains and student achievement” (p. 40).

It should be noted, however, that it seems difficult to create a supportive and positive learning environment in a large class such as a lecture. Hiep (2007), for instance, indicated that it is difficult to use of pair work and group work in a large size of English class in Vietnam. T. Bell (2005) noted that “lecturing may be effective in a history course but not in a beginning foreign language course” (p. 259). Moore (2009) also claimed that in a lecture “student attention soon wanes and turns to more stimulating and often undesirable activities” (p. 147). Moreover, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) pointed out that learners are more willing to participate in an activity when they are working in a “psychologically safe classroom climate,” in which they feel that they belong to the class and are supported (pp. 110-111). These assertions imply that it is not

so helpful to provide communicative activities in a large class. Therefore, teachers should take a class size into consideration when preparing for and teaching lessons.

Another aspect to be noted here is that although there are specific advantages in cooperative learning in group work, in some educational contexts, such as Asian countries, students may have negative attitudes towards group work activities (e.g., M. Li, 2000). In this light, many students taking Korean in New Zealand have been observed to have Asian cultural or educational backgrounds (Choe, 2005), which means they might not favour group work.

2.3.5. Summary

The traditional Grammar Translation and Audiolingual teaching methods draw on a behaviourist-informed top-down teacher-dominated approach to grammar that may be labelled ‘FonFS,’ often ignoring the language learning process and the meaningful use of language. CLT, by moving away from a FonFS approach, at least in its stronger forms, has played a pivotal role in developing students’ communicative competence in a meaningful context. However, CLT has been applied and interpreted in a variety of ways. The strong version of CLT has often emphasised meaning with comprehensible input at the expense of grammar (a ‘FonM’ approach). The weak version of CLT has attempted to integrate forms within the CLT framework. Weak CLT should be understood in a wide sense in terms of ways of attention to explicit formal instruction: that is, the weakest version of CLT works like PPP (a ‘FonFS’ approach), while less weak versions integrate grammatical features into a wider programme of meaning-based language teaching (a ‘FonF’ approach). The concept of weak CLT contributes to fostering effective methods of grammar instruction in communicative-based approaches. In this connection, FonF makes use of the strengths of the communicative approach, while treating its limitations with grammatical instruction in the communicative learning environment. TBLT, as a recent operationalisation of FonF approaches, employs tasks, which are primarily meaning-based but can lead to accuracy-focussed activities (Klapper, 2003). Today, the communicative notion of language teaching and learning has changed. There is general agreement that linguistic aspects should be taught in classroom practice in some ways, although there have been different perspectives about effective teaching approaches, particularly in terms of grammar teaching, error correction, and group work.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review 1: Students’ learning needs and approaches to language teaching

This chapter has presented the notion of students’ beliefs and their learning needs, requiring the consideration of individual factors, and has provided an overview of major teaching approaches designed to foster L2 acquisition, along with three important aspects as classroom activities (i.e., grammar teaching, CF and group work). The next chapter reviews literature regarding crucial factors in L2 learning and teaching from the students’ and teachers’ perspectives.

Chapter 3. Crucial factors in L2 learning and teaching

3.1. Introduction

The purpose of this literature review chapter is, first, to present students' and teachers' beliefs about effective learning and teaching. Furthermore, fundamental factors which affect teachers' practices such as their beliefs and contextual constraints are taken into account to understand the reality of the teaching environment. Finally, the literature review clarifies students' and teachers' perspectives on their roles in effective L2 acquisition. In connection with teachers' roles, the chapter further considers their positive and negative influences and the ways by which they can motivate students to assume responsibility for their learning process more actively.

3.2. Students' and teachers' beliefs about effective L2 learning and teaching

Previous studies have highlighted that teaching practices formed by teachers' experiences and beliefs do not always necessarily match the students' expectations and preferences for language learning. Nunan (1988) noted that “methodology, which includes learning activities and materials, is generally the area where there is the greatest potential for conflict between teacher and learner” (p. 6). Similarly, H. Kim (2003) indicated that the teaching methods observed in her research, which comprised instructional activities, group work patterns, and instructional modes, did not match Korean learners' subjective needs. She concluded that these areas should be developed in New Zealand tertiary Korean language courses.

If teaching approaches were to neglect the learning context, there would be unexpected conflicts between the teacher and students in the classroom (Oxford & Anderson, 1995). In other words, “[i]f teacher behaviours do not match with student expectations, learner motivation and a teacher's credibility may be diminished” (Schulz, 2001, p. 256). Many other researchers (e.g., Banno, 2003; Biggs, 1998; A. Brown, 2009; M. Li, 2000; Schulz, 1996, 2001) have supported this point that a mismatch between learners' expectations and pedagogy in an L2 classroom can have negative consequences, such as student confusion, demotivation, and dropout. Therefore, it is crucial for teachers to

note that L2 learners may have different attitudes toward grammar teaching and communicative approaches because of “the language instruction methods in their home countries” (Loewen et al., 2009, p. 102). They may also hold different beliefs about the effectiveness of grammar instruction and CF.

One aspect to be noted is that because the primary aim of this study is to discover students’ and teachers’ beliefs about communicative approaches and structure-based approaches, this literature review does not speculate on which CLT version (weak or strong) or which FFI approach (FonFS, planned FonF, or incidental FonF) is more favoured in terms of how to integrate grammar in language teaching or where grammar fits into communicative approaches (but see Chapter 2 for an exploration of these different approaches and emphases). In addition, some studies in this review did not clearly indicate how they treat grammar teaching (i.e., as FonFS or FonF). Thus, this chapter, using the terms that previous studies employed, regards communicative approaches rather broadly as communication-focused classroom activities using paired or small group work and structure-based approaches as grammar teaching or grammar-focused instruction.

3.2.1. Beliefs about communicative approaches

Communicative approaches to language teaching start from the premise that L2 teaching should move away from the “traditional Anglocentric assumption that the main purpose of learning foreign languages is to broaden the mind” towards more explicit attention on learners “learning languages because they needed to *use* them in an ever-shrinking world” (Benson & Voller, 1997, p. 11, emphasis in original). Teachers and students may well begin from the assumption that they are involved in language learning with a view to engaging successfully in future real-world communicative interactions, but may differ in their perceptions of how best to get there.

Some L2 learners in previous studies have revealed that they prefer communicative approaches and want to improve communicative skills rather than learning grammar. Loewen et al. (2009), for instance, indicated that learners of English as an L2 had more negative attitudes toward grammar instruction and error correction and had a stronger preference for communication than other L2 learners. They suggest that a possible reason for the students’ greater enthusiasm for communication is “greater amounts of

previous grammar instruction” (p. 101). Likewise, Richards and Gravatt (1998) demonstrated that L2 learners in a New Zealand university favoured “contemporary approaches towards language teaching, with an emphasis on communication skills rather than on translation or grammar study” (p. 17). Many of the students also believed “speaking and listening were the skills which should be stressed (70%)” (p. 14).

Previous research, however, has also shown that potential clashes between teachers’ and learners’ perceptions of effective teaching are evident in the communicatively-oriented classroom. M. Li (2000) provided an example of disagreements between Chinese students and Western teachers of English in a Chinese tertiary context, using semi-structured interviews. The findings showed that the struggles resulted from imposing Western teaching methods on the Chinese culture of learning “without considering the cultural compatibilities and contextual appropriateness” (pp. 291-292). In the Chinese educational environment, students have been accustomed to the behaviourist teacher-fronted classroom context in which “students often feel negatively interdependent with one another” (Jacobs, McCafferty, & DaSilva Iddings, 2006, p. 14). The Western English teachers, on the other hand, could not understand the students’ culture of learning, nor could they see the point of the students’ expectations, because the students did not openly express their own perceptions of Western teaching methods to the teachers (not a surprising attitude in Chinese culture). Thus, misunderstandings between the two parties created a deep rift. The teachers continued to focus on the learner’s participation in group work, discussions, debates, and games in their teaching practices, while the students kept negatively responding to these teaching approaches.

In order to break the invisible boundary, M. Li’s (2000) study proposed building a positive learning environment in “synergetic culture” (p. 297), by understanding the cultural differences between teachers and students. It is important for teachers to consider what they expect students to achieve from their teaching. Furthermore, teachers should consider that “although more and more teachers are adopting a communicative approach, learners are often the ones who need to be convinced of the effectiveness of communicative methods” (Bade, 2008, pp. 181-182). Also, as A. Brown (2009) suggested, in order to “bridge the gap between their perceptions of effective teaching and those of their students,” teachers should “share the rationale behind their teaching practices” (p. 57). In other words, if teachers believe

communicative approaches are crucial in L2 acquisition, they may need to help students understand the effectiveness of these teaching approaches.

Furthermore, H. Kim (2003) revealed that many students learning Korean in a New Zealand university prioritized working in a group over working in the whole class or on their own, whereas whole class activities were most frequently observed in the classroom. One aspect, however, should be noted here. The students in H. Kim's (2003) research highly valued grammar-focused teaching and enjoyed learning grammar at the same time. The findings indicated that the Korean learners favoured structure-focused instruction over a communicative approach: that is, they most preferred pronunciation practices and pattern drills and least liked role-plays (which were used as an example of communicative approaches in her research). There was, however, no explanation about why students preferred grammar instruction while in the findings they had a favourable attitude toward group work. It would appear important, therefore, to further investigate which teaching approaches students of Korean in New Zealand favour more, and the reasons for their preferences.

3.2.2. Beliefs about structure-based approaches

Mitchell (2000) noted that “[t]here is much general discussion for and against grammar pedagogy on *a priori* grounds” (p. 290) and that “applied linguists are not at present in a position to make firm research-based prescriptions about the detail of ‘what works’ in FL grammar pedagogy” (p. 296). As T. Bell (2005) stated, there is still uncertainty about effective methods of grammar instruction in L2 teaching and learning. Teachers inevitably make pedagogical choices based on their own understandings about where grammar fits into a communicative pedagogy. At the same time, students hold their own preferences for grammar instruction derived from their beliefs about effective language learning, learning experiences, culture, and so on.

Grammar teaching and CF have also been the areas of a potential clash between students' and teachers' perspectives. A. Brown (2009), for instance, showed mismatches in students' and teachers' ideals of effective L2 instruction. His study aimed to identify and compare the beliefs of first- and second-year students and their teachers regarding effective foreign language teaching. The results revealed that the students preferred a grammar-based approach. In particular, first-year students tended to

prefer discrete grammar instruction and explicit CF. In contrast, the teachers favoured more communicative approaches in classroom activities. The teachers “seemed more hesitant about explicit correction and grammar instruction than their students were, and the students demonstrated more hesitancy toward group/pair work than their teachers did” (p. 56). Similarly, in Schulz’s (1996, 2001) studies, students expressed stronger favourable beliefs about grammar- and correction-focused instruction in L2 acquisition programmes; whereas teachers highly valued communicative approaches for successful L2 learning.

Several studies (e.g., A. Brown, 2009; Loewen et al., 2009; Schulz, 1996, 2001) have reported that language learners perceive that traditional language teaching had a positive effect on their language learning, and have a strong preference for grammar study and error correction in L2 acquisition programmes and express positive attitudes toward explicit instruction. In this connection, Brookes and Grundy (1990) indicated that students who had not experienced group activities or had disappointing experiences of interaction with others may believe that a teacher-centred approach is the best way to learn an L2. A point that needs to be stressed here is that although students of L2 value the usefulness of grammar instruction, they may not necessarily like the ways that grammar is taught in the classroom (e.g., Loewen et al., 2009; Schulz, 1996). Loewen et al. (2009) indicated that many foreign language learners in their research held negative opinions on learning grammar such as “it’s boring, tedious, monotonous, dry, difficult, confusing, and complicated” because of teaching approaches, and they did not like learning it (pp. 99-100).

With regard to the roles of CF, Yoshida (2010) revealed that there were two discrepancies between teachers’ and students’ perspectives on error correction. The first disagreement was found in the teachers’ intentions and the learners’ perceptions of the CF. Although teachers frequently used implicit CF based on “their perception of solving problems as a way of avoiding social strain” (p. 310), students did not always notice that their errors were corrected. The other discrepancy related to “the learners’ perceptions of CF and the teachers’ understanding of the learners’ perceptions of the CF” (p. 308). The findings indicated that the teachers may “misinterpret the learners’ responses after their CF” (p. 309). The learners were, on the other hand, reluctant to reveal that they did not understand their teacher’s CF and they preferred not to

“potentially embarrass the teachers by making it apparent that the CF had been inadequate” (p. 310).

As Fukai (2000) noted, embarrassment was one of the negative factors which most caused insecurity and anxiety in learning an L2. Thus, it is important for teachers to consider sensitively “learner’s language ego fragility, anxiety level, confidence, and willingness to accept correction” (H. D. Brown, 2007, p. 350) to create a pleasant learning environment where students feel comfortable to receive CF in the classroom. Regarding teacher beliefs in CF, Mori’s (2011) research suggests that teachers’ prior experiences both as language learners and as language teachers could affect the ways in which they correct errors. The findings revealed that when deciding whether they corrected errors and how they gave CF, the teachers of Japanese partially considered local contextual factors such as “instructional focus, time constraints, the frequency of occurrence of errors, student personality, and the level of student communication ability” (p. 464).

3.2.3. Summary

The previous literature suggests that when teaching approaches neglect learning contexts, unexpected conflicts could ensue between the teacher and students in the classroom and learning outcomes could turn poor. Moreover, the discrepancies between students’ perceptions and teaching practices could lead to demotivation in learning and consequent dropout. In particular, the previous studies have revealed that learners may have different perspectives from their teachers on teaching approaches.

3.3. Fundamental considerations relating to actual teaching practice

In order to facilitate an effective learning environment, it is important to understand not only students’ learning needs and expectations but also teachers’ beliefs in the context of their local teaching situation, which could have a strong effect on the pedagogy that teachers employ. In this light, some fundamental aspects, such as teachers’ perspectives on effective learning and teaching, whether teachers behave as they believe or say, and contextual realities, are considered in this section.

3.3.1. The influence of teachers' beliefs on their teaching practice

With regard to the approaches used in actual teaching, it is useful to consider the attitudes and assumptions that inform that teaching. This is because the ways in which teachers teach are subconsciously influenced by their own prior experiences with language learning and teaching (Batstone, 2006; Carter, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014; Willing, 1989). Richards and Lockhart (1994) asserted that “beliefs and values serve as the background to much of the teachers’ decision making and action” (p. 30). For instance, the teachers who felt that improving communicative abilities is crucial in language learning and that their learners could learn L2 most effectively by communicative approaches would try to stimulate interaction between students by providing various paired or group work activities. H. D. Brown (2000) elucidated the influence of teachers’ beliefs about language learning and teaching on their pedagogy as follows:

Your understanding of the components of language determines to a large extent how you teach a language... Your understanding of how the learner learns will determine your philosophy of education, your teaching style, your approach, methods, and classroom techniques. (pp. 6-7)

In addition, Watzke (2007) noted that “increased experience engaging with learners, building teacher-learner relationships, and reflecting on teaching helps new teachers sustain development of a pedagogical knowledge base” (p. 73).

Furthermore, Clark and Peterson (1986) noted that teachers’ prior language learning experience while observing their teachers influence their beliefs. If the learning experience was positive, the teachers would positively reflect the teaching methodology; if not, they would try to avoid those ways and proceed in a different direction (Carter, 2008). Similarly, Mori (2011) indicated that teachers’ previous learning and professional experiences strongly affected their decision-making on correcting errors. In addition, as Schulz (2001) noted, teachers’ belief systems could be different depending on their “preparation and in-service development, and their own professional experience in observing student success rates with particular forms of instruction” (p. 255).

Some researchers, however, have argued that teachers’ stated beliefs do not always coincide with their actual practices in the classroom. Nunan (1988) indicated that “there

is evidence that teachers do not, in fact, always do what they say or think they do” (p. 32). Bernaus and Gardner’s (2008) research, for example, indicated that there was disagreement between teachers’ and students’ perspectives on the frequency with which teachers use various strategies to teach English: the teachers claimed to use 12 innovative strategies, that is, “strategies that most teachers would classify as innovative in intent, given that they are student-centered, devoted to communicative interaction, and stress student autonomy in the language learning process” (p. 389), while the students perceived only six of them in their classes. In other words, the findings revealed that “although the teachers varied in the extent to which they claimed to have their students work in small groups, these differences were not recognized by the students” (p. 398).

Furthermore, teachers’ beliefs may not necessarily parallel their practices because of contextual factors such as time, examinations, institutional policy, and so on (Borg, 2006). Polat (2009) asserted that “teacher belief systems are often reported to affect and guide teachers’ actual instructional practices” but they are also “inherently situated within broader sociocultural realities” (p. 230). The findings from his research revealed a mismatch between teachers’ perceptions and actual classroom practice. Although the teachers believed that they used “inductive, task-based, communicative, and similar contemporary teaching techniques” (p. 237) in their teaching, classroom observations revealed that “techniques, skills, tasks, and exercises were heavily based on the traditional techniques” (p. 239) and contemporary techniques were very rarely used.

Similarly, Phipps and Borg’s (2009) research revealed that “a number of tensions between the teachers’ stated beliefs and their practices, mainly related to inductive and contextualised presentation of grammar, meaningful practice and oral group-work” (p. 383). Their research findings indicated, for example, that a teacher who believes in the importance of group activities actually uses teacher-class interaction rather than group work. This is because the teacher’s previous experience with the class has influenced actual teaching. In this light, Phipps and Borg (2009) noted that “teachers’ stated beliefs may reflect propositional knowledge... rather than the practical knowledge... which actually influences their teaching” (p. 386). They concluded that the ways in which teachers actually teach are primarily influenced more strongly by contextual factors

such as “student expectations and preferences, and classroom management concerns” (p. 387) rather than by their philosophy pertaining to effective instruction.

3.3.2. The reality of L2 teaching

A number of studies have demonstrated that actual classroom practices have been far more complicated than merely adopting principles based on beliefs. With regard to the reality of teaching approaches, Richards and Rodgers (2001, 2014) indicated that contemporary teaching materials for foreign language teaching at the tertiary level have often reflected grammar-translation and audiolingual principles. Furthermore, it is worth noting that, despite criticism against Grammar Translation and Audiolingual methods, CLT’s reputation, and “CLT-focused” government policies, structure-based approaches are still widely used in actual teaching practices in many countries, particularly in Asian countries (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Hasanova & Shadieva, 2008; Johnson, 2001; D. Li, 1998; Liao, 2004; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014).

In many Asian educational institutions, as Politzer and McGroarty (1985) indicated, “rote memorization, translation of texts, or recognition of correct grammatical forms in reading” are often observed, and there is not much interaction between learners (p. 114). For example, Cheung (2001) noted that the learning activities in secondary school English classes in Hong Kong were “generally teacher-centred and form-accuracy-oriented” (p. 55), and Nishino and Watanabe (2008) mentioned that English instruction in Japanese secondary school classrooms has been conducted through structure-based instruction. Similarly, Hasanova and Shadieva (2008) indicated that local teachers in Uzbekistan were still utilising traditional Grammar Translation and Audiolingual methods in teacher-fronted classrooms despite the national curriculum for L2 teaching, which aims to develop communicative fluency through communicative approaches.

Furthermore, it would seem that language teaching inside and outside Korea has been influenced by the general educational teaching strategies of the country. In these traditional teaching styles, teachers are the centre of the education process and act as sole decision makers for the content of classes and as the sole providers of knowledge, whereas students are passive in classroom activities, with class discussion and group activities rarely utilised (Flaitz, 2003; M. Kim, 2003). D. Li (1998) stated that Korean

teachers of English often used “the grammar-translation method, the audiolingual method, or a combination of the two” in class (p. 685). Likewise, teaching Korean as an L2 inside and outside Korea also seemed to have adopted structure-based approaches, the focus of which is on repetition and drills (Chung, 2004, pp. 25-29). In contrast, Choe Yoon (2004) revealed that teaching Korean in New Zealand may differ, claiming that her instruction was based on a meaning-based curriculum. Her assertion was, however, based on her assumption and did not provide evidence of her teaching, which suggests a need for further clarification regarding teaching approaches of Korean in New Zealand contexts.

With regard to teaching materials of the Korean language in New Zealand, currently there are no specific textbooks and no other materials that have been developed based on the learning setting. The ‘Integrated Korean’ series published by University of Hawai’i Press in 2001 has been used in the university that is the focus of this study: Integrated Korean Beginning 1 and 2 textbooks and workbooks, Integrated Korean Intermediate 1 and 2 textbooks and workbooks, and Integrated Korean Advanced Intermediate 1 textbook have been used in Stages I to III. N. Kim (2005) reviewed the series, particularly “Advanced Intermediate 1 and 2,” indicating that there are shortcomings such as: too much content to finish in two semesters of instruction (it was intended that they would be completed), too difficult for students to digest new words and useful expressions within the given time, lack of authenticity in the model dialogues, a lot of mechanical activities which lack creativity and meaningfulness, and lack of systematic connection between language skills. S. Kim (2005) asserted that the textbooks seem unsuitable for non-heritage English speakers especially at intermediate level because the grammar is introduced in the way of memorising idioms on the assumption that learners are Korean heritage students who are quite fluent in spoken Korean language.

The above opinions on the textbooks suggest that, if Korean teachers rely heavily on the textbooks when teaching, this may be problematic because they are made especially for university students in the US (S. Kim, 2005) and “the course content is determined entirely by an external author who is not in complete harmony with the needs of students, the school, and the community” (Moore, 2009, p. 146). Another weakness of the “textbook teaching,” Moore (2009) pointed out, is that:

The lectures can get extremely boring, because the teacher usually is lecturing about the material students were assigned to read. ...If no new content is added to the lesson, students tend to either read the text or listen to the lectures—seldom both. (p. 146)

Thus, it is crucial to find out whether the textbooks match expectations and needs of students of Korean in New Zealand.

3.3.3. Contextual factors

Actual classroom implementation of perceived effective practices may differ depending on contextual realities such as varied cultural, educational, and local factors. T. Bell (2005) noted that “every teaching and learning situation is context specific” (p. 259). Richards and Lockhart (1994) argued that what teachers and students believe about language teaching and learning will be deeply embedded in their cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, Richards and Rodgers (2001, 2014) asserted that the starting point of considering teaching approaches should be the multifaceted learning context constituted by the culture, politics, local institution, and so on. In this light, Bax (2003) claimed a context specific approach in which teachers should first consider the learning context, including students’ culture of learning and varied needs, and then decide a suitable teaching method. In other words, different contexts for teaching require different needs, so insightful consideration should be given to the needs of various contexts in language classrooms before pedagogical approaches actually occur (Canagarajah, 2002).

East, Doogan, and Bjorning-Gyde (2007), for example, advocated that a ‘fusion’ model would be appropriate to teach Chinese students English in the New Zealand context, which incorporates the Chinese methodological approaches into the Western culture of teaching approaches, CLT. Furthermore, Bjorning-Gyde, Doogan and East (2008) suggested that English teachers should understand Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) and integrate the CHC teaching approach into CLT paradigms in the Chinese teaching context. CHC implies the Chinese cultural model of learning, which focuses on “mastery of knowledge and the learning of rules and meanings by heart, with the teacher being central as the transmitter of this knowledge” (East et al., 2007, p. 63). They noted that “a combination of the CHC approach and the CLT approach leads to more efficient teaching and learning and higher levels of fluency than a single reliance on either approach” (p. 81) due to their complementary cooperation. The above

arguments suggest that it is essential for teachers to be consciously aware of students' needs and their cultural backgrounds in multicultural teaching and learning contexts. As claimed by Holliday (1994), teaching approaches should be eclectic “in the use of a cocktail of different methods where this is appropriate” (p. 165) in order to meet a specific context and the needs of learners.

As previously noted, teachers have been continuously adopting structure-based approaches in teaching practices and textbooks in spite of a CLT-based national curriculum (e.g., Hasanova & Shadieva, 2008; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). There are some acceptable reasons for this. Nishino and Watanabe (2008) stated that structure-based approaches may be relatively easy to use in the classroom regardless of teachers' language competence. The approaches have also been attributed to little real need for communicative skills of English outside the classroom in Japan (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). Canagarajah (2002) also asserted that a structure-based approach might be most suitable for the learning environment in Sri Lanka, noting the fact that students lacked communicative fluency in English, which was not an issue because they used English mostly for literate and formal functions in largely educational and institutional domains and rarely had opportunities to communicate in English outside the classroom. Furthermore, Hasanova and Shadieva (2008) suggested the following reasons for the reality of structure-based instruction: insufficient financial support and salaries for teachers, inadequate teacher training, and a lack of proper teaching materials and equipment.

In addition, as compared with communicative aspects, tests of grammar rules and of translations are easy to construct and can be objectively scored (H. D. Brown, 2000). Therefore, “many standardized tests of foreign language still do not attempt to tap into communicative abilities, so students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations, and rote exercises” (H. D. Brown, 2000, p. 16). Schulz (1996) explained that students' positive attitudes toward explicit grammar study may be “strongly influenced by the grammar-based curriculum and discrete-point testing methods” (p. 348). It should be noted, however, as indicated before, that students' positive attitudes toward explicit grammar study do not mean that they necessarily like the ways that grammar is taught. A. Brown (2009) suggested that in order to understand students' preferences for language teaching, not only students' previous experiences in

the L2 classroom but also prevalent pedagogies and assessment practices should be considered. According to D. Li (1998), if the goal of a language programme is developing communicative abilities, the same type of reformation should be followed in educational systems.

Horwitz (2013), stressing the phenomenon of “washback” which refers to “the impact that tests have on teaching and learning,” argued that, for instance, “teachers may tell students to use language communicatively and creatively, but if grades are based on grammatical accuracy, students quickly learn to spend their time studying grammar” (p. 217). In this light, Fink (2003) suggested that when designing a course, teachers should ensure that the learning goals, the teaching and learning activities, and the feedback and assessment “are integrated, that is, that they reflect and support each other” (pp. 64-65). In other words, if teachers wish to develop their students’ speaking skills, they should allow the students to “see the connections between oral tests, the course curriculum, and their grades” (Horwitz, 2013, p. 183). Furthermore, H. D. Brown (2007) stressed the importance of ensuring that students understand how they will be assessed in their courses, which affects their performance. The teacher should offer some preparation with appropriate and useful strategies for taking the test, which can help learners “allay some of their fears and put their best foot forward during a test” (p. 472). H. D. Brown also suggested that the test should be designed to assess what students studied in the course. In addition, it is also important to “make the test performance an intrinsically motivating experience through which a student will feel a sense of accomplishment and challenge” (p. 474).

3.3.4. Summary

Previous research has suggested that gaining some insight into teachers’ beliefs would help with understanding their actual teaching practices, and teachers may have diverse opinions about what constitutes effective language teaching and learning. Furthermore, teachers’ practices may differ from their propositional beliefs about effective teaching because of various contextual factors, such as students’ expectations and needs and contextual realities. It has also been demonstrated that actual classroom practices have been far more complicated than merely adopting the methods which teachers believe are effective. In particular, actual teaching practices and standardized tests of L2 have often reflected structure-based approaches in many countries despite criticism against the

traditional teaching methods, and CLT's reputation. Teachers should consider the washback effect, namely, that if their teaching and assessment predominantly involve linguistic aspects, students will believe they need grammar teaching. Finally, a government's language policy is not sufficient to assume actual classroom implementation of desired practices, because of contextual realities such as cultural, educational, and local demands, which are crucial to consider in understanding actual teaching practices.

3.4. Teachers' and students' roles in effective L2 acquisition

To better understand students' and teachers' roles in effective language learning and teaching, it is useful to look at what they believe about the roles and responsibilities of the other party as well as their own. This section provides some insight into teachers' important roles and their positive and negative influences on learning outcomes. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) noted that "everything teachers say or do and how they communicate and behave in the classroom may potentially influence student motivation in different ways" (pp. 28-29). It also presents students' expectations from teachers and teachers' beliefs about learners' roles in effective learning. Furthermore, it discusses how teachers can help students actively take their own responsibility for successful outcomes.

3.4.1. Teachers' roles in effective L2 acquisition

3.4.1.1. Important teachers' roles

The teacher is understandably one of the most important factors in successful L2 acquisition (e.g., Falout et al., 2009; Fukai, 2000; Griffiths, 2007; Holliday, 1994). As teachers decide what to teach and how to teach, it is the teacher's responsibility to develop effective teaching materials and methods in which the students' needs are initially considered (Holliday, 1994). Furthermore, Schulz (2001) pointed out that students "see the teacher as an expert knower whose role is to explain and provide feedback" (p. 255). Error correction is often considered "one of the things that students expect from their teachers" (Harmer, 2001, p. 59).

The teacher's roles are, however, not just limited to teaching aspects but also include supportive and motivational factors (Carter, 2006; Dörnyei, 2001; Wan, Low, & Li,

2011). Dörnyei (2001) argued teachers play multiple roles as “powerful *motivational socialisers*” (p. 35, emphasis in original). Banno’s (2003) research, for example, revealed that American, Chinese, and Japanese students expect an L2 teacher to be able to explain teaching points clearly, be approachable, present effective teaching methods, motivate students, and so forth. She added that an effective L2 teacher requires having “both pedagogical and interpersonal skills” (p. 344). In other words, teachers’ personalities, their relationships with students, their organisation of grouping patterns in the classroom, and so on can also contribute to fostering the positive involvement of students in the learning process (e.g., Carter, 2006; Dörnyei, 2001). Dörnyei (2001) clearly explained this point:

The motivational influence of the teachers is manifold, ranging from the effects of their personality and competence to their active socialising practices... In the position of group learners, teachers are also largely responsible for the development of group characteristics in the class, which in turn affect student motivation. (p. 79)

Wan et al. (2011) considered that the most important teachers’ roles are as provider (i.e., conveying knowledge in various ways or assisting students to learn), nurturer (i.e., a facilitator of personal growth and development), and interest arouser (i.e., entertainer and magnet attracting students’ attention). Furthermore, H. D. Brown (2007) noted that teachers’ roles are multifaceted, including the role of controller, director, manager, facilitator, and resource:

- controlling or creating the learning climate;
- keeping the learning process flowing smoothly and efficiently in class;
- planning, designing, and managing the course in the pedagogical process;
- facilitating the learning atmosphere to allow students to find their own pathways to success;
- providing appropriate advice and counsel when students require it. (pp. 214-215)

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) noted that “teachers naturally act as key social figures who affect the motivational quality of the learning process in positive or negative ways” (p. 28). They also highlighted that “[i]ndeed, almost everything a teacher does in the classroom has a motivational influence on students, which makes teacher behaviour a powerful ‘motivational tool’” (p. 109).

In addition, H. D. Brown (2007) noted that the teachers' roles should reflect learners' language proficiency levels. He claimed that, as beginning learners "have little or no prior knowledge of the target language, the teacher (and accompanying techniques and materials) becomes a central determiner in whether students accomplish their goals" (p. 112). Furthermore, the beginners are "highly dependent on the teacher for models of language, and so a teacher-centred or teacher-fronted classroom is appropriate for some of your classroom time" (p. 113). The teacher teaching intermediate levels, however, is "no longer the only initiator of language. ... More student-student interaction can now take place in pairs, small groups, and whole-class activity" (p. 125), whereas when teaching advanced levels, the teacher's role should focus on creating effective learning opportunities, where students are predominantly initiators of their learning in the classroom (p. 128).

3.4.1.2. Teachers' positive influences on learning outcomes

When teachers actively assume the responsibility for their roles, they positively influence learning outcomes. Banno (2003) explored students' beliefs about good foreign language teachers. The findings revealed that the participants frequently believed that a good L2 teacher 'explains clearly,' 'is approachable,' 'uses good teaching methods,' and 'motivates students.' Blaz (2006) and Cheung (2001) asserted that learning is more likely to take place when students are engaging in a class in which the teaching content and activities relate to the students' interests and the aims that they learn. In other words, "when teachers are able to make required content appeal to student interests, students are likely to respond with greater commitment, energy, and endurance" (Blaz, 2006, p. 8). As Cheung (2001) advocated, teachers' positive attitudes to teaching and their enthusiasm for the subject they are teaching could motivate students' learning:

If teachers like their subjects, and take care to present them with a high level of interest, excitement, and importance, students are much more likely to like those subjects, too, and to be anxious to find out what is so interesting. (p. 58)

Similarly, Dörnyei has asserted that "the teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that affect the learners' motivation to learn" (1998, p. 130) and "the most important ingredient of motivationally successful teaching is

enthusiasm” (2001, p. 120, emphasis in original). Furthermore, Falout et al. (2009) explained the teacher’s motivating roles as follows:

Teachers can promote motivation in their learners *now* simply by avoiding practices that demotivate them, such as mono-methodic teaching, and instead incorporating a variety of teaching methods, teacher non-verbal and verbal behaviors that make a positive impression, and pique learners’ interest. (p. 412, emphasis in original)

Furthermore, teachers’ efforts at understanding students’ needs would lead them to successful L2 acquisition. Choi and Koh’s (2001) research is a good example of teachers’ efforts to improve the language learning environment regarding the specific needs of learners. In a preliminary report, the researchers developed interactive online exercises, which contributed highly to better language skills, grades and self-confidence, especially for the non-heritage students. The study indicated that interactive online exercises are a potential source outside of the classroom for the provision of additional learning material in “a more individualized and less threatening setting for students who need extra support and encouragement” (p. 139). In addition, it is worth noting that an effort to meet students’ needs led to successful retention as well. There was a record-high enrolment at the next level of the course (Choi & Koh, 2001).

In addition, teachers can help reduce anxiety about L2 learning. Fukai (2000) investigated students’ perspectives and their feelings of L2 anxiety, and the ways in which teachers could minimize it in a Japanese classroom. She used semi-structured interviews with two university students of Japanese in the US. The findings indicated that the unfamiliarity of tests and being called on in speaking activities in class were the commonest causes of insecurity and anxiety. In this connection, Fukai suggested that teachers could play an important role in reducing L2 anxiety by being friendly and helpful teachers, making good relationships with their students, and providing a well-structured syllabus in which the course content matches examinations. She stressed that reflecting students’ feelings and thoughts in pedagogy could “fill in gaps between teacher and student expectations” (p. 35).

3.4.1.3. Teachers’ negative influences on learning outcomes

Many previous studies (Falout et al., 2009; Hu, 2011; Jung, 2011) have revealed that teachers can also negatively affect students’ learning. In other words, teachers could

lead to “negative influences that cancel out existing motivation” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 138). Falout et al. (2009) noted that “[w]hen faced with disagreeable teacher personalities or pedagogies, or inappropriate level of courses or materials, learners are at risk of becoming demotivated” (p. 411). In particular, “[l]earners most susceptible to demotivation are those with less L2 learning experience and those who are less-proficient” because they have less capacity for self-regulation to overcome demotivation (p. 411). The findings from Gan’s (2009) research suggested that the discrepancy between the teacher’s teaching approaches and students’ expectations could contribute to demotivation, revealing that “[a]mong these students (the mainland Chinese students), dropping out of the regular English classes was common as a result of dissatisfaction over the teacher’s teaching in the class” (p. 51).

Furthermore, Jung (2011) stressed that “teachers’ boring lecture-based classes are the No. 1 demotivator in learning situation factors,” suggesting that an interactive teaching style can help make the class enjoyable by creating a cooperative atmosphere (p. 67). The findings from the investigation conducted by Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) also revealed that “lessons that focused on grammar, lessons that used textbooks which include long or difficult passages, and obtaining low test scores were all perceived as strongly demotivating for those learners” (p. 67). H. D. Brown (2007) asserted that teachers should bear in mind that “[i]f you are dull, lifeless, bored, and have low energy, you can be almost sure that it will be contagious” (p. 67). Furthermore, according to Hu (2011), if teachers do not carefully consider their teaching methodologies, classroom management, and teacher-student relationship, they can easily demotivate the students’ learning process. In addition, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) explained these demotivating factors as follows:

These negative influences may relate to particular learning-related events and experiences, such as performance anxiety, public humiliation, heavy work demands or poor test results. They may also relate to factors in the social learning environment, such as personality and attitude of the teacher or classroom counter-cultures and peer pressures. (p. 137)

In other words, not only teachers’ instructional methods but also their behaviours and attitudes toward teaching could subsequently decrease the enthusiasm and motivation that the student once had and lead to discontinuation of their study (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Hu, 2011).

3.4.2. Students' roles in effective L2 acquisition

Students have their own crucial roles to play in learning. Many studies have revealed that despite the teacher's motivational impact on language learning, a successful learning outcome depends on the students' own contribution to the learning process (e.g., Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1999; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Horwitz (1987) clearly indicated the importance of students' roles, remarking that "how students control this learning is crucial to their success as language learners" (p. 120). Similarly, Nunan (1995) revealed a belief that "it is the learner who must remain at the centre of the process, for no matter how much energy and effort we [teachers] expend, it is the learner who has to do the learning" (p. 155).

Students may acknowledge that they should predominantly be responsible for learning success, which requires "students' direct and active involvement and participation" (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 252). Cotterall's (1999) investigation concerning learners' beliefs about language learning revealed that students have a willingness to be responsible for their study and they believe their success relies on their own contribution. The findings revealed that her participants expected their teachers to show them how to learn by creating opportunities to practise, but they felt that finding situations to use the language was their responsibility. According to Rivers (2001), experienced language learners are more confident in taking control of their learning process. Similarly, Griffiths (2008) indicated that learners with a higher level of language proficiency are more self-directed learners. They tended to be "very eclectic in their preferences regarding learning method" (p. 261), and to "flexibly employ the methods which best suit themselves and/or their situations in order to achieve their learning goal" (p. 262). Moreover, those who have a higher level of language proficiency generally use language learning strategies more frequently than their counterparts with a lower level (Griffiths, 2007).

The idea of students being responsible for their learning has become "the fundamental principle of learner autonomy" (Chang, 2007, p. 325). 'Autonomy' refers to "the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to take control of their learning," and "it can increase motivation to learn and consequently increases learning effectiveness" (Sanprasert, 2010, p. 109). H. D. Brown (2007) claimed that "successful mastery of a foreign language will depend to a great extent on learners' autonomous ability both to

take initiative in the classroom and to continue their journey to success beyond the classroom and the teacher” (p. 70). Carter’s (2006) qualitative study confirmed that autonomous learners have a positive attitude to their studies and are willing to take responsibility for the process. In order to become autonomous, some learners may need to develop their cognitive ability to think and reflect on their learning through metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating (Carter, 2006). Metacognitive strategies are general thinking skills which enable learners to “manage, direct, regulate, and guide their learning” (Wenden, 1999, p. 436).

3.4.3. How to motivate students to be responsible for their learning

As claimed by Ellis (2005), teachers should take “their responsibility to ensure that their students are motivated and stay motivated and not bewail the fact that students lack motivation” (p. 42). Dörnyei (1998) asserted that “teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness” (p. 130). H. D. Brown (2007) explained that “motivation refers to the intensity of one’s impetus to learn,” and it is different from orientation which “means a context or purpose for learning” (p. 88). Many traditional motivation theories distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, arguing for “a continuum of possibilities of intensity of feeling or drive, ranging from deeply internal, self-generated rewards to strong, externally administered rewards from beyond oneself” (H. D. Brown, 2007, p. 88). Dörnyei (1998) further explained that intrinsic motivation “deals with behaviour performed for its own sake, in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one’s curiosity;” while extrinsic motivation “involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment” (p. 121).

According to Ushioda (2008), if learners are intrinsically motivated to learn an L2, they will likely be more actively involved in their learning process and learn more effectively than those who have extrinsic motivation. Furthermore, Cheung (2001) indicated that “[s]ince students who lack intrinsic motivation often desire variety, excitement, and novelty, effective teachers should choose different teaching methods and learning materials that will motivate their students” (p. 58). Ellis (2005) stressed that although “teachers can do little to influence students’ extrinsic motivation, there is a lot they can do to enhance their intrinsic motivation” (p. 42). These arguments have implications for

pedagogical practice. Firstly, since “there is no one single accepted definition of effective foreign language teaching” (T. Bell, 2005, p. 259), it would be beneficial for teachers to have sound knowledge of a range of language theories and teaching methods, and build up teaching strategies considering learners’ needs in different contexts (Ancker, 2001; Bax, 2003; D. Bell, 2007; H. D. Brown, 2000; East et al., 2007). Watzke (2007) noted that professional support and mentoring can help teachers improve their coping strategies, from traditional teaching methods to various approaches including contemporary pedagogy.

Furthermore, Holliday (1994) asserted that “all teachers need to develop methodologies in which they are able to learn and react to their students’ cultures” (p. 159). In particular, it may be advantageous to integrate popular music, dramas, movies, and so on, because “using popular culture in class can be one way to add life and variety to lessons” and “popular culture touches the lives of students, and grows out of their natural experience and interest” (Cheung, 2001, p. 58). Blaz (2006) also claimed that “when teachers are able to make required content appeal to student interests, students are likely to respond with greater commitment, energy, and endurance” (p. 8). In other words, teachers need to take into account students’ requirements and expectations about the teaching process when making pedagogical decisions to increase students’ motivation, which will lead to facilitating an optimum L2 learning environment (Canagarajah, 2002; Long, 2005b; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014).

In addition, teachers need to build up a positive relationship with students and to create a motivational learning atmosphere. Dörnyei (2001) advocated that teachers should create basic motivational conditions for effective learning such as “appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the students,” “a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere,” and “a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms” (pp. 119-120). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) noted that creating a pleasant learning environment is a precondition to generating motivation. Furthermore, Dörnyei (1998) suggested that teachers should strive for the development of “skills in motivating learners” as a core factor in teaching effectiveness (p. 130). In addition, as pointed out earlier, teachers’ own interests in teaching their subject with enthusiasm can positively stimulate students to be more responsible for their learning (e.g., H. D. Brown, 2007; Cheung, 2001; Dörnyei, 1998, 2001). All of these efforts by the teacher can prevent or

reduce potential conflicts between teaching practices and students' learning needs and expectations, and produce positive learning outcomes.

Finally, although students seem to understand that they should assume the responsibility for learning, they may not actively play their roles as they should (e.g., Richards & Gravatt, 1998). It is not helpful, however, that teachers provide learners with all the aspects they need to learn. If so, students would become incapable of doing anything without their teacher's supervision (Sheerin, 1997). Hence, the teacher's direct control of the students' learning process may not have an ongoing impact on the students' ultimate success in their learning in the long run (Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1995). In other words, it is more beneficial for the teacher to help students take responsibility for successful learning outcomes by finding ways to develop their capacity for autonomy (Carter, 2006; Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014; Sheerin, 1997).

In the classroom context, learner-centred instruction, which focuses on learners' learning needs, can help teachers share their responsibilities for learning with students (Carter, 2006). According to Carter (2006), cooperative learning through group work activities, for example, has been found to be effective in empowering students to play a leading role conducing to successful achievement. Furthermore, Fink (2003) asserted that if the teacher aims for students to actively participate in their learning, teachers should provide students with more 'doing' and 'observing' experiences using realistic and meaningful tasks. This can allow students to reflect on what they are learning and how they are learning alongside or with others and solve the student boredom problem. In addition, as previously indicated, cooperative learning, such as communicative activities, provides many advantages, such as multiple opportunities to interact with others (Jacobs & McCafferty, 2006), much longer speaking time than that available in a teacher-fronted lesson (Long & Proter, 1985), and a non-threatening learning environment (Fukai, 2000; Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

3.4.4. Summary

The previous studies have revealed that teachers play an influential role in motivating students to learn or, conversely, could cause them to lose interest. Their roles relate to not only teaching aspects but also teachers' attitudes toward the subject they teach, their relationship with students, the learning atmosphere they facilitate, and so on. When

teachers carefully consider students' learning needs and interests and integrate them into their pedagogy, students are motivated to learn and have successful outcomes. The previous literature has also indicated that although students perceive that a successful learning outcome is attributable to their own efforts and are willing to assume responsibility for their learning, they may need to develop their cognitive ability to think and reflect on their learning through metacognitive strategies. In order to foster active and positive involvement of students in the learning process, it would be beneficial for the teacher to guide and encourage students to assume their responsibility for learning so that they can become self-directed learners.

3.5. Conclusion

The previous chapter and this chapter have presented several important findings and have raised some crucial issues with regard to effective L2 learning and teaching. Firstly, in reviewing the previous work on students' needs and beliefs about their learning, it is clear that considering students' learning needs and beliefs, which may affect ultimate learning outcomes, are helpful to understand their learning behaviours. The previous studies also indicated that students' individual differences may affect students' needs and beliefs about their learning.

In Chapter 2 three major language teaching approaches which have been adopted to foster effective L2 acquisition were discussed (i.e., traditional teaching methods, CLT, and FFI). The traditional Grammar Translation and Audiolingual methods primarily focus on grammatical aspects (FonFS), ignoring the meaningful use of language. Questioning the limitation of these traditional methods, CLT, which aims to develop actual communicative competence, has been applied and interpreted in a variety of ways. Strong CLT emphasises meaning with comprehensible input at the expense of grammar (FonM), while weak CLT integrates grammatical aspects into communicative approaches. In the weak version of CLT, grammar is taught explicitly as in PPP (which incorporates FonFS) or is more implicitly integrated into communicative tasks such as in TBLT (which favours a FonF approach). FFI is based on the understanding that instruction is most effective when grammar is taught in meaning-based approaches in some ways (whether a FonFS or FonF approach is more dominant). In addition, the previous studies have indicated that identifying effective teaching approaches is still an

ongoing issue, particularly in terms of grammar teaching, error correction, and group work.

In Chapter 3 the reasons for ongoing debate about effective language teaching approaches were presented in terms of teachers' and students' beliefs and perceptions of what is effective. According to many previous studies, when teaching approaches neglected learning contexts, there were often mismatches between students' preferences for language learning and teaching practices formed by teachers' experiences and beliefs. Furthermore, previous studies have revealed that learners may have different perspectives from their teachers on teaching approaches. The unexpected conflicts between students and teachers that may arise from mismatches may affect learning negatively, which could lead to negative learning outcomes, demotivation for learning, and even dropout from courses and programmes.

Previous studies have also demonstrated that it is useful to consider teachers' beliefs and opinions about effective language learning and teaching because they could have a strong influence on their teaching practices in many ways. At the same time, however, it should be noted that teachers' actual practices may be different from their propositional beliefs due to students' learning needs and their expectations and contextual realities such as cultural, educational, and local demands. Furthermore, previous studies have noted that, despite criticism against the traditional teaching methods, and CLT's reputation, actual pedagogies and standardized tests of L2 have often reflected structure-based approaches in many countries. To avoid negative washback, teachers should design tests reflecting curricular goals and actual teaching practices because the tests will have a strong impact on learning behaviours and outcomes.

Finally, according to the previous literature, it is apparent that teachers play a very important role in facilitating students' effective learning, and students rely on them in various ways. They, however, may also negatively influence students to lose their interest in learning. Furthermore, previous studies have indicated that learning success depends on how students contribute their time and efforts to the learning process, although the teacher can help them learn more effectively. In addition, in order to become self-directed learners, some students may need to develop their cognitive ability to think and reflect on their learning through metacognitive strategies. With regard to ways to encourage students to be more responsible for their learning, it is helpful to take

into account students' interests, particularly in popular culture such as music, dramas, movies, and so on, when designing and teaching.

In light of the arguments presented in Chapter 1, and the many studies that comprise the previously reviewed literature, further investigations on students' learning needs, expectations from teachers, and reasons for learning Korean and discontinuing study are warranted. It would also appear important to further investigate what kind of teaching approaches are most effective to teach Korean in New Zealand from the perspectives of the learners of Korean and their teachers. Furthermore, it would be beneficial to examine what students expect from the teacher and what they think they need to do in order to learn Korean successfully. Finally, it would be useful to explore teachers' perspectives on their roles in teaching Korean effectively and realistically, their expectations from students for successful learning outcomes, and effective ways to motivate students to actively take responsibility for their learning process. The next chapter gives details about the design and methods used to undertake this research.

Chapter 4. Methodology

4.1. Introduction

With the aim of developing effective Korean language acquisition programmes in New Zealand, this study explored what students of Korean needed in and believed about successful learning and what teachers believed about effective teaching. The following main research questions were addressed:

1. What do students need in, and believe about, the learning of Korean?
 - a. How do students want to learn Korean?
 - b. What do students expect teachers to do in teaching Korean effectively?
 - c. What do students think they need to do in order to learn Korean effectively?
 - d. Why do students take a tertiary Korean language course in New Zealand?
 - e. What do students expect to be able to do as a consequence of taking Korean?
 - f. What makes students decide to continue or discontinue their Korean language course?
 - g. How are students' individual differences (cultural/educational backgrounds and language-proficiency levels) related to their perceived learning needs and beliefs?
2. What do teachers believe about the teaching of Korean?
 - a. How do teachers want to teach Korean?
 - b. What do teachers think about their responsibilities for teaching Korean effectively and realistically?
 - c. What do teachers expect students to do when learning Korean effectively?
 - d. How should teachers help students take responsibility for learning Korean effectively?

- e. What specific characteristics of the New Zealand educational context do teachers consider as being important to take into account in designing and teaching the Korean language acquisition courses?

In order to obtain an adequate understanding of the students' and teachers' perspectives, this investigation adopted a sequential mixed method approach, the aim of which is to complement the findings of one method with the use of another (Creswell, 2009). Firstly, two semi-structured focus group interviews with students learning Korean were carried out. Secondly, a questionnaire was administered to students, followed by in-depth interviews, which were undertaken with a subset of those who completed the questionnaire. Finally, in order to obtain information about teachers' points of view, in-depth individual interviews with teachers was conducted. One point to be noted here is that each method had its own questions to answer the main research questions (see the above) which were addressed in this study. In other words, each study described in Chapters 5 to 8 had its specific research purpose and the specific questions addressed are discussed in each of those chapters. Chapter 9, which is the general discussion chapter, addresses the main research questions and takes into account the combined findings from the four studies. This present chapter discusses in detail the participants, instrumentation, procedures, and analysis for each method.

4.2. Focus group interviews

As an initial exploratory study, semi-structured interviews were conducted using small focus groups. The purpose of the focus group interviews was to provide rationales for designing and developing the questionnaire and interview questions which were used as the main data gathering instruments.

4.2.1. Participants

Focus group interviews were conducted with eleven students from two undergraduate Korean language courses (Stage I and Stage II) in one tertiary institution in New Zealand. Potential focus group participants were recruited from students in two courses taught by the researcher. Table 2 provides demographic and background details about these participants. They were interviewed in two groups, with group placement decided according to the stage they had reached in studying Korean (Stage I or Stage II). The students were assigned to two groups because it was considered that their language

proficiency levels could influence their needs and expectations. Different learning environments between Stage I and Stage II could also affect students' preferences for classroom activities and their beliefs about effective learning. The Stage I Korean language courses were organised as follows: there were three lectures with a large class of over 100 students and one tutorial class with a smaller class of approximately 25 students during the week. The Stage II courses offered only small classes of 10 to 20 students combining lectures and tutorials three times per week.

Table 2: Participants' profiles and background information

Stage	Gender	Ethnic group	Length of residence in New Zealand	Major
I	M	Russian	12 years	Political Studies
I	M	New Zealander	From birth	Japanese, Korean & Law
I	M	South African	3 years	Physiology
I	F	Chinese	2 1/2 years	Accounting & Finance
I	F	Chinese	4 years	Economics & Accounting
II	M	New Zealander	From birth	Korean
II	M	Samoan	9 years	Korean
II	M	Chinese	From birth	Japanese
II	M	Filipino	From birth	Asian studies
II	F	Thai	3 years	Korean
II	F	Chinese	3 years	Korean

4.2.2. Instrumentation

Focus group interviews were selected because this qualitative research method is generally considered effective in understanding the experiences, interests, attitudes, perspectives and assumptions of a group of participants on a specific topic, and for collecting rich and descriptive data. Furthermore, conducting a focus group interview prior to developing questionnaires can be helpful in identifying appropriate questions and designing them in a more constructive way in the early stage of research (D. Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). It has been acknowledged that, although focus group sessions can provide a good deal of information over a short period of time, each participant has less opportunity to offer his or her opinion and one or more participants may dominate the interview when this method is used (McKay, 2006). To alleviate these issues, the researcher, who conducted the interviews, actively encouraged all students to contribute to the discussion. In other words, opportunity was given that

every participant took a turn to comment on each theme. The interviews were semi-structured so that pre-determined questions could be used to initiate discussion and also provide some flexibility so that more in-depth exploration of relevant issues could be pursued (Long, 2005a). The following five questions were addressed in the focus group interviews:

1. What classroom activities (e.g., grammar teaching, communicative activities) for learning Korean do students particularly like, and why?
2. What classroom activities do students not like so much, and why?
3. What factors do students think are important for them to learn Korean effectively (e.g., teachers' roles, students' roles)?
4. What are students' reasons for learning Korean at university?
5. If students can suggest one thing to make the Korean course more helpful to their learning, what would it be?

These questions were developed from the issues that arose from the previous review of literature. Firstly, previous studies have reported different findings in relation to teaching approaches. For example, Schulz's (1996, 2001) studies showed that L2 students have a strong preference for grammar-focused teaching, while Richards and Gravatt's (1998) research reported that L2 learners in a New Zealand tertiary institute favoured a communicative approach. Thus, the first two questions aimed to explore how learners of Korean would like to learn the language. Secondly, the purpose of the third question was to examine which factors positively influenced learners of Korean to achieve their learning goals. Cheung (2001) and Fukai (2000) have pointed out that the teacher's role has a positive effect on successful learning. Carter (2006) and Chang (2007) have stressed that the students' own contributions are essential for successful learning. Thirdly, previous studies have shown that the primary motivations for learning Korean in New Zealand are developing relationships with Korean people (Choe, 2005), practical language uses and genuine interest in the language (H. Kim, 2003). The aims of the fourth question were to explore motivation further, that is, to examine what motivated students to learn Korean and to investigate the most appropriate way to discover their reasons for learning the language. Finally, the participants were asked to provide one suggestion for making the Korean course more conducive to effective learning.

4.2.3. Procedures

Following the ethical guidelines of the university for conducting the focus group interviews, Participant Information Sheets (PIS) (see Appendix A) and Consent Forms (see Appendix B) were drawn up. Having received ethics approval for the focus group interviews, the researcher obtained permission from the Head of Asian Studies and the course coordinators to approach students in class in the first semester of 2009. After the final class of the semester, she briefly explained her research to the students in Stage I and Stage II with reference to the PIS and asked those who were interested in participating to contact her. Eleven students agreed to participate in the focus group interviews. As indicated before, because the researcher was involved in teaching the Korean courses the participants were taking, it was considered that there was a power relationship between the students and the researcher. To alleviate this ethical concern, the focus group interviews were conducted after the semester had been completed. The researcher also assured the students, through the PIS and verbal explanation, that the focus group interview would have no connection whatsoever with the course of study and that students were under no obligation to participate. During the semester break, the participants were invited to a seminar room on two different days and each focus group interview lasted approximately one hour.

The researcher started the interviews by asking the students for background information such as their major, ethnicity, and length of residence in New Zealand. She briefly explained the research and the interview process and asked the participants if they had any questions. Then, she asked them the main questions, making every effort to ensure that everyone took a turn to answer each question. The discussion was informal so that the students were allowed to say what they felt at any time. Although the researcher aimed to encourage each student to contribute to the discussion, a few students did not discuss some topics. The interview sessions were audio-recorded during the discussion and were transcribed for subsequent analysis.

4.2.4. Analysis

A cross-case analysis was utilised: the transcribed data were read several times and similar, relevant comments were grouped together under specific topics. McKay (2006) has described this approach as being useful for the researcher to highlight pertinent aspects of separate research themes (p. 57). First, to identify which classroom activities

students did or did not like, the students' preferences for classroom activities were subdivided into the following four distinct topics which arose during discussions: (1) grammar teaching; (2) corrective feedback (CF); (3) grouping patterns; and (4) teaching materials including the core textbooks. Second, the important factors that students gave for the effective acquisition of Korean were grouped in order to discover which were the most common. Third, the students' motivations for learning Korean were also grouped to determine the most common reasons. These findings were compared with their preferences for classroom activities in order to discover any connections between the two aspects. Finally, the students' comments and suggestions on how to make the Korean course more conducive to learning were analysed and added to the relevant categories.

4.3. Questionnaires

Following on from the small-scale experimental focus group interviews, a questionnaire was designed for use in the main study. The questionnaire was utilised to obtain quantitative and qualitative data regarding students' preferred teaching approaches, their expectations of teachers, beliefs about their own roles in effective learning, reasons for and expectations of learning Korean, and reasons for discontinuing their studies. It should be noted that this research focused on students' beliefs and perceptions, rather than their behaviour, about their own roles in successfully learning Korean. Students' cognitive beliefs could closely impact on their language learning (Richards & Lockhart, 1994), so examining beliefs about their roles could help understanding the extent to which students of Korean are self-directed learners.

4.3.1. Participants

All students enrolled in Stage I to Stage III Korean language courses were invited to complete an anonymous questionnaire. Approximately 120 questionnaires were distributed and 77 of them (64%) were completed and returned (see Table 3 for return rates according to students' stage of study, ethnicity, and years of schooling in New Zealand). There were 30 male and 47 female students. Forty three students were between 17 and 20 years of age, 26 students were 21 to 24 years old, three students were 25 to 28 years old, and five students were over 29 years old. The students belonged to 22 different ethnic groups: 30 were Chinese, 10 Korean, seven New

Zealand European, four Malaysian, three Japanese, three Taiwanese, two Filipino, two Thai, two Samoan, two New Zealand European Chinese, and one each of Indonesian, Dutch, Niuean, Russian, South African, New Zealand European Maori, New Zealand European Japanese, Cook Island Maori, Dutch Filipino, Chinese Vietnamese, Chinese Malaysian, and Chinese Malaysian Taiwanese. Between them they had 35 different majors. Note that 60% of the Asian students had experienced either more than five years or all of their schooling in New Zealand. This is important to acknowledge, as the students' schooling could have influenced their preferences or beliefs about learning.

Table 3: Students' background information

Group	Category	No. of Ss	%
Stage	Stage I	42 (23*)	55
	Stage II	18	23
	Stage III	17	22
Ethnicity	Asian**	48	62
	Korean	10	13
	Non-Asian	19	25
Number of years schooling in New Zealand	2-5 years	21	27
	More than 5 years***	18	24
	All	38	49

* This indicates the number of students taking the course as a general education paper.

** Asian excludes Korean heritage participants.

*** More than 5 years of NZ schooling, but not all of their schooling in NZ.

4.3.2. Instrumentation

A questionnaire was used because this method allows for a large amount of information to be collected relatively quickly and economically (D. Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). For this reason, many researchers have used the method of questionnaires for investigating teachers' and/or students' beliefs, expectations, preferences, perceptions, behaviours and attitudes in L2 teaching and learning domains (e.g., T. T. Bell, 2005; A. A. Brown, 2009; Horwitz, 1985, 1988; Kern, 1995; Loewen et al., 2009; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Spada, Barkaoui, Peters, So, & Valeo, 2009). The questionnaire was designed so that participants would be able to independently complete it within fifteen minutes. The following questions were addressed in the questionnaire-based research:

1. How do students want to learn Korean?

- a. How do they want to learn grammar?
 - b. How do they want their errors to be corrected when learning Korean?
 - c. How do they want to be involved in classroom activities?
2. What do students expect teachers to do in order to teach Korean effectively?
 3. What do students believe that they should do in order to learn Korean effectively?
 4. To what extent are students willing to take their own responsibilities for learning Korean effectively?
 5. Why do students learn Korean at university in New Zealand?
 - a. Why do they take a tertiary Korean language course?
 - b. What do they expect to be able to do as a consequence of studying Korean?
 - c. Why do they decide not to continue learning Korean?
 6. How are student' individual differences (cultural/educational backgrounds and language-proficiency levels) related to their perceived learning needs and beliefs?

The questionnaire (see Appendix D) consisted of three sections: (1) a background information section; (2) a section, utilising Likert-type scales, requiring responses to items on students' preferences for teaching approaches, their beliefs about the teacher and the student's roles in successfully learning Korean; and (3) an open-ended question section examining their expectations of and reasons for learning Korean and their reasons for discontinuing their studies. Listed below are the question numbers to be answered in subsections of the questionnaires.

Section 1: Learner background information – Question 6

Section 2: Likert-type scale responses

- Teaching approaches: grammar teaching, error correction, grouping patterns – Question 1
- Beliefs about the teacher's and student's roles in effectively learning Korean – Questions 2, 3, and 4

Section 3: Open-ended questions

- Reasons for learning Korean – Question 5
- Expectations as a consequence of studying Korean at university – Question 5

- Intention to take another Korean language course – Questions 5
- Further comments/suggestions about learning Korean effectively – Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5

The first section asked the student participants to provide their demographic details including gender, age, ethnicity, educational background (i.e., length of New Zealand schooling), language proficiency levels (i.e., which Korean language course they were currently taking), and major. This information was necessary because students' individual differences in such aspects as ethnicity, educational background, and language proficiency would be used later to examine possible relationships between these factors and students' perceived learning needs and thoughts about learning Korean effectively.

The second section contained 40 questionnaire items. These were generated from a number of sources (noted below), all of which were composed of items requiring responses to a 5-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = “strongly disagree” and 5 = “strongly agree.” Below are the relevant previous research and the corresponding questionnaire items that have been adapted and developed according to the purpose of this research:

- Spada et al. (2009) – students' beliefs and preferences for two types of FFI: Items 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12
- Loewen et al. (2009) and Schulz (1996, 2001) – student beliefs about grammar instruction and the role of grammar instruction and corrective feedback: Items 8, 9, 15, 16, 17, 18
- Willing (1989) – teaching students how to learn more effectively: Items 19, 20, 21, 22
- Chang (2007) – learners' autonomous beliefs and behaviours: Items 32, 33, 36
- Cotterall (1995, 1999) – learners' autonomy and their beliefs about key differences in language learning: Items 23, 24, 27, 29, 31, 32, 34, 35, 36, 37, 39, 40
- Gan (2009) – language learning attitudes, strategies and motivation among mainland Chinese and Hong Kong students: Items 23, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40

The remaining questionnaire items, 1, 2, 10, 13, 14, 25, 26, 28, and 30, were created in response to the findings from the focus group interviews and the researcher's own informal observations and reflections on effective teaching approaches. Participants were asked to respond to each item by selecting the number they considered appropriate on a scale of possibilities, from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Prior to their use, two language teachers were invited to review the 40 questionnaire items to check that, in their perception, they appeared to tap into the constructs the researcher was trying to measure (i.e., their content validity), and a first draft of the questionnaire was piloted with five students in order to ensure that the wording was clear. Minor modifications were made based on feedback provided by the teachers and students (see Appendix D for a copy of the questionnaire).

4.3.2.1. Students' preferences for teaching approaches

Part 1 in Section 2 comprised the questionnaire items on preferences for grammar teaching, error correction, and group work. As indicated in the earlier sections, previous research has shown a diverse range of observations on the most effective ways of teaching grammar (i.e., deductive or inductive, explicit/isolated or implicit/integrated, and more form-focused or more meaning-focused), CF (i.e., immediately or later, explicitly or implicitly, and how often), and grouping patterns (i.e., paired or small group work, whole class work, or individual work). Moreover, many students in the focus group interviews were found to be most concerned about these aspects in terms of classroom activities.

Questionnaire items 1 to 10 were designed to examine how students of Korean want to learn grammar. In other words, what kind of grammar instruction they prefer: inductive or deductive, exclusive/isolated or inclusive/integrated approaches, and whether they want a more formal study of grammar or more communicative activities. The questionnaire items and the aspects of learning that the items examined are as follows:

- Item 1. having the opportunity to discover grammar rules before learning – inductive
- Item 2. learning grammar from teachers without the process of discovery – deductive
- Item 3. learning grammar before using Korean – exclusive/isolated

- Item 4. learning grammar by reading and practising – grammar-focused
- Item 5. learning grammar during activities – inclusive/integrated
- Item 6. learning grammar by itself – grammar-focused
- Item 7. focusing on communication and learning grammar only when necessary – communication-focused
- Item 8. preference for practising Korean in real-life situations over learning grammar – communication-focused
- Item 9. wanting more formal study of grammar
- Item 10. wanting more communicative activities

Questionnaire items 11 to 18 questioned students' preferences for CF in order to clarify whether students liked teachers to correct their errors in class, and when, how, and how often they wanted their errors to be corrected.

- Item 11. when – immediately
- Item 12. when – later
- Item 13. how – explicitly
- Item 14. how – implicitly
- Item 15. how – in small groups rather than in front of the entire class
- Item 16. how often – every time in speaking tasks
- Item 17. how often – every time in writing tasks
- Item 18. the extent of students' preferences for corrective feedback

Questionnaire items 19 to 22 elicited how students wanted to engage in teacher-assigned learning activities. Through these questions, the most preferred group work-pattern was clarified.

- Item 19. working in pairs
- Item 20. working in small groups
- Item 21. working in the whole class
- Item 22. working on their own

4.3.2.2. Students' beliefs about teachers' roles and their own roles in learning

Part 2 in Section 2 involved students' beliefs about the effective instruction and acquisition of Korean in terms of the roles of both teachers and students. The first eight

questionnaire items in Part 2, 23 to 30, were designed to elicit exactly what students expected their teachers to do so that they would successfully learn Korean, and to examine the extent of students' dependence on their teachers for successful study. The findings here were later examined alongside data gathered from teachers about their perceived roles in fostering successful student learning.

- Item 23. setting learning goals
- Item 24. guiding students in what to do
- Item 25. creating an interesting and friendly learning environment
- Item 26. using Korean as much as possible in class
- Item 27. offering help
- Item 28. explaining teaching points clearly
- Item 29. providing opportunities to use Korean
- Item 30. effectively using a variety of teaching methods

The next eight questionnaire items, 31 to 38, were formulated to explore what students believed they should do to learn Korean effectively and to what extent they were self-directed in learning the language. The findings were later compared with teachers' expectations of students and provided an idea of which particular areas should be focused on when teaching Korean.

- Item 31. having a clear idea of the reasons for studying Korean
- Item 32. setting their own learning goals
- Item 33. knowing what to do outside the classroom
- Item 34. knowing how to plan for studying Korean
- Item 35. finding their own ways to practise Korean
- Item 36. knowing how to evaluate learning and make progress
- Item 37. asking for help when necessary
- Item 38. learning more Korean through independent study than through attending classes

The last two questionnaire items, 39 and 40, were added to gain more understanding of the extent to which students of Korean are autonomous learners.

- Item 39. successful learning depends on what the teacher does in class

- Item 40. successful learning depends on what students do inside and outside the classroom

4.3.2.3. Reasons and expectations for taking Korean

Section 3 contained open-ended questions to elicit information about the students' reasons for learning Korean, the continuation or discontinuation of their studies, as well as their expectations of studying Korean. H. Kim's (2003) research suggests that when participants have options to choose from, they might be forced to select an inappropriate one if they cannot find suitable reasons among the categories offered. The open-ended questions, however, provided an opportunity for the students to explain their opinions, beliefs and perceptions more fully, in a manner not possible through the Likert-type scales. T. Bell (2005) advocated the use of open-ended questions to enable participants to give reasons and express opinions. Long (2005a) also asserted that open-ended questions "can elicit a wider range of information and more detail, and may be more suitable for complex issues" (p. 38). The last section sought further comments or suggestions from participants about learning Korean effectively.

4.3.3. Procedures

First, the researcher obtained approval from the Ethics Committee at the tertiary institution concerned, and received permission from the departmental head and course coordinators to approach the students. In 2010, and once the required permissions had been obtained, all students attending Stages I, II, and III Korean language acquisition courses were invited to participate in this research and given a PIS (see Appendix C) and questionnaire at the end of a lesson. The researcher visited three classes from Stage I to Stage III level and was allowed ten minutes at the end of each class to invite students to participate. The questionnaire was administered during the seventh and eighth weeks of the first semester and the same weeks of the second semester. Each semester consists of 12 weeks in total. This period was chosen in order to allow any students who had never learned a language at university before to have experienced such learning and thus be more confident in expressing their thoughts regarding their decision to continue or discontinue studying the language. The participants were asked to complete their own copy of the questionnaire at any time during the week. During the next three lessons, the researcher revisited each class to arrange for the collection of the

completed questionnaires. Clearly labelled boxes were placed outside the door of the classroom for the students to return their questionnaires.

As in the pilot study, which utilised focus group interviews, one main ethical issue existed. As the researcher was teaching Korean at the tertiary institution, there was the potential for an imbalance of power between the student participants and the researcher. She was involved in teaching Stage II students in the first semester and Stage III students in the second semester when administering the questionnaire. Through verbal explanations and the PIS, however, it was made clear that this research did not bear any relationship to the course study (i.e., the research would focus on student beliefs), and students were under no obligation to participate. It was also made clear that participation or non-participation would not affect the students' grades. These issues were discussed and confirmed in advance in direct communication with the departmental head and the course coordinators. Students could withdraw from participation at any time during the process of completing the questionnaire or by not submitting the questionnaire. Because the questionnaire is anonymous (i.e., students did not need to put their name on the questionnaire), the participants were not identifiable to the researcher and it is not possible to identify students in any reports of the findings from this research.

4.3.4. Analysis

The questionnaires administered to students gathered quantitative data from the section requiring responses to items utilizing Likert-type scales, and qualitative data from the open-ended questions. The quantitative data were examined using the statistical analysis software package SPSS (PASW Statistics) 18. In order to determine how students want to learn Korean (Question 1 of the questionnaire-based research), mean scores were calculated first. This allowed for an initial observation of students' expressed preferences for classroom activities. Subsequently, paired *t*-tests were conducted to examine differences in students' preferences with reference to the following pairs of questionnaire items:

- Items 1 and 2: inductive and deductive grammar teaching
- Items 3 and 5: isolated and integrated grammar teaching
- Items 9 and 10: more formal grammar teaching or more communication

- Items 11 and 12: correcting errors immediately or later
- Items 13 and 14: giving CF explicitly or implicitly.

In terms of grouping patterns, for questionnaire items 19, 20, 21, and 22, frequency rates were also employed to compare students' preferences. The data were simplified by collapsing the five-point scale into a three-point scale (i.e., disagree/strongly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree/strongly agree) in order to distinguish similarities and differences in students' preferences more easily.

To identify overall trends in the data about the students' expectations of the teacher and their beliefs about learners' responsibilities for study (Questions 2 and 3), descriptive statistics were also used. The descriptive data were ranked from the highest scores to the lowest for the purpose of observing, for instance, what the students most expected teachers to do for successful learning. Subsequently, to determine the extent to which students depend on teachers or are autonomous learners (Question 4), the relevant questionnaire statements were grouped and the total mean scores were compared using paired *t*-tests. First, questionnaire items 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, and 39 were grouped as they concerned the teacher's roles (TR), and questionnaire items 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, and 40 were grouped as they concerned the student's roles (SR). To establish the content validity, the items of TR and SR was assessed through factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy for TR and SR was conducted, and their scores were .712 and .769 respectively, both of which indicated higher than the minimum value (0.5) of the KMO index for a good factor analysis (Isemonger & Watanabe, 2007, p. 139). Second, reliability statistics were calculated for the questionnaire items of TR and SR. Cronbach's alpha coefficients indicated .692 and .745 respectively. One of these scores was marginally lower than the commonly used criterion for "good reliability (alpha coefficient = .70)", but met the criterion for "adequate reliability (alpha coefficient \geq .60)" (Taylor, Bagby, & Parker, 2003, pp. 280-281). The alpha coefficients used by Taylor et al. were between .62 and .71. Furthermore, in order to determine preferences for specific items of TR and SR (i.e., questionnaire items 23; 32, 24; 33, 27; 37, 29; 35, and 39; 40), the students' responses to each related questionnaire item were analysed by comparing differences in means using paired *t*-tests.

Qualitative data were gathered from open-ended questions in the questionnaire. The following questions were designed to answer Question 5 in the questionnaire-based research, which gauged reasons for learning Korean at university in New Zealand and reasons for discontinuing study, respectively:

- Why are you taking this Korean language course? Give your reason(s).
- What do you expect to be able to do as a consequence of studying Korean at university?
- Are you planning to take another Korean language course? Why/Why not? Give your reason(s).

In order to develop reliable sets of categories that would answer the questions addressed in the questionnaire-based research, subsequent analyses were independently conducted by the researcher and two language teachers through the following procedure. First, the researcher read the responses several times and grouped similar relevant comments together under specific topics. Second, with a brief explanation of how to cluster similar responses together, the researcher asked a language teacher to examine the responses to the open-ended questions and design categories for them. At first glance, the categories generated by the teacher looked different from the researcher's categories, but with more careful observation, many categories indicated similar items, although the broadness or specificity of many of the categories differed. The differences between the categorisations were adjusted after discussion with the teacher. Third, once the categories were modified and finalised, the researcher carefully reallocated each response to an appropriate revised category and counted the frequency for each of the categories using a spreadsheet. Fourth, presenting the finalised categories and clear explanations with a few examples about which kinds of responses belonged in each of the categories, the researcher asked another language teacher to place each response in one of the categories. Fifth, after the teacher's results were returned, the researcher calculated the frequency for each of the categories and measured the percentage agreements between the teacher's and her own. There were high inter-rater agreements: 87% agreement obtained for the categories concerning reasons for learning Korean; 90% for expectations of studying Korean; 94% for reasons for discontinuing Korean; and 85% for reasons for continuation. This process ensured that the categorizations used by the researcher were systematically generated and robust.

The most common reasons students gave for learning Korean and for discontinuing the language were compared with their expectations of the course. The findings from the reasons for learning Korean and for discontinuing the language, and the expectations of the course were also compared by correlational analysis with their preferences for classroom activities, expectations of their teachers, and views about the roles of learners, to determine any connection between the data. The final open-ended question in the questionnaire obtained students' further comments or suggestions about learning Korean effectively. The data gathered from this question were analysed to obtain additional information to inform the questions addressed in the questionnaire-based research.

In addition, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to establish whether there was a significant difference between the means of students' individual differences under investigation: three Stages (i.e., language proficiency levels), three ethnic groups (i.e., Asian excluding Korean, Korean, and non-Asian), and three educational backgrounds (i.e., 2-5 years, more than 5 years, and all schooling in New Zealand). The findings were used to clarify the impact of the students' differences on their beliefs and needs in learning Korean (Question 6).

4.4. Interviews with students

Despite the advantage of being able to collect a good deal of information relatively quickly and economically through the use of questionnaires, there are potential disadvantages such as the possibility of obtaining superficial and simple information (Borg, 2006; McKay, 2006; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; D. Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Many previous studies employing only questionnaires have recommended a follow-up interview (e.g., T. Bell, 2005; A. Brown, 2009; Griffiths, 2007; Loewen et al., 2009). As Loewen et al. (2009) maintained, interviews enable a "more detailed picture of learners' beliefs" on matters that the questionnaire could not adequately explore (p. 102). Therefore, in order to gain more detailed information about issues and considerations that the questionnaire might not be able adequately to examine, in-depth interviews were conducted with some of the students who completed the questionnaires.

4.4.1. Participants

Out of the 77 students who participated in the questionnaire reported in the preceding section, 25 students agreed to be interviewed (the recruitment procedure is explained below). There were 11 students in Stage I, seven in Stage II, and seven in Stage III. Out of the 11 Stage I participants, six were taking the Korean course as a general education (GE) paper. There were 16 students from Asian ethnic backgrounds including three Korean heritage background and nine non-Asian ethnic backgrounds. The fact that there were more students of Asian ethnic backgrounds than their non-Asian counterparts made it difficult to determine differences between the two groups. It should be noted that each participant from the interviews was provided a reference code (e.g., P1, P2) to present the findings more effectively.

Table 4: Participants' profiles and background information

Reference code	Stage	Gender	Ethnic group	Length of residence in New Zealand
P1	I(GE)	F	Chinese	2-5 years
P2	I(GE)	F	Chinese	2-5 years
P3	I(GE)	F	Taiwanese	More than 5 years
P4	I(GE)	F	Samoan	From birth
P5	I(GE)	F	Niuean	More than 5 years
P6	I(GE)	F	Malaysian	More than 5 years
P7	I	F	Chinese Taiwanese Malaysian	2-5 years
P8	I	M	New Zealander	From birth
P9	I	M	New Zealander	From birth
P10	I	M	Chinese	2-5 years
P11	I	M	New Zealander	From birth
P12	II	M	Korean	From birth
P13	II	F	Chinese Vietnamese	From birth
P14	II	M	Korean	From birth
P15	II	M	New Zealander Maori	From birth
P16	II	F	Dutch	From birth
P17	II	F	Malaysian	From birth
P18	II	F	Chinese	From birth
P19	III	M	New Zealander	From birth
P20	III	F	Chinese	More than 5 years
P21	III	F	Chinese	More than 5 years
P22	III	F	Korean	From birth
P23	III	F	Maori Cook island	From birth
P24	III	M	Chinese	From birth
P25	III	F	Japanese	2-5 years

4.4.2. Instrumentation

The interviews were semi-structured to allow the participants to express additional opinions and information pertaining to the research topics. The following questions were addressed in the individual interviews with students:

1. How do students of Korean want to learn grammar? Why?
2. How do students want their errors to be corrected? Why?

3. What activities do students want to have more of in their course? Why?
4. How can the teacher stimulate students' interest in learning Korean?
5. To what extent do students think they are responsible for learning Korean effectively?
6. What factors affect students' decision to continue or discontinue learning Korean?

The purpose of the first question was to explore what students of Korean believed about effective grammar instruction and the reasons for their beliefs. The second question aimed to discover students' beliefs about effective CF, with their reasons for their beliefs. This includes what the students want the teacher to consider when he/she gives CF. The third question asked the participants for further clarification pertaining to what classroom activities they felt they needed more of in their current learning situation and why, because the findings from the focus group interviews and questionnaire-based study have indicated that the students of Korean seem to desire more interactive activities, and at the same time, they appear to have a strong preference for grammar teaching. The fourth question was designed to examine the students' attitudes about their teachers' support roles, and the fifth questions, their own individual responsibility for successful learning of Korean, along with the extent to which they fulfilled their roles. The aim of the sixth question was to further investigate reasons for the students' decision to continue or discontinue study. Finally, an extra opportunity was given for the students to present their thoughts on how to improve the course for better learning outcomes.

4.4.3. Procedures

All students participating in the questionnaire survey were also invited to take part in a follow-up interview. In order to recruit students for the interview, a second PIS for the interview was given to each student when the questionnaire PIS and questionnaire were distributed. Only those students who agreed to participate in the interview completed a background information form attached to the interview PIS (see Appendix E). This required them to provide their contact details and some demographic information, and to complete a consent form (see Appendix F). A clearly-labelled, separate box was placed outside the classroom for the return of these interview background information forms and consent forms.

Participants were invited to elect a time to attend an interview during July and August in 2010. The interviews were not conducted until after the course the students were taking was completed and final grades had been awarded. This was in order to help students to feel that they could express themselves without the pressure of the teacher-student relationship. Each interview was conducted in a small seminar room and in an informal setting to avoid the potential discomfort that could arise from more formal settings. The interviews were carried out in English, and audio recorded with the participants' permission. A summary of the final report was available to the participants on request.

4.4.4. Analysis

The audio recorded data were transcribed prior to analysis. In order to verify whether the transcription reliably reflected what had been said in the interviews, three of the 25 individual interviews were randomly selected and checked by one native English speaker and language teacher against the audio files. The language teacher was given the transcripts and the relevant audio-recorded files, and asked to indicate, using the 'Track Changes' function in Word, any differences noted to what was in the transcripts.

The main changes were related to missing a word, using a wrong article, mishearing words, and so on. These errors, however, did not directly affect communication or understanding of the interviewees' main ideas. Because the purpose of this investigation was to better understand students' perspectives, it was considered that the errors did not impact in any major way on the validity and reliability of the data.

Once the reliability of the raw data had been checked, in attempting to develop reliable and applicable sets of categories that would answer the questions addressed in the individual interviews with students, the researcher conducted subsequent analyses through the following procedure. First, the researcher carefully read through all the transcripts several times and grouped together similar relevant comments under specific topics with reference to the main interview questions. Second, she explained to a language teacher which kinds of responses belonged in each of the categories, presenting the clustered data with a few examples. Then, she asked the teacher to indicate her own category for each response. Since the amount of data was too large to be completely checked, the teacher was asked to focus on two out of 12 themes which she was asked to select at random. She chose (1) students' preference for grammar

teaching and (2) activities that should be increased in the course. Third, when the marked data were returned, the researcher compared the coding against her own, and noted the percentage of agreement between the teacher's and her own. There were high levels of inter-rater agreement: 100% agreement obtained for the categories about students' preference for grammar instruction and 96% for activities that should be increased in the course. It is acknowledged that these high inter-rater agreements may have resulted from only two parts of 12 themes. It was, however, assumed by the researcher that the other sets of categories would have been acceptably reliably coded based on this level of reliability.

Although the interview questions were not always asked in order, the data were analysed according to the main emergent themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Firstly, in order to further clarify how students of Korean want to learn grammar, the responses in relation to how grammar should be taught were analysed along with their comments about how they felt about learning grammar. Secondly, students' comments on effective error correction and the teacher's approach when giving CF were grouped and analysed with the aim of further clarifying how they would like their errors to be corrected. Thirdly, all responses about what activities they would like to have more of in the course, and why, were clustered and examined to better understand direct or indirect causes of the possible discrepancies between the students' preference for both structure-focused instruction and a communicative approach. Fourthly, the grouped data relevant to the teacher's roles as supporter were examined to discover ways by which teachers can encourage their students to be more interested in learning the language. Fifthly, in order to identify what students believe about assuming individual responsibility for effective learning, the responses about their own learning roles were categorised and analysed. Although this research mainly focused on qualitative analyses, a quantitative examination was also included with the intention of determining the extent to which the students considered that they were responsible for their own learning. In other words, their "yes" and "no" responses as to whether they fulfil their roles as students were calculated along with their reasons. Sixthly, this investigation explored more detailed reasons for learning Korean and factors in the decision to continue or discontinue study. The data were used to determine what appeared to cause students to continue or discontinue learning Korean. Finally, students' suggestions for making the Korean course more conducive to learning were analysed.

4.5. Interviews with teachers

In-depth individual interviews were carried out with teachers with the aim of giving background information about teaching and the teachers' perspective in the New Zealand educational context.

4.5.1. Participants

Five teachers including the researcher were teaching Korean in the Korean language programme at the university at the time this study was due to be conducted at the end of 2010. Three teachers agreed to participate in an interview. Two were full-time lecturers and the remaining teacher was a fixed-term Graduate Teaching Assistant. As the teacher sample size was very limited, there was a risk that teachers' identities would become known to others, such as their colleagues, although no names were referred to on any forms. This point was explained both verbally and in written form in the PIS (see Appendix G). To alleviate possible concerns over this issue, the researcher decided that she would always refer to the teachers as a group, focusing on what was found, not on who responded. Furthermore, no names were included in any reports on this research, nor was identifying information provided on an individual basis to anyone else. All reasonable efforts were therefore made to protect the identity of the three teachers who participated in the interviews.

4.5.2. Instrumentation

As mentioned earlier, because of the limited number of teachers, it was not possible to collect and analyse comparable sets of data from teachers in a quantitative way, as it was for students. This aspect of the study therefore investigated the teachers' points of view qualitatively, in which samples are generally small, non-random, and purposive (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). In a qualitative research design, it is acknowledged that classroom observation could also be beneficial to observe "first-hand, *eye-witness* accounts of what people say and do" (Sharp, 2009, p. 92, emphasis in original) in an actual teaching situation. It was, however, difficult for the researcher to gain permission to observe teaching practices because the researcher felt that the teachers were hesitant about being observed by a colleague. Thus, in-depth individual interviews with teachers were undertaken in order to elicit information on teachers' views. The interviews were semi-structured in order to allow the interviewees to discuss their ideas more freely in a

less formal way. Furthermore, although the reality of how these teachers actually taught may be different from teachers' beliefs (e.g., Borg, 2006), many researchers have observed that teachers' intuitive beliefs about and experiences of language acquisition and instruction often influence their own teaching practices (e.g., Batstone, 2006; Carter, 2008; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Willing, 1989). It was therefore considered that, by considering teachers' beliefs, it was possible to gain some insight into teachers' actual teaching practices. The following questions were addressed in the individual interviews with teachers:

1. What do teachers think is the most important aspect in teaching Korean? Why?
 - a. What activities do they often provide in their course? Why?
 - b. What activities would they like to integrate more frequently into their course? Why?
 - c. Do they think grammar should be taught in the classroom? If so, how?
 - d. Do they think errors should be corrected in the classroom? If so, how?
2. What do teachers think their most important roles are when teaching Korean effectively?
3. How could teachers help students become more interested in learning Korean?
4. What do teachers expect students to do in order to learn Korean effectively?
5. How could teachers help students assume their own personal responsibility for learning Korean effectively?
6. Are there any aspects teachers consider in particular when preparing and teaching Korean in the New Zealand educational context?

The main aim of the first question was to examine what teachers of Korean believed about effective teaching approaches and the reasons for these views. The four sub-questions were added in order to determine specific teaching practices (i.e., current teaching approaches, grammar teaching, and error correction). The second and third questions focused on the teachers' roles in stimulating students' interest in learning Korean, while the fourth question related to the teachers' expectations of students to make learning in class more effective and have the students successfully achieve their goals. The fifth question aimed to explore how teachers could help students assume their own personal responsibility for learning Korean effectively. The sixth question asked the participants which specific characteristics of the New Zealand student

population teachers consider necessary to take into account when designing and teaching Korean language acquisition courses. Finally, the teachers were given an additional opportunity to express their thoughts and opinions on how to improve Korean language acquisition courses if they could do anything to make the Korean course easier for them to teach more effectively.

4.5.3. Procedure

The individual interviews with teachers were conducted between November 2010 and January 2011. After obtaining permission from the Head of the School and the course coordinators, the researcher recruited interviewees directly, asking whether the teachers were willing to participate in an interview. Once they had given their permission, she subsequently visited them in their offices at an arranged time. With both a written PIS and verbal explanation, she informed the teachers of the main purpose of this research, ensuring that they understood that their participation was totally voluntary and that they had the right not to participate, to withdraw from participation at any time during the interview, or to retract their information within one week of giving the interview. The researcher obtained the informed written consent forms from the teachers before their interviews (see Appendix H). The interviews were conducted in Korean because the teacher interviewees and the researcher are native Koreans. Each interview took approximately one hour. The interviews were audio recorded with the participants' permission and the recorded data were transcribed and translated into English for analysis by the researcher. The researcher subsequently gave a draft of her reports in English on the interviews to the teachers, and gave them the opportunity to comment on the findings and withdraw any points that they would prefer to be excluded.

4.5.4. Analysis

First, the data were transcribed by focusing on the content of the interviews, not on each exact utterance (e.g., excluding unnecessary hesitation sounds such as 'uh' or 'um'). The transcripts were translated from Korean into English before analysis. In order to verify the reliability of the translation, all the interview transcripts were checked by a Korean-native speaker. The researcher explained that the purpose of this investigation was to better understand the teachers' perspectives and asked the reviewer to check the translation focusing on the overall meaning of what the interviewees said (and not on

each word), and to indicate any significant translation issues. He reported that there were no significant issues in translating the transcripts. The transcripts were therefore regarded as valid and reliable reflections of the intent of the interviews. Once the validity and reliability of the translation had been determined, it was proof-read by a native English speaker and language teacher.

Although the interview questions were asked in a pre-determined order, the semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to expand relevant questions and the participants to express additional opinions and information regarding the research topics. The data were identified, analysed, and described according to the main themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As previously indicated, because of the limited number of teachers, the findings focused holistically on what was found, not on who commented.

Firstly, in order to identify what teachers believe about effective teaching and how they teach Korean, the teachers' responses on what they believe is the most important aspect when teaching Korean, and the activities they frequently use in their courses, were grouped and analysed along with which activities they want to integrate more into their courses. As the findings from the students' data revealed that grammar teaching and CF were two areas of most concern in terms of classroom approaches, the data regarding these topics were separately analysed to examine how the teachers reported that they teach grammar and correct errors in their classroom and why they do so. Secondly, all responses were analysed to examine what the teachers report that they do to make classes effective and to stimulate students' interest in learning the language. The data revealed the important roles of teachers when teaching Korean and supporting their students. Thirdly, the data regarding teachers' expectations of their students were examined in order to clarify what they believe about the students' own role in achieving successful learning outcomes. Fourthly, this investigation aimed to explore special characteristics that should be considered when teaching Korean in the New Zealand context. The data were therefore analysed to determine specific characteristics of the New Zealand student population that teachers, on the basis of these teachers' reports, should consider when designing courses and teaching Korean. Finally, teachers' suggestions for making it easier to teach the Korean course more effectively were analysed.

Once the data had been grouped and analysed, the findings were checked by the participants (see Appendix I). This member checking is an effective tool to establish the accuracy and credibility of qualitative analyses (Bradshaw, 2001; DiPardo et al., 2006; Turner & Coen, 2008). The teacher participants were presented with a draft report on the interviews to check and given the opportunity to tell the researcher if there were any points they wished to clarify, correct or have excluded. After the teachers' feedback was returned, one excerpt was modified to clarify what the teacher meant and two excerpts were excluded according to the teacher's personal request.

4.6. Conclusion

Experience of gathering data for this study revealed to the researcher that employing mixed methods is useful in finding out what students need in and believe about learning Korean and what teachers believe about the teaching of Korean. The focus group interviews enabled the researcher to obtain ideas concerning what themes should be more carefully taken into account, themes that would and would not be useful to include in questionnaire and interview questions, and the most appropriate ways to conduct enquiries, such as whether to adopt closed or open-ended questions. Through the use of a questionnaire, it was possible to give an outline of students' preferences for teaching approaches and beliefs about teachers' and their own roles. Moreover, open-ended questions in the questionnaire contributed to better understanding reasons for taking Korean and potential motivational and demotivational factors in learning the language. The follow-up individual interviews were effective in obtaining information in detail with regard to the issues and considerations which were difficult to adequately examine through the questionnaire. In particular, with regard to preferences for classroom activities, the method of semi-structured interviews was conducive to grasping the reasons why the students had a strong desire for having more interaction with other students, while they highly valued teachers' direct explanation of grammar in class. Finally, because of the limited number of teacher participants, this investigation was not able to collect quantitative data from teachers of Korean. Conducting in-depth interviews, however, enabled gathering of information pertaining to teachers' perspectives and expectations about teaching Korean effectively in a New Zealand tertiary educational context.

Chapter 4 – Methodology

The next four chapters provide the findings from each aspect of the study and discuss how to develop Korean language programmes considering students' and teachers' perspectives and current teaching and learning situations.

Chapter 5. Study 1: Focus group interviews

5.1. Introduction

In order to inform the design and development of detailed questionnaire and interview questions to be used in the main study, the pilot study focused on examining students' expectations and beliefs about learning Korean effectively and their reasons for studying the language. This initial, exploratory research utilised semi-structured interviews, which were conducted with eleven students in two small focus groups (Stage I and Stage II). The discussion was focused on students' preferences in terms of how they would like to be taught, important influences on their learning, and their reasons for taking a Korean language acquisition course. With regard to preferred teaching approaches, the students primarily discussed the issues of grammar teaching, CF, grouping patterns and teaching materials. The previous chapter contained a detailed description of the method used in conducting the focus group interviews. As noted in that chapter, discussion of the main overarching research questions is provided in Chapter 9, but the following five specific questions are addressed and discussed in this chapter:

1. What classroom activities (e.g., grammar teaching, communicative activities) for learning Korean do students particularly like, and why? – RQ 1a
2. What classroom activities do students not like so much, and why? – RQ 1a
3. What factors do students think are important for them to learn Korean effectively (e.g., teachers' roles, students' roles)? – RQ 1b, 1c
4. What are students' reasons for learning Korean at university? – RQ 1d, 1e, 1f
5. If students can suggest one thing to make the Korean course more helpful to their learning, what would it be? – RQs 1a – 1g

This chapter presents findings on preferences for classroom activities, important factors in encouraging students to learn the language successfully, and the students' reasons for studying Korean at university. Finally, the findings are discussed in relation to previous studies relevant to each area.

5.2. Findings

The findings of this research revealed that participants generally held similar perspectives about classroom activities and effective teaching approaches in learning Korean. At the same time, however, a few noticeable differences were discovered between the two focus groups.

5.2.1. Preferences for classroom activities

With the aim of exploring how students of Korean wanted to learn the language and what teaching approaches they perceived were effective when learning in the classroom, the participants were asked which classroom activities they did and did not like so much. They mainly discussed grammar teaching, CF, grouping patterns, and teaching materials.

5.2.1.1. Grammar teaching

Out of eleven participants, five Stage I and four Stage II students discussed how they felt about grammar teaching in the classroom. All of these participants indicated that they enjoyed learning grammar in class, expressing a belief that grammar instruction is one of the most important aspects in the course. One Stage I participant explained how he found the current teaching process. According to him, there were three lectures and one tutorial each week, and certain grammar points were presented through PowerPoint slides in the lectures while practice time was given in the tutorial. Although he felt that it would be better to have more tutorials, if this was not possible then he was satisfied with the way the lecturer taught because he believed that learning grammar was important in a Stage I language course.

The participants also discussed how they wanted to learn grammar. All nine students maintained that they preferred the teacher to explain grammar points directly rather than have students discover grammar rules on their own in advance. One Stage I student, for instance, commented that he did not “know the rules so the teacher should explain grammar points.” Another Stage I student elaborated on this point, saying that “the teacher is very important at this stage because we don’t know anything about Korean and it is the teacher that gives us direction.” One Stage II student also said that the

teacher's explanation of grammar points was more efficient than their own individual efforts to learn the rules because it saved time.

Two other Stage I students asserted that they wanted to learn grammar through the process of statement, explanation, example, and practice, and the others agreed. The remaining Stage I student who had not previously indicated a preference stated that "it is much better to show possible examples because it is really hard to fully understand grammar points without examples." Similarly, one Stage II student suggested that it would be helpful to learn grammar with a large number of set examples highlighting the contexts in which the grammar points could be applied.

In particular, the discussions revealed that the Stage I students expected teachers to take the entire responsibility for grammar teaching because they believed they themselves could not comprehend grammar on their own. Three out of the four Stage II participants remarked, however, that it was helpful to preview the grammar points that they would be learning in an upcoming class. One of these participants explained the importance of the student's own preparatory effort, stating:

When I study the grammar, I always do it before the class. At that stage I don't have a clear understanding, just a vague understanding. When I get to the class, it just gets fine-tuned by the teacher. I think it is important for students to study grammar by themselves before the class and teachers need to encourage that more.

These findings indicate that students of Korean appreciate teacher-led, grammar-focused instruction with examples. Furthermore, the data suggest that although there is still a perceived need for the teacher to explain, students with a higher level of language proficiency may be more willing than those with a lower language level to assume a level of responsibility for self-study of grammar ahead of class.

5.2.1.2. Corrective feedback

Five Stage I and four Stage II participants discussed the topic of CF. All of them considered the teacher's error correction as important, but had different perspectives on when and how the teacher should correct their mistakes. Two Stage I participants, and one from Stage II, indicated that it was crucial for the teacher to correct errors on the spot because it helped students to recognise what they had just done wrong so that they could improve their learning. They indicated that they were not concerned about the

methods of the teacher's CF. One of the Stage I students noted that "we are all learning here and we are at the same level and it is normal to make mistakes, so I expect the teacher to correct my mistakes in the classroom." The Stage II student also expressed a strong preference for error correction, suggesting, "Just correct every error: I think especially in Western countries, most people are not upset by correction."

One out of the four Stage II students, however, felt that the teacher should wait until students finished what they wanted to say, and then suggest the correct version in a sensitive manner. Furthermore, three out of the five Stage I students stressed that the teacher should consider the learning environment and the students' attitudes carefully when giving CF. They said that they felt highly embarrassed when the teacher corrected their mistakes loudly enough for other students to hear. One of these Stage I participants gave the reason that he preferred the teacher to correct errors in tutorials as follows:

In the tutorial, yes because there are a very few people in my tutorial and it is less embarrassing. But perhaps not in the lectures because it is embarrassing. If the teacher corrects mistakes in front of the whole class, everyone can hear it and it doesn't help students' learning.

He also felt that laughing at a student's error in front of the whole class caused embarrassment and was unhelpful. He asserted that such behaviour should be avoided. A second student added, "[the teacher should] correct errors nicely, not in a threatening way." A third student noted that many students avoided answering questions that lecturers asked in front of the entire class because they did not want others to hear them answer incorrectly.

These findings indicate that students have a positive attitude toward teachers' error correction, but being embarrassed in front of the class in any way would likely discourage them from attempting to use Korean. The data suggest that the students who prefer the teacher to correct errors immediately may be more ready for their errors being corrected and be less worried about potential embarrassment in front of the whole class.

5.2.1.3. Grouping patterns

All eleven participants discussed grouping patterns, and seven of them noted that they were in favour of paired or group work. In this respect, there was a notable difference between the two focus groups. Three Stage I participants commented that they enjoyed

small group work because they could help one another even when someone in their group did not understand. They did stress, however, that they were hesitant to work in pairs because they were concerned about being partnered with someone who might not be as enthusiastic about participating in such an interaction, or be capable of working with another on allocated tasks. Four Stage II participants, on the other hand, maintained that they liked working in a pair with a “good” partner, that is, someone who had a similar level of language ability and with whom they had a close relationship. One of these students explained that if he knew his partner well, he knew his partner’s strengths and weaknesses, and felt comfortable communicating with this person. Such awareness helped smooth interaction. Another Stage II student remarked that it was advantageous to work with a person of a higher level because the partner could help her, but at the same time, she felt that it was not so beneficial because she became easily discouraged when comparing herself with this person.

One Stage II participant, who had not spoken previously in discussion on this topic, expressed his preference for working individually and as part of an entire class. He believed that he could use his creativity better in individual work, and that a large group involved more interaction with others, with students often continuing to converse at length. One point of note with respect to his response is that the Stage II class in which he was enrolled contained only eleven students. This student concluded his opinion as follows:

It depends on what you’re discussing. If it’s a very simple thing, saying it in a pair very quickly, but if it’s a topic we need more creativity, it is better to work in a big group. Maybe the teacher should use an appropriate mixture.

The remaining two Stage I and one Stage II participants who had not previously discussed specific grouping patterns indicated that it was important to balance grouping patterns according to the activity and the aim of the lesson. One of these students made the observation that the effectiveness of interaction in group work depended on the teacher’s personality. He said that if the teacher was active and supportive, he felt comfortable interacting with others in the classroom, but if the teacher was reserved, he felt that students were not willing to communicate, so group work was not as effective. He added that teachers should be proactive and encourage students to make conversation if they believed that it was worth performing a task in a group.

The findings revealed that many students valued communicative interaction with others in a pair or small group. They also suggest that language proficiency levels and class size may affect students' preferences for grouping patterns. In addition, according to the data, some students noted the importance of teachers' roles in working in a group effectively and obtaining a balance in grouping patterns.

5.2.1.4. Teaching materials

Five Stage I and six Stage II participants discussed teaching materials and all commented on the core textbooks. They were generally satisfied with the textbooks currently used in the courses. In particular, the Stage I students said that they liked the explanations and examples of the grammar points and the vocabulary lists. In contrast, two of the Stage II students commented that in their textbook there were vague explanations of grammar points, as well as unknown words in the examples in the grammar sections, words which were not included in the vocabulary list. In response, another Stage II student suggested that the teacher could elaborate on the ambiguous explanations and cover the unknown words. All Stage II participants also expressed a desire to have the model answers to the exercises in the textbooks. One of these students, for example, asserted that “it is very important to have the answer book for the textbook” because he really wanted to know whether his answers were correct or wrong when studying by himself at home. In addition, the participants did not mind using textbooks from the US because they understood that there were limited options available.

Furthermore, all participants agreed that movies, dramas, and variety shows on video and DVD would encourage their learning of Korean. The discussion revealed, however, that the two focus groups held noticeably different expectations of these audio-visual materials. The Stage I participants seemed to regard videos as a starting point or motivation before actual teaching. They liked watching videos to see the culture and language in action and they did not mind whether they could understand the language used in the scene. For instance, one of them said that “some videos showing [images] like tourism might get the whole class motivated to study Korean.” Another commented further that “it doesn't matter that we don't understand what they are saying [in the scene]... Languages have a lot to do with cultures as well so we can see the culture in action.” Although two other Stage I participants admitted video might be a good reinforcement as a learning and teaching aid, they argued that they could borrow and

watch dramas or movies at home. They preferred their teachers to focus on teaching in class time grammar points that the students could not understand on their own.

The Stage II participants, on the other hand, wanted to watch videos that matched their language ability so that they could understand the content. Two of them indicated that it was not beneficial to watch dramas they could not comprehend. One of these students revealed his dissatisfaction with watching dramas in class, saying that “I didn’t like dramas in the classroom because we were not ready for that... Also, we can watch drama in our spare time.” The other student commented that he preferred programmes such as children’s animation, which might be more appropriate to their language level, rather than dramas which contained complicated structures and rapid speech, the content of which they could hardly understand. The rest of the participants agreed with his view. All participants in Stage II emphasised that it was important for teachers to consider the students’ language levels when they chose audio-visual materials.

Finally, three Stage I students maintained that authentic materials, such as articles from newspapers and flyers from supermarkets, would be useful in learning the language because they linked to what was occurring in real life. One of them recalled her experience of learning Korean in China, saying “For example, in China, teachers printed and used articles about artists in newspapers.” She enjoyed studying them because many students, including herself, were interested in Korean singers and songs.

The data indicated that the participants were generally content with the core textbooks, believing that the teacher could compensate for any deficiencies. It was also clear that students wanted the teacher to use audio-visual materials, such as DVDs or videos, and authentic materials, such as newspapers, which present Korean culture. With regard to audio-visual materials, the findings revealed that the students with a higher level of language proficiency were concerned about the language level of DVDs or videos because they felt a strong desire to understand their content.

5.2.2. Important factors in learning Korean

Participants were also asked to express their thoughts on the various factors that affected the successful study of Korean. Five Stage I and four Stage II participants discussed this topic, and it was determined that the teacher was the most important factor in learning Korean. Four Stage I and two Stage II students expected teachers to

foster a positive learning atmosphere. Further to this comment, one of the Stage II participants stated that it was important for teachers to take an interest in individual students and be willing to learn their names and backgrounds. He emphasised that having such a teacher created a friendly class in which students were less embarrassed about making mistakes and more comfortable trying new tasks. As a consequence, in his view, students would learn more quickly. Two other Stage I students agreed that the teacher initiated and guided student learning.

Tutorial sessions were also highly valued for effective learning because tutorials provided more opportunities for students to interact with and support one another, and associated group activities such as listening and speaking improved retention of what they had learned. Three Stage I participants and one Stage II participant stressed that Korean language courses should therefore provide more tutorials from the very start of the first-year course. Furthermore, two of these Stage I students remarked that it would be helpful if teachers created opportunities to practise Korean outside the classroom. One of them suggested that “[the teacher] can organise a conversation group between students studying Korean and Korean native speakers.” The other added that “teachers should encourage students to meet Korean speakers individually or in a small group on a regular basis,” noting that it was important to learn a small amount every day in order to establish a solid language foundation.

According to the findings, students of Korean seem to rely on their teachers in many ways, such as facilitating a positive and friendly learning environment and providing opportunities to communicate in Korean in and outside the classroom. It should be noted, however, that no participants mentioned their own roles as an important factor in learning Korean successfully.

5.2.3. Reasons for taking Korean at university

The eleven participants gave a variety of reasons for taking Korean with six of them having more than one. For instance, one Stage I participant gave three reasons, saying that he had many Korean friends, intended to work with Korean people in the future, and wanted to learn more about Korean people and culture. Table 5 shows the eight reasons given and the number of students who indicated each category.

Table 5: Reasons for studying Korean and corresponding numbers of students

Reason for studying Korean	Number of students
1. an interest in Korean language, people, and/or culture	5
2. relationships with Korean friends or the local Korean community	4
3. an interest in learning languages	3
4. better job opportunities in the global market	3
5. a desire to work with Korean people or gain employment in Korea in the future	2
6. acquisition of practical skills for study and life in Korea	2
7. fulfilment of a general requirement paper	1
8. previous positive experience learning Korean at high school	1

The most common reasons for taking Korean were related to Korea’s culture and its people (1 and 2 in Table 5). The students, who had mentioned Korean-related reasons, indicated that they had a positive impression of Korean people and Korean culture. Two Stage I students, and one in Stage II, stated, for example, that they enjoyed Korean music, celebrities, dramas, and movies, and usually watched Korean programmes on TV or the internet at home. The Stage II student mentioned that “I started watching Korean dramas – Korean stars are really famous in Thailand. I like Korean culture, language, and people.” Another participant who was motivated to learn Korean through an interest in Korean society explained that those students who studied Korean seriously were interested in Korean culture. He felt it was crucial for teachers to include culture in language classes in order to sustain this interest.

The next most common reasons related to future careers (4 and 5 in Table 5), followed by a genuine interest in learning languages (3 in Table 5). Three of the participants, who had named future career prospects as their reason for learning Korean, noted that Korea’s economic power was important in the world market, and they thought there would be greater employment opportunities if they could speak Korean. Two other students mentioned that they were planning to go to Korea to study and wanted to acquire practical skills to study and live in Korea (6 in Table 5). Additionally, there were two other specific reasons (7 and 8 in Table 5). One aspect to be noted in this light is that there was only one student who indicated “fulfilment of a general requirement paper” as the reason for taking Korean although four out of the five Stage I participants took the Korean language acquisition course as their GE paper.

Furthermore, all participants discussed their expectations of learning Korean at university and ten of them remarked that improving their speaking skills was one of their major expectations of the course. However, the discussion revealed that the Stage I and II students had different expectations of the language proficiency levels they hoped to attain. Four Stage I participants stated that they would like to be able to “reach a basic conversational ability.” In contrast, three Stage II students had higher expectations of their speaking abilities. One Stage II participant, for example, said that “I would like to be able to communicate with people on a normal basis, not just do basic conversation.” Furthermore, two other students commented that listening was also an important language skill they would like to improve. Finally, the remaining Stage I participant, who had not previously mentioned a desire to improve his speaking skills, commented that because he was planning to go to Korea, he believed that his speaking and listening skills would improve when studying there. He expected the course to teach him only the Korean alphabet and how to read Korean words.

The findings suggest that learners of Korean have many different reasons for taking a Korean course at university, but the primary reasons are interest in Korean language, culture, and people. The findings also revealed that most of the participants expected to be able to communicate in Korean as a consequence of learning Korean, and speaking was the most important language skill for the students to develop.

5.2.4. Suggestions to make the Korean course more effective

Finally, all participants were asked to suggest one thing that they would like to change or add in order to make the Korean course more conducive to learning. Three Stage I and two Stage II participants maintained that the first stage of the Korean course should provide more tutorials in which they could learn Korean with a small class rather than lectures with a large class. They expressed a desire to have more interactive activities from the first semester of Stage I. One Stage I student stressed that tutorials were very helpful for learning a language and more of them were needed. One Stage II student suggested that there should be more speaking activities in small groups because she believed that interaction helped her to consolidate what she had studied. Another Stage II student said that, in the Stage I course, which was a large class of over one hundred students, “a lot of students took Korean as a general education paper and were not

interested in Korean so it was an awful learning environment. If I hadn't had a personal interest in Korean, I would have wanted to drop the subject.” He added:

In the second semester in Stage I, the course was taught too much in English, I found. We didn't start having classes in a bubble of only speaking in Korean until this year. So you see the results this year. Our levels are lower than what they should be at Stage II. So I really think that language education should begin, from the first semester, with as much spoken Korean as possible.

Furthermore, three other Stage I and two other Stage II students commented on the importance of motivating students to maintain their interest in learning Korean. One Stage II participant suggested that listening to songs or watching videos just for fun, not for credit, could help keep students interested and have them subconsciously absorb the language. The remaining Stage II and two Stage I participants believed that showing Korean culture and society through videos could strongly motivate students to learn the language. In particular, the two Stage I students noted that those who were serious about studying Korean were interested in Korean culture so it was crucial to bring a good deal of culture into language instruction to encourage students to maintain their interest. One of the two Stage I participants suggested that the teacher should consider various ways of motivating learners, saying that “if the teacher relies only on the textbook to try to engage and interest students, it is the wrong way.” The other Stage I student commented further that teachers could “create some way of notifying people interested in the culture of Korean-related social activities or events as an extra-curricular activity.” The remaining Stage I participant, who had not previously commented, noted that it was important that the teacher recognised that students had different levels of language proficiency in the beginner course because some students had previous experience of learning Korean while others had none. He indicated that his teacher seemed to assume that every student had the same level of ability, and it frustrated and discouraged many students.

The discussions revealed several suggestions to make Korean language courses more conducive to learning. Based on the students' opinions on effective learning of Korean, the teacher should:

- provide more tutorial times with small classes than lectures with a large class
- provide more interactive activities from Stage I

- create a Korean speaking environment by using the Korean language as much as possible from the very beginning in Stage I
- offer listening activities using songs or videos just for fun
- integrate cultural aspects into language instruction
- facilitate cultural events outside of the classroom
- understand that students in the first year have different levels of language ability.

5.2.5. Summary

The findings presented have revealed the students' diverse opinions about how to learn Korean effectively and why they took a Korean language class at university. Firstly, the findings showed that students of Korean favoured both grammar-focused teaching and approaches that may be considered more communicative. They expressed a desire for teachers to correct their errors with thoughtful care, and many of them had a preference for paired or group work as a grouping pattern. In terms of effective teaching materials, it was most frequently recommended that cultural aspects should be integrated through audio-visual materials such as videos in class. Secondly, the data indicated that students of Korean mostly considered the teacher as the most important factor in successfully learning Korean, while they did not comment on their own roles. Thirdly, according to the findings, an interest in Korean language, culture, and people generally motivated the participants to learn Korean. Most participants wanted to be able to communicate with Korean people and wished to improve their speaking skills most. Fourthly, to make the Korean language courses more helpful, it was suggested that the teacher should provide more tutorial times with small-sized classes from the first semester of Stage I, be aware of students' different levels of Korean in Stage I, at times provide listening activities just for fun, incorporate cultural aspects in and out of class and foster a speaking environment with more interactive activities. Finally, the findings suggest that individual differences such as language proficiency levels could influence students' expectations and beliefs about learning Korean.

5.3. Discussion

The primary purpose of the focus group interviews with students currently learning Korean was to establish students' needs and reasons for studying the language, with a

view to developing a detailed questionnaire and interview questions to be used in the main study. This chapter has dealt with several crucial considerations in relation to which themes should be more carefully taken into account, themes that would and would not be useful to include in a questionnaire and interview questions, and the most appropriate ways to conduct enquiries, such as whether to adopt closed or open-ended questions.

5.3.1. Students' preferences for classroom activities

The first and second questions addressed in the focus group interviews related to students' preferences with regard to classroom activities. Similar to the findings reported by A. Brown (2009) and Schulz (1996, 2001), students highly valued grammar-focused teaching and enjoyed learning grammar. They seemed to prefer teachers to explicitly explain grammar as a discrete activity before practice. The findings indicated that they wanted to learn grammar through the process of statement, explanation, a large number of set examples, and practice, which is “the classic lesson structure of Presentation-Practice-Production, or ‘PPP’” (Klapper, 2003, p. 34). This suggests that Korean learners may have a stronger preference for explicit grammar teaching rather than implicit instruction. This is consistent with DeKeyser's (1998) vision that for certain learners, implicit teaching of grammar is not enough; it is necessary to incorporate explicit teaching followed by systematic practice.

Furthermore, they liked to learn grammar rules directly from teachers rather than having opportunities to discover the rules on their own before being taught. According to Ellis' (2001b) and Nunan's (1991) definitions, the Korean learners preferred deductive instruction to inductive (cf. Ausubel, 1964; McKay, 1987). In particular, the students who were of a lower level of language proficiency strongly relied on the teacher's precise explanation of grammar. Those with a higher level of language proficiency, on the other hand, seemed to believe that their self-study of grammar before class would help them learn Korean more effectively, which suggests that they may be more self-directed learners (Griffiths, 2008). Also, teachers should be aware that correcting errors in a positive manner will likely be beneficial, but public embarrassment can lessen students' enthusiasm for attempting to use the language in class (cf. H. D. Brown, 2007; Fukai, 2000).

At the same time, the students of Korean seemed to favour teaching approaches that focus more on communication, similar to the L2 learners in Loewen et al.'s (2009) and Richards and Gravatt's (1998) studies. This suggested that they preferred a communicative approach to structure-focused instruction. The participants in the present study expressed a desire to have interactive activities with their classmates, acknowledging the advantages of cooperative learning through group work activities (cf. Carter, 2006; Fukai, 2000; Jacobs & McCafferty, 2006; Long & Proter, 1985). The data provided no clear reason why the students wished both a structure-focused approach and communicative instruction. The findings therefore indicate a need for further study in this area. The findings also suggest that it may not be useful to determine which approach, either a "traditional" teaching approach or a more "contemporary" one, is more appropriate in a Korean language programme. Instead, it may be more helpful to investigate how students want to learn Korean specifically in terms of grammar teaching, CF, and group work.

Furthermore, the data revealed that although many of the participants enjoyed paired or group work, as found in H. Kim's (2003) case study, there were some different perspectives between the two groups on grouping patterns. The students who had a lower level of language proficiency tended to favour small group work because they believed that, in a small group, they could help one another when they were stuck in working on allocated tasks. The students with a higher level, on the other hand, seemed to have a stronger preference for paired work with a "good" partner who had a similar level of language ability and with whom they perhaps had a close relationship. In this light, one Stage II student's remark should be noted: that working with a person of a higher level could help learning, but at the same time, it could discourage interaction by one being compared with this person. The data suggest that the participants value supportive social interaction. They also had somewhat different views, however, from Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD), in which learners develop their language skill during a social activity with support of a partner whose language proficiency level is generally higher. In addition, the findings indicated that some students favoured individual or whole class work, suggesting that teachers balance grouping patterns according to the activity and the aim of the lesson. It can therefore be said that the teacher should not focus on using a specific group activity, but take into account various grouping patterns in order to meet students' expectations.

Finally, with regard to teaching materials to learn Korean effectively, the findings showed that students of Korean were not concerned about the main textbooks published in the US (S. Kim, 2005), believing that teachers could compensate for shortcomings by using other audio-visual materials (e.g., DVDs, videos) and authentic materials (e.g., newspapers). In particular, it was clear that DVDs or videos were the most preferred teaching materials, and using audio-visual materials reflecting Korean culture and real life would be an effective way to encourage learners to retain their motivation for learning the language. Cheung (2001) explained that because “popular culture touches the lives of students, and grows out of their natural experience and interest,” it is beneficial to integrate popular music, dramas, movies, and so forth into teaching (p. 58). In relation to the language level of audio-visual materials, the findings revealed that the Stage II students seemed to be concerned about the language level because they wanted to understand the content, while the Stage I group viewed audio-visual materials as a motivator, and they were not so much worried about the level of language.

5.3.2. Influential factors in learning Korean and teachers’ roles

In response to the third question of the focus group interviews, this study supports the assertions in previous studies (e.g., Cheung, 2001; Dörnyei, 2001; Fukai, 2000) that teachers can motivate students to learn an L2 successfully in various ways. The data suggest that it is vital to facilitate a positive learning environment in which students are encouraged to actively use the language (cf. H. D. Brown, 2007; Fukai, 2000; Ghaith & Kawtharani, 2006). In this respect, more tutorial sessions were desired from the very start of Stage I courses, which provided more opportunities for students to interact with and support one another so that they develop their listening and speaking skills effectively. This is one of the benefits of cooperative learning in group work, as indicated in H. D. Brown (2007) and Jacobs and McCafferty (2006).

Furthermore, it is worth noting the learning climate of the Stage I courses, which were large classes of over one hundred students. In other words, lack of tutorial times with a small class in the first semester of Stage I could lead to decrease in learning motivation and may lead to the decision to discontinue study (cf. Falout et al., 2009). In the discussion, one Stage II student stated, based on his experience, that “a lot of students took Korean as a general education paper and were not interested in Korean so it was an awful learning environment. If I hadn’t had a personal interest in Korean, I would have

wanted to drop the subject.” This comment indicated the importance of learning an L2 in a “psychologically safe classroom climate” in which learners feel that they belong to the class and are supported (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, pp. 110-111). As T. Bell (2005) noted, “lecturing may be effective in a history course but not in a beginning foreign language course” (p. 259).

At the same time, it is worth noting that the teacher can also potentially be a negative factor who can inadvertently discourage students (cf. Dörnyei, 2001; Falout et al., 2009). With this in mind, specific attention should be paid to the comment of one participant, who suggested that the teacher should recognise that students starting Stage I may have differing levels of ability and should therefore, in pedagogical practice, consider their individual differences (cf. A. Brown, 2009). In order to eliminate or reduce potential demotivating elements and provide a supportive and positive learning environment, it is essential to understand the factors which discourage students’ learning in the classroom. Therefore, the main research following from this pilot study examines the major factors which influence students’ decisions to continue or discontinue their study.

In addition, the findings suggest that students rely heavily on teachers to motivate them in their learning. The data reveal, however, no clear evidence of what the students think they themselves should do in order to learn Korean effectively. Furthermore, the extent to which they were willing to assume individual responsibility for learning was not clear, although those who had a higher level of language proficiency appeared to better understand the effectiveness of self-directed study and be more ready for it. Students’ own contribution to the learning process is one of the most important factors in successful language acquisition (Carter, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014). Therefore, there is scope to investigate not only the teachers’ roles in teaching the language effectively but also the students’ responsibilities for learning successfully.

5.3.3. Students’ reasons for and expectations in learning Korean

The fourth question of the focus group interviews addressed the reasons for learning Korean at university. The data revealed that many students had more than one reason for learning Korean, and a few students had very specific reasons for taking Korean at university. In common with the findings from Choe’s (2005) and H. Kim’s (2003) research, this study has revealed that the primary reasons for studying Korean are

related to aspects such as Korean culture and society, improved employment opportunities and a genuine interest in languages. Furthermore, the data indicated that students of Korean expected to be able to communicate with Korean people as a consequence of taking Korean. They also considered speaking the most important language skill, although the two Stage groups had different expectations of the level of language proficiency they hoped to attain. This attitude may explain the preference of the students of Korean for the use of more communicative approaches in their courses, although they also clearly valued grammar instruction.

5.3.4. Influence of individual differences on students' preferences and reasons for learning Korean

The data reveal that although it was difficult to identify ethnic grouping as a variable that made a difference because of the limited number of participants, students' different language proficiency levels, which could influence their ideas and views about effective learning (e.g., Banno, 2003; A. Brown, 2009; Ellis, 1986; Lightbown & Spada, 2006), was taken into account. For example, the data showed that the Stage II students were more willing to take responsibility for self-directed study than the Stage I counterparts. Therefore, there is a need for further clarification regarding the influence of students' individual differences, such as language proficiency levels and cultural backgrounds, on their reasons for learning Korean and their expectations of successfully learning the language.

5.4. Conclusion

Together with the research literature, the findings from this pilot study in the form of focus group interviews have provided suggestions about themes that should be included in questionnaire and interview questions for the main study, and the most appropriate ways to ask questions. Firstly, it was apparent that the main research should focus on investigating how students want to learn the Korean language, specifically in terms of grammar teaching, CF, and group work. Furthermore, the main research should unveil, at the same time, the reasons for the students' preferences toward two different classroom methods: structure-focused instruction and communicative approach. Secondly, it should further explore not only the teachers' responsibilities in teaching but also the students' responsibilities in learning. Thirdly, there is a need for greater

clarification regarding the impact of students' individual differences on their beliefs and needs when learning the language. Fourthly, the findings showed no specific learning issues that needed further investigation in relation to teaching materials including the core textbooks, so it was decided that this would no longer be included in the questionnaires and interviews for the main study. Finally, it was considered that open-ended questions would be useful for discovering students' reasons for learning Korean.

Chapter 6. Study 2: Questionnaire-based study

6.1. Introduction

The primary purpose of the questionnaire-based investigation in the main study was to explore what students learning the Korean language perceive that they need, and what they believe about the process. The findings from the initial focus group interviews in the pilot study suggested a need to further investigate how students of Korean want to learn Korean, why they want to take a Korean language acquisition course, and what makes them decide to continue or discontinue their studies. As the discussion from the focus group interviews had suggested, open-ended questions were used when asking about students' expectations in and their reasons for learning Korean. The findings also indicated a need to examine students' beliefs about not only the teachers' roles in teaching but also the students' roles in learning. In addition, there was scope for further clarification in relation to how students' individual differences influence their beliefs and expectations.

Following on from the conduct of the focus group interviews, a questionnaire was designed and utilised as one of the main research instruments. Out of the 120 questionnaires that were distributed, 77 were completed and returned. Quantitative and qualitative data derived from the questionnaire revealed students' opinions about their preferred teaching approaches in terms of grammar instruction, CF, and grouping patterns, their expectations of teachers, beliefs about their own roles in effective learning, reasons for and expectations of learning Korean, and reasons for discontinuing their studies. Chapter 4 described the method used in conducting the questionnaire-based part of the study. The following questions were addressed in this questionnaire-based research:

1. How do students want to learn Korean? – RQ 1a
 - a. How do they want to learn grammar?
 - b. How do they want their errors to be corrected when learning Korean?
 - c. How do they want to be involved in classroom activities?
2. What do students expect teachers to do in order to teach Korean effectively? – RQ 1b

3. What do students believe that they should do in order to learn Korean effectively? – RQ 1c
4. To what extent are students willing to take their own responsibility for learning Korean effectively? – RQ 1c
5. Why do students learn Korean at university in New Zealand?
 - a. Why do they take a tertiary Korean language course? – RQ 1d
 - b. What do they expect to be able to do as a consequence of studying Korean? – RQ 1e
 - c. Why do they decide not to continue learning Korean? – RQ 1f
6. How are students' individual differences (i.e., cultural and educational backgrounds and language proficiency levels) related to their perceived learning needs and beliefs? – RQ 1g

This chapter presents the findings from that part of the study and, when there is a significant difference among groups categorised by language proficiency levels, ethnicity, and educational backgrounds, this difference is also indicated in each relevant section. Finally, the results are discussed with reference to the literature.

6.2. Results

6.2.1. Students' preferences for teaching approaches

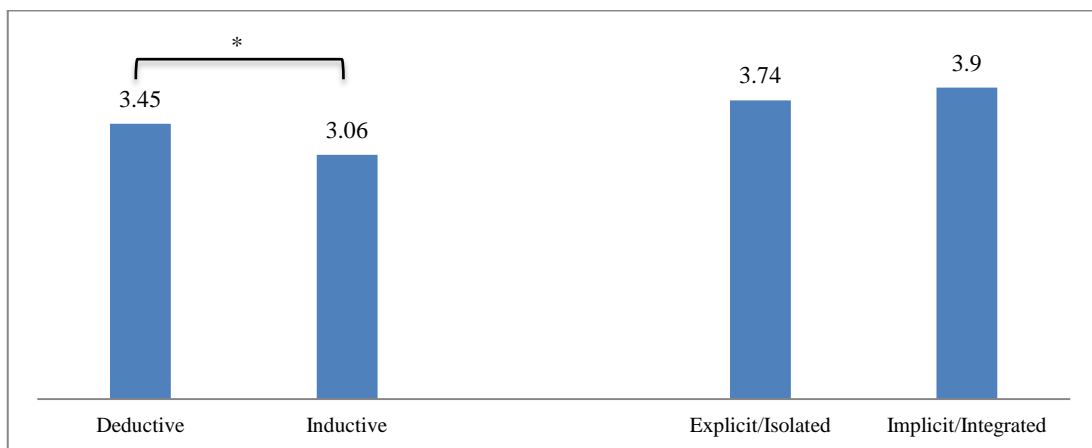
6.2.1.1. Grammar teaching

The first ten questionnaire items of Section 2 in the questionnaire were designed to determine students' preferences for methods of grammar teaching. (Section 1 was intended to obtain learner background information.) Overall, Table 6 shows that the most preferred method was learning grammar by reading a written explanation and completing exercises (Item 4). Interestingly, it also reveals that the students preferred more interactive activities with other students in their course (Item 10). The teaching approach students preferred least was focusing on communication and teaching grammar only when necessary (Item 7). These results appear to indicate a potential contradiction in that, on the one hand, students preferred formal grammar teaching while, on the other, they seemed to want to have more communicative activities in their course.

Table 6: Mean scores from the highest to the lowest for students' preferences for grammar teaching, along with the standard deviations

Questionnaire Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
4. learning grammar by reading and practice	4.23	.74	77
10. wanting more communicative activities in my course	3.95	.99	77
5. learning grammar during activities	3.90	.77	77
8. preference for practising real-life situations to learn grammar	3.87	.91	77
6. learning grammar by itself	3.77	.89	77
3. learning grammar before using Korean	3.74	.98	77
2. learning grammar from teachers without the process of discovery	3.45	1.03	77
9. wanting more formal study of grammar in my course	3.14	1.05	77
1. having opportunity to discover grammar rules before learning	3.06	1.02	77
7. focusing on communication and learning grammar only when necessary	3.06	1.09	77

In order to determine which grammar teaching method students preferred – deductive or inductive grammar teaching (Item 2; Item 1), explicit/isolated or implicit/integrated grammar teaching (Item 3; Item 5) – paired *t*-tests were conducted (see Figure 1 for the comparison of the mean scores).

Figure 1: Comparison of preference mean scores for pairs of grammar teaching models

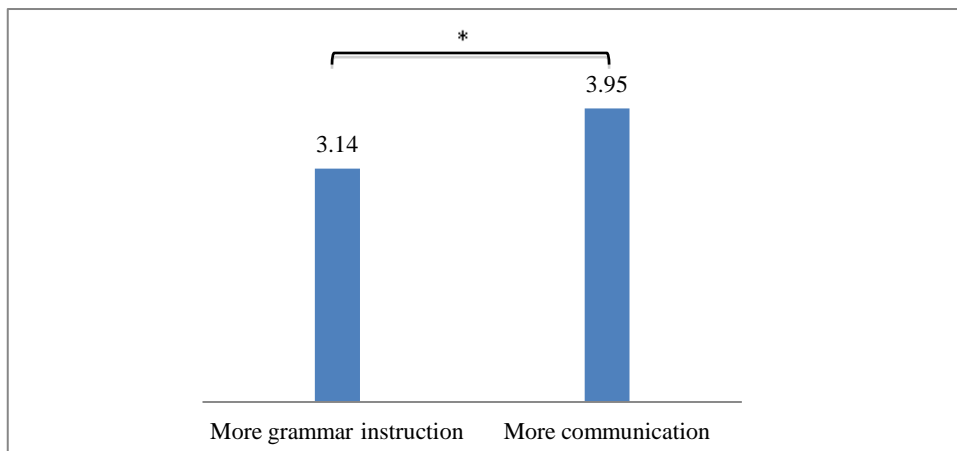
* $p < .05$

The results suggest that the students liked the teachers' direct explanation of grammar without the process of discovery (Item 2) more than having a chance to discover grammar rules on their own before being taught (Item 1), $t(76) = -2.02$, $p < .05$. This

indicates that students of Korean preferred deductive grammar teaching to inductive. Comparing the individual differences, a one-way ANOVA on the topic of teachers' direct instruction of grammar (Item 2) showed a significant difference among the three Stage groups, $F(2, 74) = 3.21, p < .05$. A *post hoc* comparisons test using Least Significant Difference (LSD) revealed that Stage I students ($M = 3.71, SD = .94$) had a stronger preference for deductive grammar teaching in comparison with Stage III students ($M = 3.06, SD = 1.14$). This suggests that students at a lower level of language proficiency preferred teachers' direct grammar instruction compared with those at a higher level.

With regard to preferences between explicit/isolated and implicit/integrated grammar teaching (Item 3; Item 5), there was no significant difference in the mean scores of all participants' preferences, $t(76) = -1.01, p > .05$. This implies that students may not be seriously concerned about when they learn grammar, although they seemed to want grammar instruction. With respect to learning grammar before using Korean (Item 3), an ANOVA revealed significant differences among three ethnic groups, $F(2, 74) = 5.64, p < .01$. A *post hoc* comparisons test using LSD indicated that Korean students ($M = 2.90, SD = 1.10$) had significantly less preference for explicit/isolated grammar teaching than Asian ($M = 3.77, SD = .99$) or non-Asian students ($M = 4.11, SD = .58$). This suggests that non-Korean heritage students had a greater preference for learning grammar explicitly than their Korean heritage counterparts.

Figure 2: Comparison of preference mean scores for teaching approaches of which students wish to have more in class



* $p < .001$

In addition, a paired *t*-test was conducted to examine which teaching approaches (i.e., formal study of grammar versus paired/small group work activities) students wished to have more of in their current class (Item 9; Item 10) (see Figure 2 for the comparison of the mean scores). The data revealed a significant tendency for participants to prefer more paired or small group work activities (Item 10) as opposed to more formal grammar instruction (Item 9), $t(76) = -5.72, p < .001$. This suggests that although students regarded learning grammar in class as crucial, they wanted more communicative activities in their Korean course. One-way ANOVA did not reveal any significant differences among different groups.

6.2.1.2. Corrective feedback

Questionnaire items 11 through 18 of Part 1 in Section 2 related to students' preferences for how they wished to receive CF as well as how they felt about error correction. The participants generally showed a positive attitude toward CF.

Table 7: Mean scores from the highest to the lowest for students' preferences for corrective feedback, along with the standard deviations

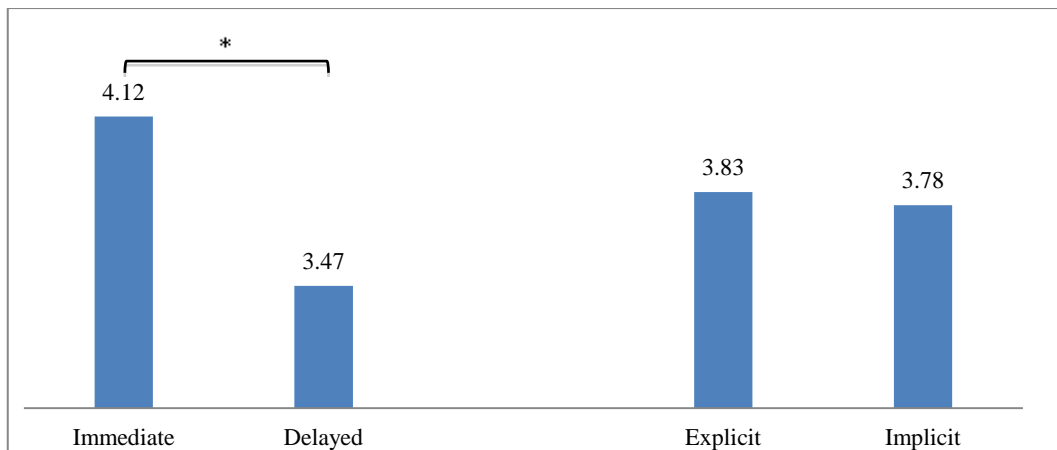
Questionnaire Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
17. every time when I make errors in writing	4.45	.62	77
16. every time when I make errors in speaking	4.22	.91	77
11. correcting my errors as soon as I make them	4.12	.95	77
13. explicitly drawing my attention to my errors	3.83	1.00	76
15. preference for being corrected in small group work	3.81	1.04	77
14. correcting my errors implicitly	3.78	.79	76
12. correcting my errors after an activity is completed	3.47	1.15	77
18. I dislike it when I am corrected in class	2.34	.98	77

Table 7 indicates that the students had strong preferences for written and verbal CF (Items 17 and 16 respectively). It also shows that the mean for the responses to how students feel about being corrected in class (i.e., Item 18: I dislike it when I am corrected in class) was comparatively low, indicating that many students did not seem to dislike being corrected in class. Students with a higher level of language proficiency had more positive attitudes toward CF. The result of an ANOVA showed a significant difference among the three Stage groups, $F(2, 74) = 3.53, p < .05$. A *post hoc*

comparisons test using LSD revealed that Stage I participants ($M = 2.60$, $SD = .96$) were more concerned about being corrected in class than those in Stage III ($M = 1.94$, $SD = .83$).

Despite their positive indication regarding CF, some students may still have concerns about the environment or situation in which they are corrected, particularly those with a lower level of language proficiency. In order to explore this aspect, Item 15 questioned students about their preferences for having CF in small group work rather than in front of the entire class. An ANOVA revealed that there were significant differences among the three Stage groups, $F(2, 74) = 3.88$, $p < .05$. A *post hoc* comparisons test using LSD indicated that the students at Stage I ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .98$) had a stronger preference for being corrected in small groups than those at Stage II ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.20$) and Stage III ($M = 3.47$, $SD = .80$), whereas the Stage II and Stage III groups revealed a similar inclination.

Figure 3: Comparison of preference mean scores between pairs of CF models



* $p < .01$

Paired *t*-tests were conducted with regard to when students liked teachers to correct their errors in class: immediately or later, and in which way they wanted to receive CF from teachers: explicitly or implicitly (see Figure 3 for the comparison of the mean scores). In terms of the first aspect, the total mean score for correcting errors immediately ($M = 4.12$, $SD = .95$) was significantly higher than that for correcting errors later ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 1.15$), $t(76) = 3.27$, $p < .01$, which implies that the participants wanted the teacher to correct errors as soon as they made them (Item 11) rather than after an activity was completed (Item 12). As for the second aspect, paired *t*-test data revealed no significant difference between explicit error correction (Item 13)

($M = 3.87$, $SD = .98$) and implicit error correction (Item 14) ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .79$), $t(74) = .73$, $p > .05$. This result suggests that students may not mind the way in which errors are corrected as long as they can receive CF in a timely manner. (This aspect was further clarified in subsequent student interviews.)

6.2.1.3. Grouping patterns

The remaining four questionnaire items of Part 1 in Section 2 pertaining to students' preferences for teaching approaches were designed to establish how students most want to participate in classroom activities: working in a pair (Item 19), working in a small group (Item 20), working with the whole class (Item 21), or working on their own (Item 22). Frequency rate analysis clearly revealed the extent to which the students agreed or disagreed about each grouping pattern (see Table 8).

Table 8: Frequency rates for students' preferences for grouping patterns

	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree %	Neither Agree nor Disagree %	Agree/ Strongly Agree %
19. working in a pair	12	30	58
20. working in a small group	8	21	71
21. working with the whole class	13	32	55
22. working on my own	30	38	32

Table 8 suggests that overall students were most favourably inclined toward small group work. Seventy one percent of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that they liked doing classroom activities in a small group, whereas only 8% disagreed or strongly disagreed with the grouping pattern. Although more than 50% of the participants agreed that they liked working in a pair as well as with the whole class, the level of agreement was not as strong compared with working in a small group. The frequency rates for working in a pair and in full-class mode reveal that more than 50% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed with those grouping patterns, although 12% and 13% respectively disagreed or strongly disagreed with working in a pair and working with the whole class. In contrast, the participants showed relatively little agreement with the statement that "I like working on my own." Only 32% of the students agreed or strongly agreed with undertaking learning activities on their own, while 30% disagreed or strongly disagreed. The results suggest that many students of

Korean favour working in a small group whereas they do not like working by themselves.

6.2.2. Students' beliefs about teachers' roles and their own roles in learning

6.2.2.1. Expectations of teachers in learning Korean effectively

The first eight questionnaire items, 23 to 30, and questionnaire item 39 of Part 2 in Section 2 were designed to examine what students generally expected their teachers to do so that they would successfully learn Korean. The previous focus group interview data had indicated that students believed that teachers played an important role in their learning. The descriptive statistics derived from the questionnaire revealed that the mean scores for six out of nine questionnaire items were higher than 4, confirming that the students had high expectations of their teachers' roles in many areas (see Table 9 for the details of each mean score).

Table 9: Mean scores from the highest to the lowest for students' beliefs about teachers' roles, along with the standard deviations

Questionnaire Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
25. creating an interesting and friendly learning environment	4.49	.62	77
28. explaining teaching points clearly	4.42	.62	76
30. using various teaching methods effectively	4.40	.61	77
27. offering help	4.29	.74	77
29. providing opportunities to use Korean	4.26	.68	77
26. using Korean as much as possible in class	4.14	.84	77
39. my success in learning Korean depends on what the teacher does in the classroom	3.60	.95	77
24. guiding students in what to do	3.47	.85	77
23. setting learning goals	3.40	.91	77

Not only were they highly concerned with teaching aspects (Items 28 and 30) but they also sought an optimum learning environment (Item 25), the offer of help (Item 27) and the opportunity to use the language (Item 29). In contrast with their high expectations of their teachers, the students were less certain that their success in learning Korean depended on what the teacher did in the classroom (Item 39). Additionally, the students

agreed relatively strongly that their teachers should use Korean as much as possible (Item 26), while they agreed to a lesser degree with the questionnaire items regarding teachers setting learning goals (Item 23) and telling students what they should do (Item 24).

An ANOVA revealed that there were significant differences among the three Stage groups for three questionnaire items: setting learning goals (Item 23), $F(2, 74) = 5.26, p < .01$; using Korean as much as possible in class (Item 26), $F(2, 74) = 4.18, p < .05$; and using various teaching methods effectively (Item 30), $F(2, 74) = 3.79, p < .05$. With Item 23, a *post hoc* comparisons test using LSD showed that the Stage I group ($M = 3.62, SD = .12$) believed more strongly than the Stage II group ($M = 3.00, SD = .97$) and Stage III group ($M = 3.12, SD = .99$) that the teacher should set their learning goals. This indicates that in terms of setting learning goals the students at a lower level of language proficiency seemed to rely on teachers more than those who had a higher level. With Item 26, the test using LSD revealed that the Stage II group ($M = 4.50, SD = .62$) had a stronger belief than Stage I participants ($M = 3.90, SD = .91$) that the teacher should use Korean as much as possible in class. Although the test using LSD did not reveal a statistically significant difference between the Stage I and Stage III groups ($p = .057$), the students at Stage III also expressed a strong preference for using Korean as much as possible in class ($M = 4.35, SD = .70$). This suggests that the students at a higher level may more readily expect to hear Korean in class. Finally, in question Item 30, the LSD test revealed that the mean score for Stage I participants ($M = 4.57, SD = .50$) was higher than the mean scores for Stage II ($M = 4.22, SD = .65$) and Stage III ($M = 4.18, SD = .73$). This suggests that students with a lower level of language proficiency have a stronger expectation of the teacher's role in using various teaching methods effectively, although all students seemed to consider the role of the teacher as very important.

6.2.2.2. Students' beliefs about their roles in learning Korean effectively

The next eight questionnaire items, 31 to 38, and questionnaire item 40 of Part 2 in Section 2 were designed to obtain students' views on their roles in successfully learning Korean. Overall, students seemed less confident about their own roles compared with their expectations of their teachers. It is worth noting that although the overall mean scores related to what students think they need to do to learn Korean effectively were

lower than those pertaining to what students consider teachers should do (see Tables 9 and 10 for comparison), the participants seemed to believe that their success in learning Korean depended on what they did inside and outside the classroom (Item 40).

Table 10: Mean scores from highest to lowest of students' beliefs about their roles, along with the standard deviations

Questionnaire Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
37. asking for help when necessary	4.26	.68	77
40. my success in learning Korean depends on what I do inside and outside the classroom	4.08	.84	77
32. setting my own learning goals	4.04	.91	77
31. having a clear idea of the reasons for studying Korean	3.86	.81	77
35. finding their own ways to practise Korean	3.71	.97	77
33. knowing what to do outside the classroom	3.52	.98	77
36. knowing how to evaluate my learning and make progress	3.18	.98	77
34. knowing how to plan for studying Korean	3.17	1.03	77
38. learning more Korean through independent study than through attending classes	2.83	1.16	77

According to Table 10, the roles that students indicated they most agreed with were asking for help when needed (Item 37) followed by my success in learning Korean depends on what I do inside and outside the classroom (Item 40) and setting their own learning goals (Item 32). The responses to questions as to whether they have a clear idea of why they are learning Korean (Item 31), whether they think they should find ways to practise the language (Item 35), and what to do outside the classroom (Item 33), were positive, but not strongly affirmative. The aspect indicated as the least effective way to learn Korean was “learning more Korean through independent study than through attending classes” (Item 38). The table also reveals that the students were not as confident knowing how to plan for study (Item 34) and how to evaluate learning and make progress (Item 36). An ANOVA did not reveal any significant differences between groups.

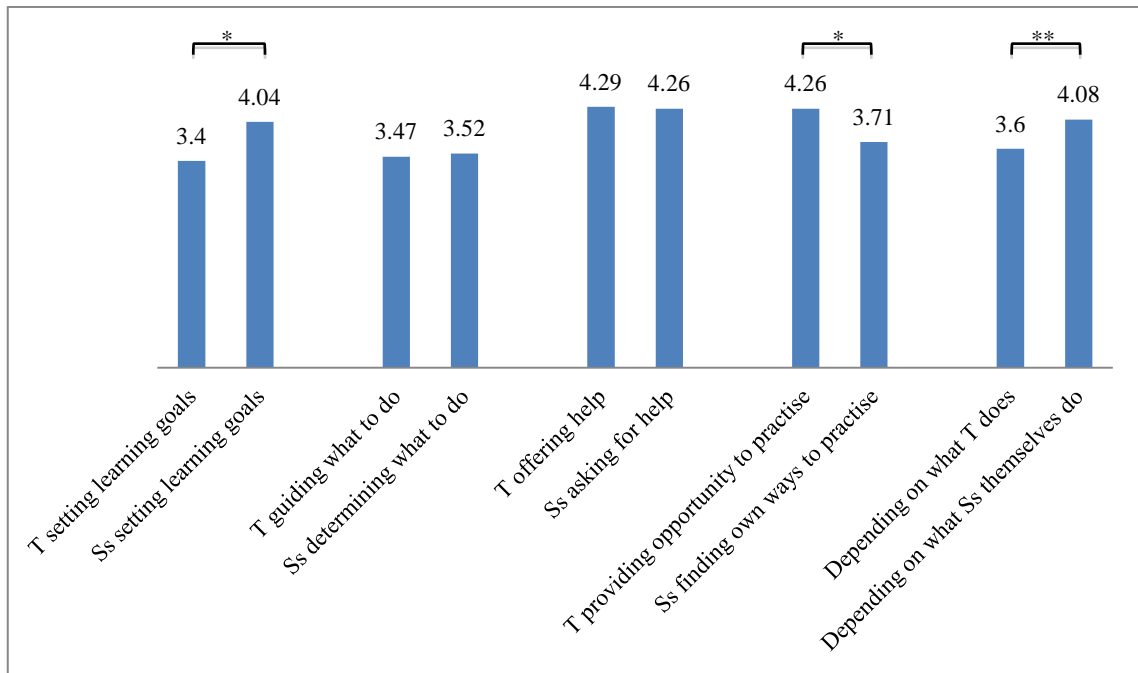
6.2.2.3. Comparison of the extent to which students depend on their teachers and the extent to which they take responsibility for their learning

In order to investigate the extent to which students of Korean are self-directed learners, a paired *t*-test was conducted comparing the total mean scores of the teachers' roles (TR: Items 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, & 39) and the students' roles (SR: Items 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, & 40) (see Table 11 for the mean scores). The results revealed that the total mean score for students' beliefs about TR was significantly higher than that about SR, $t(76) = 5.41, p < .001$. This implies that the students may consider the importance of the teachers' roles more seriously than their own roles for achieving successful outcomes in learning Korean. As this investigation did not explicitly ask the students to compare their teachers' roles with their own, however, it does not seem reasonable to say that they rely on teachers more than themselves, only that they appear to place more emphasis on the teachers' role.

Table 11: Total mean scores and standard deviations for students' beliefs about TR and SR

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
The teachers' roles in learning Korean effectively	4.05	.41	77
The students' roles in learning Korean effectively	3.63	.54	77

Paired *t*-tests were also conducted to determine whether there were any differences in the students' perspectives on setting learning goals (Item 23; Item 32), being guided/determining what to do (Item 24; Item 33), being offered/asking for help (Item 27; Item 37), being provided with opportunities/finding their own ways to practise Korean (Item 29; Item 35), and depending on what the teachers/the students themselves do for successful learning (Item 39; Item 40) (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: Comparison between the mean scores of TR and SR items* $p < .001$ ** $p < .01$

The t -tests indicated significant differences in the following three aspects. The participants strongly believed that the teacher should provide opportunities to use Korean (Item 29) ($M = 4.26$, $SD = .68$) rather than the students themselves finding ways to practise Korean (Item 35) ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .97$), $t(76) = 4.37$, $p < .001$. On the other hand, the students strongly agreed that setting learning goals is their own responsibility (Item 32) ($M = 4.04$, $SD = .91$) rather than the teacher's role (Item 23) ($M = 3.40$, $SD = .91$), $t(76) = -3.95$, $p < .001$. They also believed that their success in learning Korean depends on what they do inside and outside the classroom (Item 40) ($M = 4.08$, $SD = .84$) rather than what the teacher does in the classroom (Item 39) ($M = 3.60$, $SD = .95$), $t(76) = -3.34$, $p < .01$. This result implies that students may regard their roles as important in successfully learning Korean, although they also seem to believe that the teachers' roles are of great importance.

As for the belief that the successful acquisition of Korean depended on what students did inside and outside the classroom (Item 40), the result of an ANOVA revealed that there were significant differences depending on the students' educational backgrounds (i.e., number of years schooling in New Zealand), $F(2, 74) = 8.59$, $p < .001$. A *post hoc* comparisons test using LSD indicated that the participants with two to five years of

schooling in New Zealand ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.08$) were less inclined to believe that their successful learning depended on themselves than the participants with more than five years schooling in New Zealand ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .51$) and those with all of their schooling in New Zealand ($M = 4.18$, $SD = .65$). This suggests that the students with more experience of the New Zealand education system depend more on their own roles than that of the teacher.

6.2.3. Reasons for and expectations in learning Korean

6.2.3.1. Reasons for learning Korean

The first open-ended question in Section 3 of the questionnaire solicited students' reasons for taking a Korean language course. Seventy five out of 77 participants responded to the question with many of them having more than one reason for learning Korean. One hundred and forty six responses were gathered in total and the responses were grouped into eight different categories. The following are the category groupings of the reasons for learning the language and the frequency percentages of the responses students gave:

- Item 1: interest in Korean language/desire to improve Korean language ability (29%)
- Item 2: genuine interest in learning languages (12%)
- Item 3: want to communicate with Korean community (12%)
- Item 4: interest in Korean culture including music and drama/movies (18%)
- Item 5: more/better opportunities for future career (11%)
- Item 6: language paper/general education paper requirement (12%)
- Item 7: want to travel to/live in Korea (6%)
- Item 8: my friend takes Korean also (1%)

The data revealed that about 60% of the participants were learning Korean because of Korean-related reasons (Items 1, 3, and 4). The majority of them were interested in the Korean language and wanted to improve their language skills. Some of them desired to be able to communicate with the Korean community, while some had a special interest in the culture and others wished to travel to or live in Korea. In contrast with the participants' strong interest in Korean-related aspects, only some participants responded

that they were learning the Korean language for a GE or language paper requirement (see the categories above for the frequency percentage of each item).

Figure 5: Percentages of the responses to reasons for learning Korean according to ethnic groups

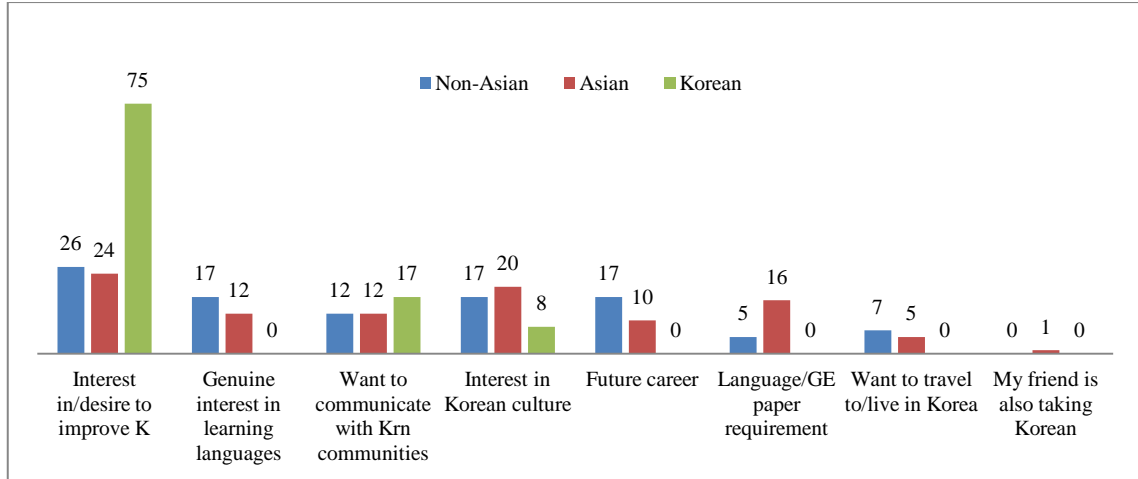
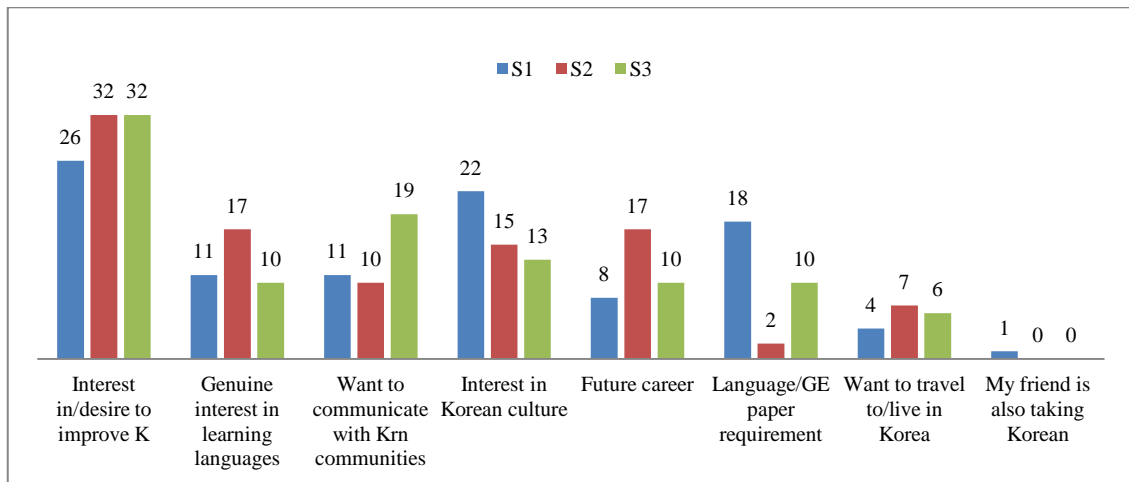


Figure 6: Percentages of the responses to reasons for learning Korean according to Stage groups



Figures 5 and 6 show that the reason for learning Korean reported most frequently among all ethnic groups and Stage groups was an interest in the language/desire to improve language skills. In particular, 75% of the responses from Korean heritage groups selected this item (see Figure 5). The Korean heritage participants did not have a wide variation in their reasons for taking Korean. The other two reasons were a desire to communicate with the Korean community and an interest in Korean culture, including music and drama/movies. Asian and non-Asian students revealed that an interest in the culture attracted them to the language slightly more frequently than Korean heritage

students. The Asian participants reported a language paper/GE paper requirement as their reason for study more than the other groups. The non-Asian group seemed to select the response of learning the language for their future careers more frequently than the other groups.

Figure 6 shows that there were variances in the reason given according to the students' Stage level. The Stage I group revealed their interest in Korean culture, including music and drama/movies and a language paper/GE paper requirement. Stage II participants indicated a genuine interest in learning languages and more/better opportunities for future careers, while Stage III students showed a desire to be able to communicate with the Korean community and an interest in Korean culture, including music and drama/movies. Interestingly, of the 23 students taking Korean as a GE course, only 8 indicated the GE paper requirement as their reason for study, whereas the remaining 15 students gave other reasons: 13 of them chose Korean-related reasons and 2 of them indicated a genuine interest in learning languages.

The results suggest that Korean-related reasons are an initial motivator for many students to learn Korean. Not surprisingly, the Korean heritage participants showed a stronger interest in the language and a desire to improve their general language skills than the other participants. They, however, revealed a lesser interest in the cultural aspects than the other ethnic groups. Furthermore, a degree regulation requirement for a language paper or a GE paper was not the main reason for most of the participants, even for those taking the language as a GE course requirement.

6.2.3.2. Expectations of the consequences of learning Korean

The second open-ended question in Section 3 related to what students expected as an outcome of studying the language. Seventy participants responded to the question and many of them provided more than one expectation, and 125 responses were eventually collected. They described their expectations of learning Korean more specifically than their reasons for studying the language. Many participants clearly described which language skill they most desired to improve and which language proficiency level they most wanted to achieve at the completion of the course they were taking. The following are the 11 category clusters which indicate the expectations and the frequency percentages of the students' responses:

- Item 1: to understand/communicate in Korean (46%)
- Item 2: to increase job opportunities (14%)
- Item 3: to better understand Korean people, culture, and society (7%)
- Item 4: to write Korean at a high/adequate level (14%)
- Item 5: to read Korean at a high/adequate level (8%)
- Item 6: to pronounce Korean correctly (2%)
- Item 7: to graduate/get a degree (2%)
- Item 8: to study further to an advanced level (2%)
- Item 9: to make Korean friends (2%)
- Item 10: to travel to Korea (2%)
- Item 11: to meet famous Korean people (1%)

The findings revealed that, overall, students expected to improve the four language skills (listening, speaking, writing, and reading) as a result of learning the language, even though they had different expectations of their level of language proficiency. The most common expectation reported by the participants was being able to understand and/or communicate in Korean (Item 1: 46%). Regardless of different ethnic or Stage groups, this item was the expectation reported most often (see Figures 7 and 8 for the percentages of the responses to Item 1).

Among ethnic groups, the Korean heritage group appeared to have higher expectations of being able to read and write Korean at a high/adequate level than the others (Items 4 & 5 respectively in Figure 7). Figure 7 also shows that the non-Asian students had slightly higher expectations of being able to increase their job opportunities than the Asian and Korean heritage students (Item 2).

In terms of Stage groups, Figure 8 reveals that the Stage II and Stage III participants had somewhat higher expectations of being able to write Korean at a high/adequate level (Item 4) and for increasing their job opportunities (Item 2) than their Stage I counterparts.

Figure 7: Percentages of the responses to expectations of the consequences of learning Korean according to ethnic groups

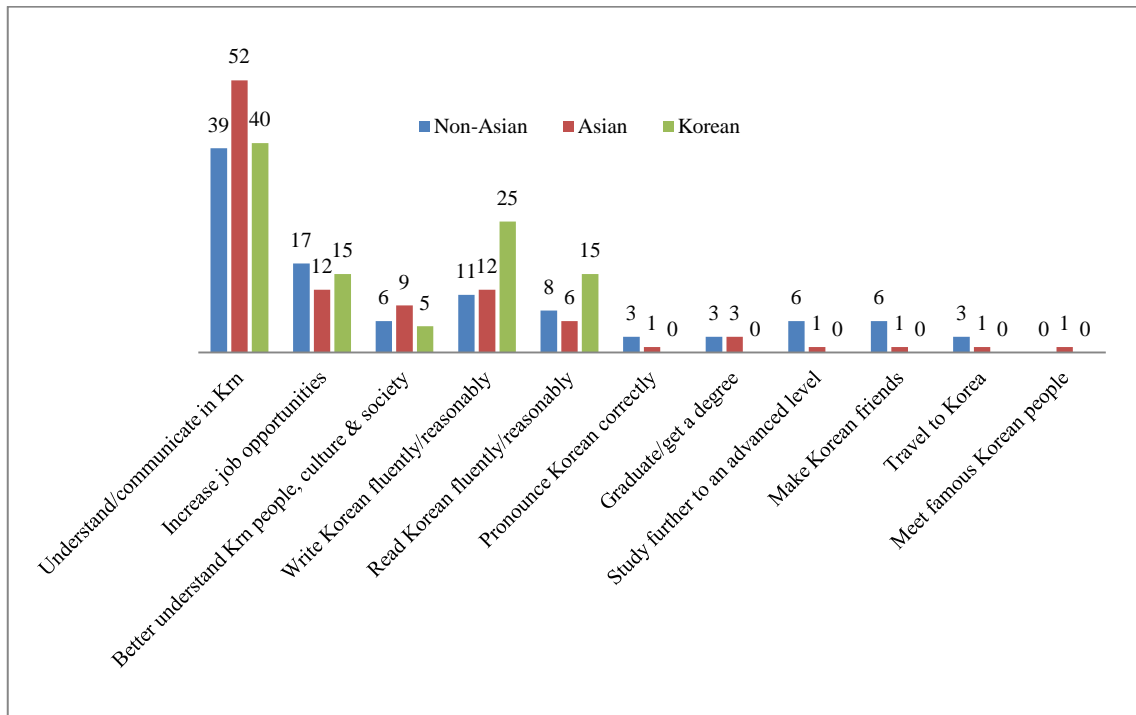
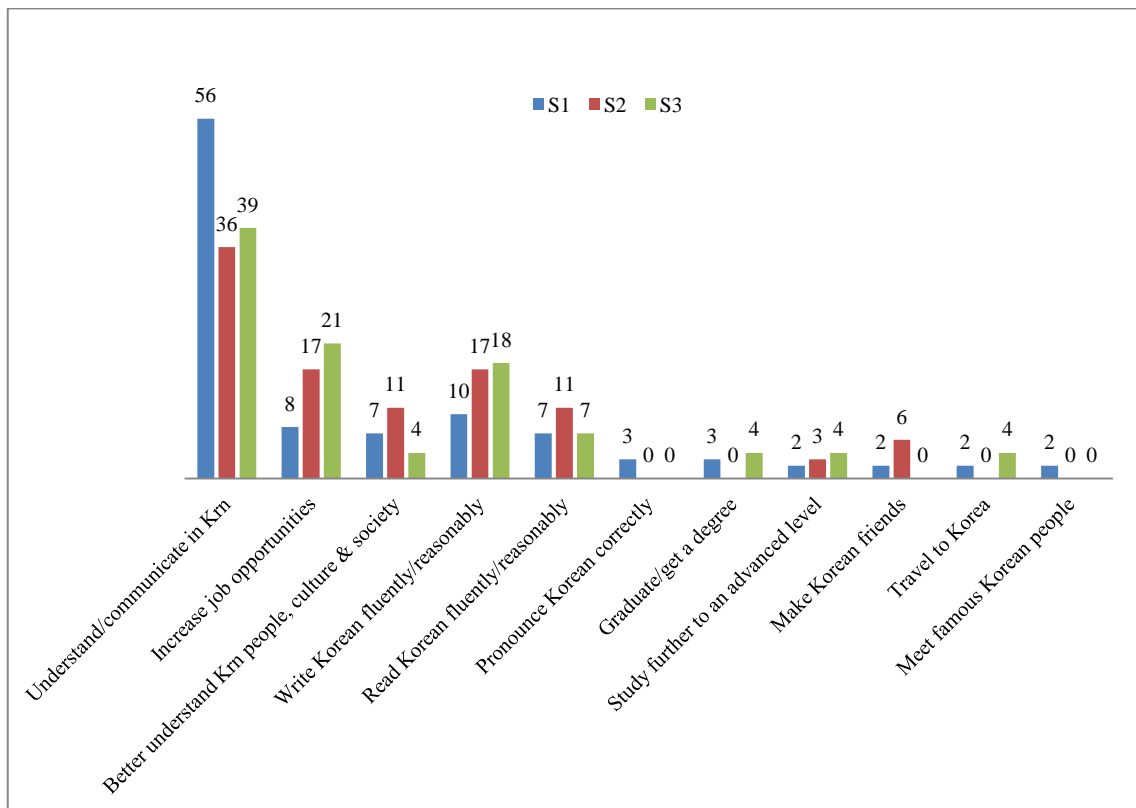


Figure 8: Percentages of the responses to expectations of the consequences of learning Korean according to Stage groups



These findings reveal that, as a result of taking a Korean course, many students primarily expected to improve their language skills, and their communication skills in particular. As noted previously, Korean cultural aspects were a strong motivation for students to study the language, with that reason given by about 60% of the participants. However, students' expectations were not as high in terms of better understanding the Korean people, culture, and society.

6.2.3.3. Reasons for continuing/discontinuing the study of Korean

In order to determine what makes students decide to continue or discontinue their Korean language study, the third open-ended question in Section 3 asked whether participants would continue to study the language to the next level and the reasons for their decision. Of the 76 participants who responded to the question, 29 were planning to take another Korean course, 34 were not planning to take further courses, seven were undecided, and six would graduate after their current course. As the focus of this research was on the reasons for continuation and discontinuation of learning, only relevant responses were considered. In other words, this study excluded the responses from those who were not sure whether or not they would take another course and those who would graduate after the semester.

Twenty seven out of the 29 participants gave their reasons for continuation and there were 35 different reasons in total. (Some participants gave more than one reason.) Overall, the reasons were short and simple: for instance, one student stated “It is my major. I find the classes fun, enjoyable and interesting.” The most common reason for continuation was “Korean is my major/minor” (37%), followed by “to improve my Korean language skills/further study of Korean” (31%). Some students stated “I like learning Korean” (14%), while others wrote, “the class is interesting and enjoyable” (6%), “useful for future career” (6%), and “to further knowledge of Korean culture” (6%).

Out of the 34 participants who indicated they would discontinue their studies, 31 gave a reason. (Note that two of them indicated graduation as their reason, which was eliminated from the reasons for discontinuation, as previously explained.) Twenty one participants reported they had no plan to take another Korean language course because of other demands on their time: “to focus on my major or other papers” or they had “no

time to learn the Korean language” (72%). This result is understandable in the context that 20 of these students were taking Korean as a GE course. The other reasons for discontinuing given by the remaining participants were “[it’s] too difficult to learn Korean grammar and/or vocabulary” (10%), “not satisfied with the quality of teaching in Stage I” (7%), “not so useful to learn the Korean language” (7%), and “lack of dedication/motivation for learning the Korean language” (3%).

It should be noted that the participants who indicated their dissatisfaction with the course made the decision to discontinue their language course during the semester. One of them gave his reason for discontinuing: he had planned to finish both Stage I courses, but the teaching process did not meet his expectations so he was considering discontinuing his studies. Similarly, another participant clearly stated that he might continue to learn Korean outside of university, but because the quality of the course he was taking was not as he had expected, he would not take another in the future.

These findings reveal that most students taking Korean as a GE paper have little desire to continue studying Korean. More importantly, the data also suggest that some students who decide to discontinue studying because they are not satisfied with the course they are taking may change their decision during the learning process.

6.2.4. Further suggestions and comments

Participants’ further suggestions and comments provided useful feedback on the reasons for the continuation and discontinuation of study and better understanding of ways to develop Korean language courses. Fifty out of 77 participants (65%) added their suggestions and comments to make the Korean course more helpful and effective. Thirty one out of the 50 students (62%) gave feedback on classroom activities. They highlighted the importance of interactive communicative language teaching in the Korean courses. The participants commented that they needed more speaking and/or conversation activities using paired/group work, more varied teaching methods or classroom activities, more practical or authentic exercises, more interesting, fun and interactive classes, and more tutorials. For example, one of them remarked that he/she needed more fun and more application of the language to real life situations rather than merely studying grammar and writing in the classroom. Another stated that the course “can be related to and taken more from the outside world. Everything seems to be done

just by reading a textbook, simple, but it is much more different and harder to apply it in reality.” A third student stated:

After basic grammar teaching, fun should be more important than writing exercises. By saying this, I think more speaking than writing should be promoted. Speaking actually helps more than writing. I’m not saying writing is not important though. But to me, when I speak, I really get to think how to work to make a sentence... but to be honest, interest is the best teacher.

These comments and suggestions about the need to integrate more communicative activities into the course, and the motivation dimension of such activities, supported the findings from the Likert-type scale responses to students’ preferences for classroom activities (i.e., wishing to have more communicative activities in their course).

Other concerns the participants frequently mentioned were the need for more outside classroom activities and clearer explanations of key teaching points. Nine participants (18%) supported activities outside of class, such as providing exercises for self-study, class trips, movie nights and more frequent and effective use of the university’s web-based course and learning management system to have the course better match to their learning needs. Five participants (10%) suggested that they need teachers to explain teaching points slowly and carefully before moving onto the next section. One of them commented that it would be better for teachers to ensure all students have a firm grasp of the concepts after delivering key information. He added that teachers should have a better awareness of the students’ level of proficiency at the start of the course.

On the other hand, six students made only positive comments. All of them noted that the class they were taking was fun and interactive and the teacher was enthusiastic and fostered a positive and supportive learning environment, which increased their interest in learning more about the Korean language and its culture. For instance, one participant highlighted the teachers’ impact on motivation:

I found that having an enthusiastic, caring and supportive teacher such as [teacher’s name] really stimulated my desire to learn Korean. Fun lessons = Fun learning = Good! The positive and supportive learning environment in the Korean class really made Korean stand out from all the other papers I was taking.

Another example highlighted the obvious advantages of interactive activities in a small class environment:

Unlike lectures, in a small class environment, everyone was given the opportunity to answer questions and be corrected if there was a mistake made. I found this helpful in my learning. I also found it helpful that, in the Korean class, we played games in class and worked out problems in either pairs or smaller groups. This interactive learning helped me not only memorise the grammar points and vocabulary faster and easier, it also made me understand how to use the grammar points and the given vocabulary that we learnt.

These findings suggest that the majority of students hold strong views on the inclusion of more interactive activities in the course. It seems that students had little preference for classes focusing on writing and textbook exercises. They wanted to have more communicative group work, which they regarded as a fun, interesting, and effective way to learn Korean in class. Interaction in a small class seems to be closely related to a positive learning environment. The results also indicate that teachers have a substantial influence on the motivation of students to continue or discontinue their study of the Korean language.

6.2.5. Summary

The findings from this questionnaire-based study suggest several important aspects of students' beliefs and expectations in successfully learning Korean. They revealed possible discrepancies between the type of activities students like having in the classroom and the type of activities they desire to have more of in the current class situation. In other words, the participants reported that they liked grammar-focused instruction (FonFS) associated with more communicative activities in class. According to the additional comments and suggestions given, the current teaching approaches tend toward a grammar-focused method and lack interactive group work. The results also indicate that the students consider their teachers' roles as vital in learning the language despite feeling that it is their own responsibility to ensure a successful learning outcome. It also seems that the teacher plays a central role in motivating and demotivating students. Korean-related aspects such as the language, culture, and people were the major reasons students learn the Korean language. The highest expectation of learning the language was to be able to communicate. This expectation corresponded with the students' desire to have more interactive activities in the course. Finally, the data provide some evidence of the influence of students' individual differences on their perceptions of effective language acquisition.

6.3. Discussion

The main purpose of the questionnaire was to investigate students' perceived needs and expectations in successfully learning Korean. Through the survey, the quantitative and qualitative data have revealed students' preferences for teaching approaches (i.e., grammar instruction, CF, and grouping patterns) and their perspectives on teachers' and their own roles in learning Korean effectively, along with the extent to which they were self-directed learners. This investigation has also revealed their reasons for taking a Korean acquisition course at university, their expectations of the course as a consequence of learning the language, and the factors influencing continuation or discontinuation of their studies. Students' individual differences have been considered along with these research aspects. This section discusses the findings in relation to the questions addressed in the questionnaire-based study on pages 106 and 107.

6.3.1. Students' preference for teaching approaches

Overall, the results from this questionnaire-based research do not contradict those of the focus group interviews, which revealed a possible discrepancy between the students' positive attitude toward grammar-focused instruction and their desire to have more communicative activities in class. According to the data, students valued learning grammar with practical exercises as a classroom activity. The results clearly indicate that the teaching approach students prefer least is focusing on communication and learning grammar only when necessary. This supports the findings of many previous studies (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Spada, 1997; Spada & Lightbown, 2008) which have claimed that instruction is most effective when linguistic aspects are incorporated into language teaching in some ways.

The students did not believe that they needed more grammar instruction, however; rather they expressed a strong desire for more interactive activities in their course. One possible explanation for this could be related to the current style of teaching. Students' further suggestions and comments revealed that many classes focused on writing and textbook exercises, whereas students felt that they needed more interaction in class. This finding indicated that the major focus of current teaching of Korean in the classroom seemed to be on structure-based approaches (cf. H. D. Brown, 2000; Lightbown & Spada, 2008). (In order to better understand the students' perceived

learning needs, further discussion of this possible discrepancy is required. Subsequent interviews with students aimed to obtain reasons for their views on this point.)

6.3.1.1. Grammar teaching

With respect to teaching approaches, the first sub question addressed in the questionnaire-based study is how students of Korean want to learn grammar. Previous studies have shown that there are different views on grammar instruction (H. D. Brown, 2007): deductive versus inductive (e.g., Ellis, 2001b; McKay, 1987; Nunan, 1991) and explicit/isolated versus implicit/integrated (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998). Regarding deductive and inductive grammar teaching, the data derived from the survey indicated that students, particularly those of a lower level of language proficiency, favoured teachers' direct instruction of grammar (deductive instruction) over their own discovery of grammar rules before being taught (inductive instruction). It could therefore be said, in line with the theoretical assertions made by Ausubel (1964) and McKay (1987), that deductive grammar instruction may be more effective for learners of Korean in the New Zealand tertiary teaching context.

The results, however, revealed no apparent preference between explicit/isolated and implicit/integrated grammar teaching. In other words, Korean learners are not seriously concerned about when they learn grammar as long as grammar is taught in class. This result is similar to that of Spada et al.'s (2009) study that learners had positive attitudes toward both explicit and implicit grammar instruction. It is inconsistent, however, with findings from previous studies which have demonstrated a preference for either explicit/isolated or implicit/integrated grammar instruction (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Littlewood, 1981a; Long, 1991). (It should be noted that, in this aspect of the investigation, it was not possible to obtain the reasons for students' preferences in terms of grammar teaching. Subsequent individual interviews therefore explored this point.)

6.3.1.2. Corrective feedback

The second sub question on teaching approaches is how students of Korean want to have their errors corrected. As revealed in previous studies (e.g., Loewen et al., 2009; Schulz, 1996, 2001), it was believed that error correction would be beneficial for learning the Korean language. Similar to the attitudes towards teaching methods for

grammar, there are different attitudes towards CF: immediate versus delayed (e.g., H. D. Brown, 2000) and explicit/isolated versus implicit/integrated (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Ellis et al., 2006; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009). The data indicated that Korean learners wanted the teacher to correct errors as soon as they made an error rather than after a task was completed. It appears, however, that the students had no specific preference between explicit/isolated versus implicit/integrated feedback. In other words, they were not that concerned about whether their teachers corrected their errors explicitly or by repeating or recasting. This result differed from the finding that emerged from A. Brown's (2009) study that first-year language learners prefer explicit error correction, while their second-year counterparts want to be corrected indirectly.

One point that should be noted in this respect is that some students, especially those of a lower level of language proficiency, were in favour of receiving CF during small group work. This suggests that they were perhaps anxious about the situation in which the teacher corrected their errors. This attitude, as previously indicated in the focus group interviews, probably arises because some students feel embarrassed when they are corrected in front of other students (cf. Fukai, 2000). This point needs further exploration to determine the causes of embarrassment and to examine effective ways in giving CF.

6.3.1.3. Grouping patterns

The last sub question about teaching approaches relates to how students of Korean want to be involved in classroom activities. Just as H. Kim's (2003) study revealed, it was clear that large numbers of students learning Korean had a preference for working in a group rather than on their own in class. According to the additional comments, the students regarded interactive group work as a fun, interesting, and effective way to learn Korean in class. Furthermore, they had a preference for "contemporary approaches towards language teaching, with an emphasis on communication skills" (Richards & Gravatt, 1998, p. 17) rather than traditional approaches in which classes focus on writing and textbook exercises. This result contradicted that of A. Brown's (2009) study, which revealed that the students had a strong preference for a grammar-based approach over communicative approaches in classroom practices. The students' preference for group work is consistent with their assertions that they want to have more communicative activities in their course.

6.3.2. Students' beliefs about teachers' roles and their own roles in learning

The second to fourth questions of the questionnaire-based study related to what students of Korean believe about teachers' roles and their own responsibility for learning the language effectively. The results suggest that Korean learners acknowledge that, as noted by Cotterall (1999), a successful learning outcome depends on their own efforts. According to the data, students, particularly those with more or all of their schooling experience in the New Zealand education system, seem to believe that success depends on what students do inside and outside the classroom rather than what the teacher does in the classroom.

It does not seem reasonable to say, however, that Korean learners are sufficiently autonomous learners. The results showed that students generally agreed that they did not believe that they could learn more Korean through independent study, indicating a need for attending classes. In particular, many students believed that providing opportunities to use Korean was one of the most important roles of the teacher. Furthermore, the Stage I students seemed to be more dependent on their teachers than their Stage II and III counterparts, expecting them to use various teaching methods effectively and set learning goals, while the Stage II students had a stronger belief than Stage I participants that the teacher should use Korean as much as possible in class. In this light, it is important to note H. D. Brown's (2007) assertion that the teachers should reflect learners' language proficiency levels in their teaching, and his explanation that "[b]eginning students are highly dependent on the teacher for models of language" (p. 113), while those with a higher level of language proficiency are more ready to show initiative in their learning and need more student-student interaction. The results also confirmed the findings from the focus group interviews that students of Korean believed that, in a variety of ways, teachers played a crucial role in teaching Korean effectively (cf. Cheung, 2001; Fukai, 2000).

This investigation suggests that Korean learners perceive the importance of their own efforts to obtain positive consequences although they may rely on the teacher in various ways for their learning process. From this questionnaire-based research, however, it was difficult to determine the extent to which students take their own responsibility for learning Korean effectively and how teachers can give a positive effect on their learning. (These aspects were discussed in subsequent interviews with students and teachers.)

6.3.3. Reasons for and expectations in learning Korean

The fifth question of the questionnaire-based study is why students want to learn Korean and what factors influence the discontinuation of their studies. The major reasons for learning the language involved Korean-related aspects: the Korean language, culture, and people. Similar to the L2 learners in the New Zealand tertiary institute in Richards and Gravatt's (1998) study, the most common motivator students listed was interest in the language and/or improving language skills. This investigation confirmed the findings from H. Kim's (2003) study, which revealed that a degree regulation requirement for a language paper was not the main reason for learning the language. Furthermore, the results showed that students who took Korean as a major/minor paper and those who had a desire to improve Korean further generally decided to continue studying the Korean language. It could therefore be said that learners who are intrinsically motivated may not need much external stimulus to make them study further because their behaviour "stems from needs, wants, or desires within themselves" (H. D. Brown, 2007, p. 68).

As the most important expectation of the course, students noted that they wanted to be able to understand and/or communicate in Korean, with a different expectation depending on their level of language proficiency (cf. Richards & Gravatt, 1998). This result agrees with the findings from the focus group interviews. It was not surprising, because a preliminary motivator of learning Korean was interest in the language and/or improving language skills and the students expressed a strong desire to interact with others in class. In contrast, although an interest in Korean culture was one of the most common reasons for learning Korean, a better knowledge of culture was not what many students expected of their course.

Considering the main reasons for and expectations in learning Korean, it is natural to think that one semester is not enough to become confident in the language, particularly in terms of speaking. Nevertheless, the data revealed that the majority of the students in Stage I decided not to continue their studies to the next level. One explanation may be suggested from the results: that the students had other demands on their time. This finding is similar to those from Richards and Gravatt's (1998) research that the most common reason for discontinuation of their study was higher-priority demands on their time. Furthermore, according to the data, it is very likely that those taking Korean as a

GE paper discontinue learning the language and their decision had been already made when they selected the course. Thus, it may be difficult to motivate these students to take another Korean course.

The findings also revealed, however, that there were some students who at one stage had a desire to continue but decided not to study further. Their comments in the open-ended section suggest that students lose their interest in learning the language directly or indirectly because of their teacher during their course of study. As indicated in the focus group interviews, this investigation also suggests that teachers can be a demotivating factor, which leads to “negative influences that cancel out existing motivation” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 138). In other words, it may be said that the discrepancy between the teacher’s teaching approaches and students’ expectations contributed to discouragement (cf. Gan, 2009). There is a need for further research into dissatisfaction that results in discontinuation.

6.3.4. Influence of students’ individual differences on their perceived learning needs and beliefs

The results of analyses pertaining to the final question of the questionnaire-based study generally supported previous studies (e.g., Loewen et al., 2009), which have suggested that students’ individual differences may affect their perspectives and learning needs. Loewen et al. (2009) reported that L2 learners’ educational origins may partially contribute to their diverse perceptions of grammar teaching and CF. This research revealed that although the learning experience of different education systems did not make much difference on students’ preferences for and perspectives about the instructional aspects, it may affect students’ perceptions of the teacher’s roles and their own responsibility for successfully learning the language. In other words, the students with more experience of the New Zealand education system seemed to depend more on their own roles than that of the teacher.

Similarly to observations made by Choe (2005), the findings of this investigation also suggest that students’ cultural backgrounds may influence their motivations for learning. More specifically, the data revealed that the non-Asian students had slightly higher expectations of increasing their job opportunities than the Asian and Korean heritage students (cf. Choe, 2005). It also revealed that non-Korean heritage students

favoured explicit grammar instruction more strongly in comparison with their Korean heritage counterparts. Furthermore, the Asian students selected a language paper or GE paper requirement as their reason for learning the language more than the Korean heritage and non-Asian groups. The Korean heritage participants expressed a stronger interest in the language or desire to improve the language skills than the non-Korean heritage counterparts. In particular, they had a stronger desire to develop writing and reading than the non-Korean heritage counterparts. One explanation for this can be derived from the fact that they are not as confident with written language as with spoken language (E. Kim, 2005). In addition, compared to the Korean heritage students, there were slightly more non-Korean students who commented that an interest in Korean culture motivated them to learn the language. In contrast to these findings, Ryu Yang's (2003) research revealed that a majority of the heritage students decided to learn the target language because of a language paper requirement, while non-heritage students were more motivated to learn by interest in L2 people and culture.

Furthermore, the results revealed considerable differences between language proficiency levels. As H. D. Brown (2007) asserted, students of a lower level of language proficiency are highly dependent on the teacher as “a central determiner in whether students accomplish their goals” (p. 112). According to the present data, they relied on the teacher particularly in terms of effective teaching methods and setting learning goals. For example, they more strongly preferred direct grammar instruction from the teacher than those students of a higher level. They were also more concerned about the learning environment, indicating a stronger desire to receive CF while working in a small group. In contrast, the data showed that students of a higher level of language proficiency had a stronger desire than those of a lower level for teachers to use Korean as much as possible in class. This is probably because they are more confident and competent at communicating in the language (H. D. Brown, 2007).

These findings confirmed that students' individual differences could influence their learning preferences, perspectives on effective learning and teaching, reasons for learning L2, and so forth. Thus, the teacher should eliminate a potential bias such as “Asian students are believed to favour rote learning and lack critical thinking skills, looking on teachers as close to gods” (Gan, 2009, p. 43), and be ready to understand the learning needs and expectations students bring with them to the classroom.

6.4. Conclusion

This questionnaire-based study has addressed students' perceived learning needs and beliefs about teaching approaches, the roles of teachers and students, reasons for study and discontinuation, along with the influence of students' individual differences. The results suggest that there is a possible discrepancy between the students' positive attitude toward grammar-focused instruction and their desire to have more communicative activities in class. This probably originates from a lack of interactive activities in the students' current learning environment, which needs further exploration. As for CF, it is useful to examine the causes of embarrassment and how to prevent them. The results also suggest that Korean learners regard their roles as more important than their teachers' for successful outcomes, but at the same time, they seem to rely on teachers in many ways. With regard to teachers' and students' roles, there is scope for further study into the extent to which students take responsibility for their learning and the ways in which teachers can stimulate students' interest in learning the language and help them become more self-directed learners. Furthermore, it was helpful to employ open-ended questions to discover factors for motivation and demotivation. The findings reveal a need for further investigation. Finally, as noted in the focus group interviews, this study also indicates that students' individual differences influence their preferences, expectations, and beliefs when learning the language.

Chapter 7. Study 3: Interviews with students

7.1. Introduction

Using closed and open-ended questions, the preceding questionnaire-based study provided valuable quantitative and qualitative data in relation to Korean learners' needs and expectations. The findings indicated scope for further clarification, however, as to how students of Korean want to learn grammar and have their errors corrected and their reasons. It also revealed a need to further examine what might cause possible discrepancies between the students' preferred classroom activities (i.e., grammar-focused instruction) and the activities they desired to have more of in the current class situation (i.e., interactive activities). Furthermore, the findings suggested a need to further explore to what extent students assume individual responsibility for learning the language and how teachers can stimulate students' active participation in their study. Finally, with regard to reasons for discontinuation of study, the findings indicated a necessity to further investigate factors which motivate and demotivate students' learning of the language. In Chapter 4, the details of the method used to interview students were described. The purpose of this chapter is therefore to present more varied and detailed student perspectives, derived from the interviews, on the issues that they were not able to express adequately through the questionnaire. The following interview questions were addressed in the individual interviews with students:

1. How do students of Korean want to learn grammar? Why? – RQ 1a
2. How do students want their errors to be corrected? Why? – RQ 1a
3. What activities do students want to have more of in their course? Why? – RQ 1a
4. How can the teacher stimulate students' interest in learning Korean? – RQs 1b, 1d, 1e, 1f
5. To what extent do students think they are responsible for learning Korean effectively? – RQ 1c
6. What factors affect students' decision to continue or discontinue learning Korean? – RQ 1f

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 25 volunteers from the 77 students who completed the questionnaire, as reported in Chapter 6. In order to present the

findings more effectively, each participant from the interviews was provided a reference code (e.g., P1, P2) (See Table 4 in Chapter 4 for participants' reference codes and their details). This interview-based investigation uncovered a range of opinions on methods of grammar teaching and CF. The data were helpful to better understand why the students desired both structure-focused instruction and a communicative approach. The findings, from the students' point of view, suggested how teachers could encourage students to study effectively, taking into consideration the teachers' support roles and the students' autonomous roles. They also revealed more detailed reasons for and factors in the continuation or discontinuation of study. Finally, additional suggestions and comments were provided that shed light on how to make the course more helpful for learning. As in Chapter 6, the findings are discussed with reference to previous studies.

7.2. Findings

7.2.1. How to learn Korean in the classroom

7.2.1.1. Grammar teaching

Preferences for learning grammar and the reasons

With regard to the methods of grammar instruction, 19 out of the 25 students revealed that they wanted to be taught directly by the teacher (deductive instruction) and did not appear to value the opportunity to discover grammar rules on their own before being taught (inductive instruction). The main reason for this was to avoid confusion. P3 explained that “I prefer the teacher to directly teach grammar because I may be lost when I try to figure it out by myself. It’s easier if they tell us about it.” Similarly, P14 remarked, “If I try to find out rules by myself, I might be confused or understand them wrong.” P7 stressed that if the teacher does not explicitly teach grammar, this student may misunderstand grammar, making a mistake and continuing to use it until the teacher corrects the errors, and more importantly “it is really hard to fix it later.” P18 noted that it was efficient for teachers to teach grammar first because they understand what works and does not work and how to use the language better. He added, “you know, like the lecturers would be Korean or they are a lot familiar with the language so they understand better how to use it.”

One point that needs to be stressed here, however, is that although students want the teacher's direct instruction, they do not always understand their teacher's explanation, and have to find additional support. P8 asserted that, particularly in Stage I, teachers had to explain grammar clearly. He noted that there were few examples presented in the instruction and the explanation was often unclear, so he needed extra help from a friend outside the class, stating that:

I didn't understand anything in the lectures so I had to spend time studying with the textbook at home and with my friend. In other words, yeh my friend was kind of an important part. My friend became more like a teacher than the lecturer or the tutor. I was following along with the friend to give me a help through the course.

(Such an opinion on the unclear explanation of grammatical rules was further commented on by more students when they discussed expectations from their teachers later.)

The other six out of the 25 students, on the other hand, maintained that it was more effective to have the opportunity to figure out grammar rules beforehand. What most of them meant by this, however, was reading through the grammar points in the textbook at home as a form of preparation, rather than discovering grammar rules on their own via examining samples of language before being taught in the classroom. They did this because reading grammar points in advance helped them to understand better what the lecturer was saying in class. P13, for instance, explained a need for students' preparation, saying that "grammar needs to be both sides learning. Students learn grammar before class and the lecturer should teach us, just clearing up questions we don't understand and showing us a few more examples as to how we can use it." Another example (P5) is as follows:

I'd like to have the opportunity to figure out grammar rules before being taught because then I understand what the lecturer is talking about easily. Sometimes, I read before the class, and when I did do the reading, I understand 'oh, she's doing this grammar point' and just try to follow her from there and it also makes it easier for me to do classroom activities because you know I've already done this reading and grammar point and now she's reemphasizing them.

Furthermore, 22 of the 25 participants revealed their preference for explicit grammar teaching, indicating the effectiveness of having grammar rules with examples highlighting usage before moving on to actual activities that might incorporate the rules

(a FonFS approach). P16 remarked that “you know, you should fully understand grammar and how to use it before you practise it.” She added, “Otherwise, you may get confused during the activities.” P17 indicated an agreement with the positive outcome of learning grammar before activities, stating:

I like to learn grammar first because if I have basic understanding, then I try to apply it. In a group activity, somebody would tell me, like help me while I am doing wrong or I will tell them while they're doing wrong.

P15 commented that “if you don't learn grammar beforehand, you have to figure out the rules for yourself during the activity and for some understanding, you may feel helpless and give up.” Similarly, P20 pointed out the negative effect of grammar being taught during activities, remarking that:

I think I prefer the teacher to teach grammar first and give communicative activities later rather than to interrupt during conversation. I think it is quite difficult to actually learn grammar points and pick up the words at the same time.

On the other hand, two out of the 25 students expressed a preference for implicit grammar instruction during activities because they believed that if they learned grammar while they were talking, they could understand how to use it better and they felt they acquired it more successfully. The remaining student did not indicate a preference for learning grammar explicitly or implicitly, stating “I don't mind learning grammar before or while doing activities.”

Beliefs about learning grammar in the classroom

All 25 participants indicated agreement with the statement, “Grammar should be taught in the classroom.” They believed that grammar was important as a foundation for learning a new language. Their responses suggested a belief that, without grammar, people may speak or pick up and understand some words, but it would be difficult to communicate with others and write essays properly or accurately. In other words, learning grammar helps L2 learners to put words together to make a structure or sentence in a proper order. P4, for example, stressed the importance of grammar, saying that “if we don't know grammar, we don't really know how to put this and that together into a sentence.” Furthermore, the data also indicated that learning grammar would also lead to good marks in tests. P5 commented that grammar was really important for

passing the tests and exams because “the assessments were mainly grammar... one of our tests was just the grammar, the written test.”

Despite appreciating the importance of grammar teaching in the classroom, not all students had a positive attitude toward learning grammar. Twenty one participants responded to a question about whether they liked learning grammar. Eleven students (seven students in Stage I, two in Stage II and two in Stage III) answered that they liked learning grammar, while nine students (two students in Stage I, four in Stage II and three in Stage III) did not like it, and one student in Stage III did not state her preference clearly. There were more students who did not like learning grammar in Stages II and III than in Stage I. The majority of the participants in Stage I revealed a favourable attitude toward learning grammar.

Regarding the reasons for their positive attitude, one of the 11 students (P1) indicated the reason that grammar helped him learn Korean, stating “without grammar, words are just words and I cannot communicate with others.” P4 mentioned that learning grammar is “interesting because Korean is so different from English. Like sentence structures are complicated and you can say one thing in so many ways.” P24 said “I do like learning grammar. It’s the most, uh probably the thing I like the most or am most familiar with so it’s previous experience.” In contrast, three out of those who did not like learning grammar stated that they felt grammar was difficult to learn, and three other students asserted that there were too many grammatical points to learn. The remaining three simply felt that learning grammar was not enjoyable. P13, for instance, remarked that “learning grammar is boring because you just learn a structure without context,” and added, “The way the lecturer teaches will determine whether you can learn grammar points with fun or boredom.” Finally, P20 who had not earlier indicated a positive or negative attitude toward learning grammar commented that “I like learning grammar that is useful and colloquial, but I don’t like learning those points that are very written, really formal that you don’t use much.”

Key findings about grammar teaching

The findings revealed that the majority of the students liked to be taught grammar directly by the teacher (deductive instruction) in order to avoid potential confusion, while some students preferred to discover the grammar rules (inductive instruction), emphasising the effectiveness of preparation for class. Furthermore, most students

revealed that they liked learning grammar beforehand to understand better how to use it during activities (explicit instruction: a FonFS approach). The findings also suggested that students of Korean strongly valued grammar instruction because of the effectiveness of learning grammar, although they might not like the way that grammar was taught in the classroom.

7.2.1.2. Corrective feedback

Methods of giving corrective feedback

Twenty two out of 25 students responded to the question about how they would like the teacher to correct their errors. Thirteen students answered that they liked the teacher to correct their mistakes by drawing their attention explicitly to them so that they could understand exactly where they got it wrong. For example, P13 stated, “I want the teacher to tell me exactly where I am wrong and tell me why and try to explain how I can make it correct and let me see if I can do it by myself.” P18 observed that “if you just repeat exactly the same thing I said, then I am not sure exactly where I went wrong and what I should do.”

In contrast, six other students responded that they wanted their mistakes to be corrected by recasting or repeating because this method better worked for them to understand what their teacher tried to point out. The following comment (P20) brings out this point well:

I prefer repeating because I think personally it is easier for me to pick up what you said, like comparing what I said wrong with what you said. Because if I was pointed out, ‘huh, what did I say before?’ I can’t remember and so I would kind of be in shock, ‘ok, ok...I will just follow what you have said’... Maybe you repeat first and then I will try and if I repeat the same mistake again, then you can point it out.

She added that students would try very hard to say a sentence, but if the teacher openly pointed out their mistakes, then they might be too embarrassed and discouraged from trying to say anything further.

Two other participants noted that their preference for an explicit or implicit method of CF depended on the situation. P4 asserted that if the teacher corrected students’ errors in front of the whole class, she would prefer an indirect correction, but if she were in a

one-on-one situation, the teacher's direct correction would be acceptable. P24 expressed his belief that:

Well, the recasting is good if it's something that we are supposed to know from a long time ago. If it's something that we have learned not too long ago, then, a short explanation again would be good to rejoin the mind.

Additionally, the remaining student commented that she was fine with both direct and indirect CF.

Considerations when correcting mistakes

Twenty one participants discussed factors the teacher should consider when giving CF, and 18 of them addressed their teacher's manner of error correction. In other words, they appeared to believe that the teacher should consider both informative ways to correct errors and their students' feelings and personalities, and should avoid embarrassing students or discouraging their attempts. P13 stressed the importance of "constructive criticism," saying, "Tell me what was wrong, but do so nicely. Don't just say, 'That's wrong.' I need to see why it's wrong and how I can make it correct." P6 stated that the teacher should correct errors in a pleasant way, not in a sarcastic or humorous way because "if the teacher's laughing at you, you're very embarrassed."

Furthermore, P15 noted that whether or not he would feel embarrassed in front of other students depended on two factors. One factor related to the teacher. If the teacher was a kind person, with a warm, considerate attitude, and had an encouraging way of explaining mistakes, then he did not mind having his errors pointed out. The other was that, "more importantly, it relies on the size of class." If the class size was around 15 people, the general atmosphere was pleasant and he knew everyone in the classroom, then he was happy to have his errors openly corrected.

On the other hand, a few participants felt that the method of correcting errors did not really matter. P9 remarked:

I mean I personally think it's more the student. It's the student that needs to take it into account because I mean the teacher's there to, the teacher's there for the students. The teachers only correct the student because the student wants to learn Korean and the teacher isn't doing it for their own enjoyment of wanting to correct every student's every mistake.

He concluded that, therefore, students should not feel embarrassed about being wrong or being corrected in front of other students.

Key findings about corrective feedback

The interview data revealed that many students preferred the teacher to give them CF by explicitly drawing their attention to their mistakes so that they could recognise and more clearly understand them. Many of the students, however, expressed a desire for their teacher to consider constructive ways to correct errors, students' feelings, their personalities, and the learning environment. In particular, class size is important to consider because whether the class is large or small seems to affect students' feelings about CF in the classroom. Furthermore, the findings suggest that the teacher should correct errors in a positive manner with constructive explanations, while students should accept their teacher's corrections with a positive attitude because ultimately the corrections are for their own benefit.

7.2.1.3. Activities that should be increased in the course

Twenty four participants discussed what activities they would like to have included or increased in their course. The data revealed that seven students in Stage I, four in Stage II and six in Stage III had a desire for more interactive activities in their course, while the remaining four students in Stage I wished to retain the existing balance of classroom activities. Another student in Stage II wanted to experience Korean culture outside the classroom, while the remaining two students in Stages II and III wanted more listening practice. In order to better understand the participants' views on which activities they would like to see increased in their course, it needs to be remembered that the learning environment in Stage I differed from that in Stages II and III, as noted in Chapter 5. That is, the Stage I course consisted of three lectures with a large class and one tutorial with a class of about thirty students per week, while at the time this interview-based research was being conducted the Stage II and III courses comprised only small classes combining lectures and tutorials.

With regard to the students' wish for greater interaction, the findings firstly revealed that the students in Stage I had two contrasting opinions: seven students stated that they wanted the class to be more interactive, while four wished to retain the balance of classroom activities. The former group stated that the class they had taken was focused

on “actual teaching,” that is, “grammar teaching rather than communication.” P1 emphasised the need for more interaction, “not just sitting there and listening to the teacher.” Similarly, P10 remarked that:

The lecturer just taught and we listened to her and read the textbook. After the grammar explanation, we did some exercises. That’s how we learned. The teaching method in the tutorials was the same as that in the lectures.

Furthermore, P9 raised the concern that the most common activities in tutorials were writing tasks, and there was little interaction between the teacher and students or between students. The following are excerpts from the interviews:

P9: And the amount of direct contact I had with the tutor might have been only maybe an hour’s worth throughout the whole semester. So I showed her my work when I finished the work and she said ‘that’s wrong, that’s wrong, that’s wrong’ and then...

R: Just correct? Then, [...overlapped voices] while she was doing correcting, what were the other students...

P9: They were just doing their own work.

R: Own work? So she gave some tasks.

P9: Yeah, it was all...uh all OHPs on the white board or OHPs and charts on the white board and she just...

R: Writing tasks?

P9: Yeah, they were all writing tasks. There was no, I don’t think there were that many...

R: Conversation, speaking activities?

P9: There was no conversation.

R: There was no conversation?

P9: I didn’t find much conversation.

This student concluded with the assertion that “you’re actually producing your own content if you’re speaking it as opposed to constantly writing it up because it’s a very

different skill.” He, therefore, had to find another forum outside the class in which to practise speaking Korean.

P8 remarked further that interaction could have a positive effect on motivating students to continue studying:

I think for Stage I, communicative activities are more appropriate. The communicative approach is what makes you excited about continuing. Actually getting something, being able to use what you learn will motivate you more in future. The most important thing is to use some basic language and get some confidence. As you use it, you can add grammar too. This process is a lot better than just sitting and learning grammar points.

However, he observed that a lecture with a large class does not facilitate successful interaction, saying that:

The lecturer said “Speak to your neighbour and ask each other questions,” but such a large class with no intimacy does not work for pair work for communication. You don’t know your neighbours and it’s difficult to form a relationship and be confident enough to practise with each other.

Therefore, as P4 remarked, many students were just sitting and talking with their friends during the activity times in lectures.

The four students in Stage I who wanted to maintain the existing balance of classroom activities, on the other hand, expressed satisfaction with the grammar-focused teaching they received in the course. P3 asserted that “teaching grammar is more important than giving the opportunity to do conversation in class. ... However, I don’t think we need more grammar activities in the course. That’s quite enough.” P6 commented that “I feel like I am not able to learn any new things in conversation compared to grammar. I think interaction is good for practice but I prefer grammar teaching.” She added that more grammar and less communicative language teaching was balanced for her because she felt that “learning grammar is the most important in class.” P4 said, “For me, I don’t really like speaking. I prefer reading and writing. That’s why I found the class interesting. ... I mind if I say something wrong. I’m not really confident speaking.” The remaining student (P11) gave his reason as follows:

Because if you add something, then it means you have to take something else away. And it’s only one hour so it’s hard to try compressing everything together in a limited time and it will be kind of half work. ... I think students should also

take responsibility for their study. I think classroom should be for mostly learning, and at home students should practise what they learned. Like why waste classroom time doing something that you can do somewhere else?

One aspect to be noted here, however, is that none of these students wanted more grammar-based activities in the course either, because they felt that the proportion of grammar instruction and conversation in the course was sufficiently balanced.

Compared with those in Stage I, the participants in Stages II and III, who were studying in only small classes of 10 to 20 students, gave detailed reasons for wanting more teaching approaches that focused on communication. One student in Stage II (P12) maintained that communicative group work made the class fun and interesting and fostered a better learning environment. He recalled his experience, saying, “I really loved how we had to be in a group and we had to use grammar points to explain a sentence by using those certain grammar points and I found it really fun, sometimes really interesting.” He also commented that he enjoyed the way the teacher arranged groupings: he sometimes had to find a partner he had not talked with before. This gave him the opportunity to get to know other people in the class, which led to a friendlier class atmosphere and made learning Korean more exciting. One student in Stage III (P25) stated that she wanted to have more communicative activities, giving her reason as follows:

I can memorise new grammar points or vocabulary like by reading textbooks or something in my own time but I cannot use those new grammar points by myself if I don't speak or use them in a real conversation. Just knowing is different from using.

Another in Stage III (P24) explained one of the benefits of interactive group work, saying that “you get to familiarise yourself with other people's ideas and their voices and hear them speak.” A third student in Stage III (P20) remarked that she felt more involved in learning when she was connected with other students.

In addition, there were four students in Stages II and III who described their different preferences for grouping patterns. One student in Stage II (P13) explained that she preferred paired work to group work, stating that:

Group work is fun but sometimes people miss out. Sometimes one person in a group doesn't want to work with another person. Also, the problem is that if one person is more confident in speaking or writing than the others, they rely on that

person's ideas or writing. Helping one another is good but you've got to make sure that everyone in a group is participating... So if you keep it to a pair, both students participate.

One student in Stage III (P23), however, expressed a greater desire for group work, saying that:

Pair work is ok but I feel that I can't really know if we're doing it right or not. ... You [the teacher] can't always be with every pair, so it's like if we think it's right, it's right, but then our speech may be wrong. If we work in a group of three or four, we can get more ideas together.

She also remarked that working in a small group was more effective than working with the whole class because she sometimes felt that when the teacher asked something to the entire class, a few students, including herself, dominated the conversation just because they were louder.

Key findings about activities that should be increased in the course

The findings suggest that the students' previous experience of learning Korean affected their beliefs about effective teaching and learning. According to some comments by the participants, it seemed that the current teaching was grammar-focused, particularly for the Stage I course. More students in Stages II and III, who had more experience of different teaching styles than those in Stage I, seemed to believe that interactive activities were useful in achieving successful learning outcomes. The students in Stage I taking the same course expressed diverse beliefs about effective classroom activities. There were also more students in Stage I who stressed the need for more interactive group work, but some students wanted to maintain the existing balance of activities, emphasising the importance of learning grammar. Additionally, the data revealed that students may have different preferences for paired or group work.

7.2.2. Students' beliefs about teachers' and students' roles in effective learning

7.2.2.1. Teachers' roles

The key roles of the teacher that the 25 participants frequently commented on related to aspects of teaching and their understanding of students' needs and interests. First, 20 interviewed students stressed that teachers should be responsible for teaching

effectively, “as a reliable source of information” and “as a supporter.” P14, for instance, stated that teachers should show that “they are able to teach so that students feel like ‘oh, the teacher’s really good’.” L2 maintained that “they need to prepare for what they teach us and fully understand the point that they are going to teach” because she found some teachers appeared to be confused about what they were teaching. Two other students (P5 and P15) shared a similar experience, saying that the lecturer was sometimes quite confusing because a lot of times she was talking to herself. P20 stressed that it was very important for the teacher to be able to answer the students’ questions. She described her own experience of a teacher who could not sufficiently answer questions. The students stopped asking after several attempts because they felt that ultimately they would not receive an adequate response from the teacher.

Four students added that teachers need to “make sure everyone understands what they are learning instead of just going on as most of the class understand and just a few students don’t, but it’s ok to move on anyway.” One of them (P10) clarified this point as follows:

When we’re given an activity, explain what we have to do clearly before getting us to do the activity. Otherwise, we get confused. Teachers should make sure that we understand what we are doing, and make sure that we are practising.

Two other students suggested that teachers should make assessment objectives clear and provide appropriate support. One of them (P24) elaborated on this point as follows:

Sometimes, some teachers just hand out assignments and then even if students don’t understand the questions and stuff, they [the students] don’t really ask for help and they get a bit lost. ... So just make sure everyone knows what they are doing and then that’s probably the best thing.

P8 gave reasons why he found listening tests very difficult despite all the hard work he had done as follows:

I wasn’t given any preparation, any form of the listening test at all. We didn’t have a clue about the format that it would be a story read and we had three multi-choices to answer the story. Also, we didn’t know how to best listen, like how much time to spend listening, when to read and choose the answers, and also when she was reading the story... We didn’t know how much time we would be given to answer the questions, which turned out to be no time at all.

He also stated that he was greatly frustrated by the lecturer's comment when the test was returned, saying "I will filter her comment, 'I was very disappointed with the results of your listening test... I expected a lot more.' Something like that. That comment really frustrated me because I felt it was an unfair comment."

Furthermore, the findings revealed that in their support role, teachers should encourage students to learn the language in a positive learning environment, be approachable and demonstrate interest in the students and their learning needs. P20, for instance, said "I think it's important for teachers to keep encouraging students to learn whether they [the students] are capable or not." She added that she found some teachers showed favouritism – "oh, this student's really bad so I like that student more" – but they should avoid such preferential treatment. P15 noted that it was important for teachers to show an interest in the students they teach, as he felt that "the more the teacher's interested in me, the more I can get interested in the topic." Two other students emphasised that if teachers befriended students, they would become more approachable and, if they were approachable, students would feel more comfortable asking them questions.

With regard to the other important role the teacher has, 16 students stressed that it was crucial that teachers understood students' needs and interests. Twelve of these students remarked that it was important for teachers to integrate cultural aspects through the use of audio-visual materials, which could make the class more relevant to students' interests. L24 commented that teachers should try more original methods of teaching the Korean language, exposing the students to culture and media, as opposed to the old-fashioned style of teaching using textbooks and correcting wrong answers. L9 also stressed the importance of incorporating the culture into language teaching:

At the start of the semester, the teacher asked all the students why they were learning Korean... Even if it's a general education [course], why have they chosen it? I mean if 50% of the students say 'I'm learning Korean because I watch Korean dramas,' then it would be good for them [teachers] to integrate Korean dramas into the courses as some method. ...if people are doing Korean because of pop music and work, we do not need to analyse song lyrics but if we go through a song or something, it would make it more like 'this is why I am learning Korean' and it's actually getting you somewhere, I think.

This student and three other students referred to their experience of watching a few episodes of the drama "Winter Sonata" for a couple of minutes in a few lectures. The participants held different opinions on the use of the drama. Two of them said that they

enjoyed the episodes because it enabled them to experience real Korean language use.

P4 stated that:

It was using some structures and words we'd learned about and there were other things. She said "Don't worry about that. We don't learn that but listen to this, one sentence. What did you hear?" and "Look, it's real Korean that you're learning."

In contrast, the other two students stated that they did not learn much from the drama.

P13 said that:

Basically it was, kind of, like learning a grammar point, showing a grammar example in an actual video... It was ok but it was, kind of like, you know, watching a little bit of a random drama that you've never seen before, which was pretty isolated. It wasn't in context or anything, and we didn't know the surrounding situation of like whatever she was showing us... It was very hard to understand because it was Korean speaking, and it was hard to pick up on so we really needed subtitles on that to clarify what they were talking about because we didn't understand the vocabulary.

She therefore suggested that audio-visual material is useful, but only if it is suitable material and "it's got to be really relevant to what you're learning and it has to be the language level that you're at."

Finally, five out of the 12 students who had discussed the importance of integrating Korean culture and four other students stated that it was crucial for the teacher to "make class fun" so that they would become more motivated to study. In order for the teachers to make class more enjoyable, in addition to integrating cultural aspects, the data also suggested that it would be helpful if the teachers provided various activities such as games, pair work, and extra-curricular activities, and had a passion for the subject they teach. In particular, P18 asserted that "if they are enthusiastic like [a teacher's name], if they have an interest in what they are teaching, then you as a student have more interest in why they like it and why you should learn it." L13 highlighted the importance of making class interesting – if the class was boring, she felt like, "Oh I'll leave it for later," but if it was fun then she was eager to return to the class. She also elaborated on what made a class fun or boring. If the teachers were really enjoying what they were doing, all the students would automatically have fun because they would all cooperate, have a good time, and end up enjoying the experience. Yet, if teachers were of the

attitude that “oh, yeah I’ve got to teach this today. I have to do this,” then students also detected that attitude and were not interested either.

Key findings for teachers’ roles

According to the findings, the students believed that the roles of the teacher were not just limited to conveying knowledge properly or being a reliable source of information but also included being aware of students’ learning needs, ensuring students understood what they were learning, making class interesting, motivating students and being approachable. In particular, in order to make the class enjoyable and motivate students to learn Korean, the findings suggested that teachers should genuinely care about the class and utilise teaching materials from modern media that were relevant to the lessons and reflected students’ interests, such as Korean culture.

7.2.2.2. Students’ roles

With regard to the key roles that students ought to fulfil, 23 out of the 25 participants valued their own activities undertaken outside the classroom such as revision and preparation for class. For example, P6 emphasised the importance of regularly reviewing what she had learned, saying that “you should do self study, not just rely on the lectures or tutorial.” She added, “For me, I’m so obsessed with the Korean language. I don’t really mind if class is boring. I’m just interested in it.” P20 commented, “Preparing for the classes is really important. It’s really hard for students to do that, but I guess it’s important to even just kind of know what’s going on in the classroom.” P24 discussed students’ roles in addition to individual self-study, saying, “I guess create opportunities by ourselves to use what we have learnt... Find friends or don’t be afraid to talk to people even though most people probably are [afraid]... because their abilities aren’t so high.” As for reviewing and previewing lesson content, more Stage I and II students had a stronger preference for revision than their Stage III counterparts: seven students in Stage I and four in Stage II preferred revision only, while four in Stage III preferred preparation only.

Eleven of the 23 students who had highlighted the importance of self-study and three other students who had not mentioned it before spoke of their roles in class time. More students in Stage I emphasised their participation in class than their counterparts in Stages II and III. One student in Stage I (P10), for example, stressed the importance of

attending every class because if he missed even one class, it was difficult to catch up. He also remarked that students should pay attention to what the teacher says and do the work they are supposed to do in class. Another student in Stage I (P9) advocated:

Keeping up with content. We learn grammar structures every day and then we have to learn vocabulary every day and stuff like that. And you're, your role was actually being, doing the homework, doing homework, following what's going on, going to all your classes, um, and uh not just think of it as another course you need A+ or whatever in. Actually taking an active interest in it.

Furthermore, there were some other necessary qualities such as having a desire to learn Korean, having a positive attitude toward learning the language, asking the teacher questions when necessary, and helping other students.

In order to determine the extent to which students assume individual responsibility for their learning achievement, the 25 participants were asked if they fulfilled the roles they considered necessary while learning the language. Seventeen students indicated that they tried to fulfil their roles most of the time, while the other eight revealed that they did not study as much as they should or they could not study to the best of their ability. Seven students out of these eight participants gave reasons why they did not conduct themselves as they should. Three students stated that they simply did not know what to do. P18, for instance, gave her reason as follows: “Because personally I’m not really used to preparing for a class before the class. I’m more like, if the teacher gives me like assignments like homework and then I do it.” Two other students remarked that because they were learning other subjects which they had to prioritize at certain times, they could not focus on Korean to the same degree. Finally, the remaining two students said that they tried to revise or prepare for class but as there were many aspects in learning the language, they often felt overwhelmed and became lazy.

In addition, four participants discussed which roles – those of the students or of the teachers – were more important in effective language acquisition. Two students considered students’ roles as more important than the teachers’. P7 asserted that “even though the teacher doesn’t do well, you should put your effort in,” adding, “because you are the one who wants to learn. It’s your responsibility.” P13 stressed that although teachers may stimulate students’ interest in learning, successful learning outcomes depended on how students assumed responsibility for their own learning, as follows:

The student has to do a lot more than the lecturer should do because it's the student's responsibility. If they really want to learn it, they have to make an effort to learn it. If you don't know something, go ask the teacher and they will help you... If teachers are motivated to teach and take more responsibility for their role, then students will start realising that they need to do more than what they're doing now.

In contrast, the other two students valued the teachers' roles over the students'. P16 mentioned that "because like the teachers start you off so like if a teacher's enthusiastic and like motivated to teach, then students will be like 'oh, yeah, this is fun. I want to learn as well.'" Similarly, P18 stated her belief that although students should be more responsible for their learning, "the teacher probably has more effect on stimulating interest through the way they teach or the work they give." She added that "teachers can really affect how you feel about the topic. They can make you dislike it or want to take it again or make it your major."

Key findings about students' roles

The findings revealed that more than two-thirds of the participants stated that they fulfilled their roles as students. It should, however, be noted that these findings were subjective and based on what the students believed they did or did not do. With regard to students' roles, most students believed that they should revise what they have learned as well as prepare for the next class outside the classroom. The students in Stages I and II seemed to value reviewing over previewing material, whereas the students in Stage III expressed the reverse process. It was also apparent that many students believed that their roles included attending classes, paying attention to their teachers and conducting themselves appropriately in the classroom. The students in Stage I had stronger beliefs about their roles in class time than their counterparts in Stages II and III. Furthermore, the findings suggest that some students need the teacher's guidance about what they are expected to do for successful learning. Additionally, the findings revealed that some students believed that the students' roles were more important than the teachers' roles because they were the ones who wanted to learn, while others considered the teachers' roles as more important since teachers' attitudes toward teaching could influence students' attitudes toward learning.

7.2.3. Reasons for continuing or discontinuing the study of Korean

Out of the 25 participants, 15 students said that they would continue studying, while nine students stated that they would not. The remaining student said that he had not decided whether he would continue or not because it would depend on his schedule, although he wished to take another course.

Reasons for continuing study

With regard to the main reasons for continuation of study, 11 out of the 15 students who planned to continue studying the language said that they needed to complete Korean language courses to gain a degree. Two students in Stage I remarked that they had decided to major in Korean before entering the course. P7 stated, “I consider Korean as my major because I really had fun learning Korean from my friend and I think it’s really interesting to learn another language.” P11 remarked that he was looking for another major after dropping out of his previous major, and he became interested in the Korean language and decided to take Korean courses as his major. P10 said, “In order to get a BA degree, as I’m majoring in Japanese and I cannot get enough credits from Japanese papers, I have to take some other papers, such as Korean.” On the other hand, one New Zealand student (P15) and all three Korean heritage students (P12, P14 and P22) remarked that they would like to improve their language skills in order to achieve their goals. The New Zealand student expressed his desire to improve his language skills, saying “I’d like to go and work with Korean people in the future. ... I expected to be able to relate to Koreans and to write essays and make speeches in Korean.” The Korean heritage students stressed that they needed to improve reading and writing skills, although they were relatively confident in their speaking abilities.

Reasons for discontinuing study

With the exception of one participant, the other eight participants gave short and simple reasons for the discontinuation of their studies. First, all six students taking Korean as a GE paper in Stage I indicated that they would not continue to study Korean because they had taken the course only because they needed to select a GE paper. P2 clarified this point, saying “I think a lot of students coming into Korean 110 only think of doing it as a general paper and not continuing with it before they even start.” P1 also stated that “when they get the points they needed, they do not need to take it any longer.” Secondly, there were some personal reasons: P9 said that he had completed the papers

he needed in order to gain a degree and would graduate from university soon; P10 stated that he planned to continue his Korean studies but he had discovered the schedule clashed with his major subject; and P19 said that he would go to Korea for further study.

In contrast, one student in Stage I (P8) gave several critical reasons for discontinuing his study. Relating his own experience, he said he had been highly motivated at the start but had lost motivation due to “not enjoyable” aspects during the learning process. First, he struggled with the teachers’ method of instruction. He could not understand the materials given and the explanations of grammar points so he began to rely on his Korean friend outside the class. He was also disappointed with the results of his assessments, because he could not seem to achieve a good mark even though he had prepared for each test. He believed that he needed clearer formats and preparative practice for each assessment, so that he could understand what he was expected to study. Furthermore, he was frustrated with the method of checking homework. He felt that he wasted a great deal of time in tutorials because in each class the teacher spoke individually with each student, looking at the homework to see what had been done. While each student was having his/her homework checked, the others were sitting and waiting for between ten and fifteen minutes for the marking to be completed. The teacher realised only some weeks afterwards that they needed something to do during the wait and wrote exercises on the board first and then checked the homework. He added that he often felt he was considered a bad student and was disparaged by the teacher in class when he did not bring his homework. A lot of his negative feelings about the Korean course arose during the first four weeks. By that stage, he had already developed a dislike for the course, blamed himself, and started putting off study, and he eventually discontinued study.

Key findings about reasons for continuing or discontinuing the study of Korean

Unsurprisingly, the findings revealed that the students who were majoring in Korean and who had a strong desire to improve their language skills would continue studying. The data also confirmed the results of the previous questionnaire-based study that the students taking Korean as a GE paper did not continue learning the language. More importantly, in common with the findings from the previous focus group interviews and questionnaire-based study, this investigation also suggests that teachers can be a

demotivating factor in class. In particular, the teachers' teaching styles and their attitudes toward the class can affect students' considerations about discontinuing study.

7.2.4. Suggestions to make the Korean course more helpful to learning

Out of the 25 participants, 21 students offered comments and suggestions, while the other four students stated that they had nothing to suggest, two of whom expressed satisfaction with the course. The participants discussed six different themes: use of alternative teaching approaches, simplification of lesson content, integration of cultural aspects, facilitation of a positive learning environment, provision of support and assistance with assessments, and addressing textbook issues.

Firstly, nine students suggested that the teachers should use a wider variety of activities, including interactive group work with small classes, and more diverse teaching materials. One student in Stage I (P2) noted that the activity most frequently conducted in class was completing exercises from the textbook and checking the answers, which she found boring. Two other students in Stage I (P1 and P6) suggested using more diverse activities, not just writing, in order to make the class fun. They had expected the class to be enjoyable but they were disappointed, adding “one of my friends who studied Korean last year said it was interesting. There were group activities and games... Maybe this year the tutor was changed.” With regard to writing tasks, P20 commented that writing is important, but teachers should acknowledge that frequently giving writing tasks “could make a person not be interested in the subject.” She felt that she needed more listening and speaking activities in class and the amounts of the activities should be balanced. Furthermore, P23 and P25 stated that the teacher should use less of the textbook and instead provide a range of activities such as role plays, making videos, making posters or reading newspapers, and utilise other teaching materials such as PowerPoint, pictures, handouts and videos. The students would then feel more engaged in the learning process.

Secondly, five students stressed that it was important for teachers to foster a positive learning environment by providing smaller classes, being approachable, and building positive relationships with their students. One student in Stage I (P8) remarked that through smaller classes, teachers could generate a friendlier atmosphere, in which students could learn the language more effectively. In such a setting, it would be much

easier for students to approach the teacher and ask questions, discuss matters, and consequently, the learning would be much more enjoyable. Another student in Stage I (P4) stated that it would be effective to have interactive activities in smaller classes, saying:

I guess the teacher tried to give some tasks to talk to each other but not everyone did. They just sit down, not talk. We just pretend to be doing it but not really. It's hard for one teacher to check if each student's doing it in a big class... If the teacher really wants to teach effectively, I really recommend more tutorials because smaller classes work effectively.

Similarly, one student in Stage II (P15) said that it was important for close relationships between teachers and students, and between students and students, to be developed because when people felt comfortable, they had fewer fears and less stress about attempting the language, which could produce better learning outcomes.

Thirdly, as revealed in the discussion about teachers' roles, four students stressed the importance of support and assistance with assessments. P18 complained about unclear assessment that she experienced:

I remember in Stage I, a lot of students were quite unprepared for the tests and exams because we didn't know exactly what we were expected to know. I think in Stage I, we didn't get a lot of like previous tests to have a look at so we could not get any information about how the test was gonna be written out and how much time we needed to write up our own dialogues.

P24 stated that there were quite a few assessments which seemed to accumulate and were quite demanding. He added, "Maybe that's ok if as long as the teacher keeps giving out kind of some support and help um with each, um large assignment and then that'll help people feel a bit motivated knowing what to do."

Fourthly, four students highlighted the importance of integrating cultural aspects into the course. They suggested that teachers could make the course more relevant to the students as much as possible through Korean dramas and movies, music and culture. P15, for instance, stated that students taking Korean as a GE paper may not be really interested in learning the language but many of them were still interested in the culture:

Look at a lot of people doing Korean 110G. Most of them are from Asia and I think that's a result of 'hanryu', Korean wave, and I talked to a lot of Malaysian,

Chinese students who were very interested in Korean 110G because they love Korean dramas and Korean music...

Thus, if the course reflected the culture, it would be more relevant to students' interests and motivate them more to learn the language. He also suggested that as a way of "advertising Korean society," teachers should also make the course more connected to other parts of Korean culture in the local environment. It would raise awareness of Korean people and their culture amongst the people of New Zealand, spread the Korean language, and be beneficial to the Korean community in this country as well as to the Korean program itself.

Fifthly, two students suggested that teachers organise the class better and make the content simpler. P8 stressed the need to simplify the content, recalling his experience that "in Stage I Korean, there was a lot of content. Some of it, I think, a little bit unnecessary. For instance, we learned three vocabulary items to say 'shop' in Korean." He also stressed that if teachers wanted more students to continue to Stage II, they should make the course basic and simple with a balance of teaching/lecturing and giving students the opportunity to practise real world use of the language. He elaborated on this point:

First of all, teachers should concentrate on a lot of basic vocabulary and basic forms so that students could feel like when they go out that actually they can use it. Then, they feel much happier. Therefore, they would come back and learn better in future... It is important to have a good balance of learning and using it. You should fully learn and practise basic rules before adding new things.

Finally, two students discussed the current textbooks. P13 wanted to have a single textbook per year. She explained that in the second semester of the first year, she continued to use the first textbook for a while and had to buy a second textbook during the course, and in the following semester, she had to buy a third textbook during the course again, which made her feel that one semester covered one and a half textbooks, which was too much to handle. P19 remarked that information in the current textbooks was out of date so the textbooks needed to be updated, observing that, in a few chapters, there were many old-fashioned words and unusual, highly specific words such as professional musical terms. He added, "It's good to know but... you know you really want to be learning things that are useful to you."

Key findings about suggestions to make the Korean course more helpful to learning

The findings suggest that teachers should provide diverse classroom activities and utilise a variety of teaching materials. They also indicated that teachers should make an effort to foster positive relationships both with students and between students, and provide a friendly learning atmosphere with small classes, to create the optimum environment in which students can learn. Furthermore, it was noted that teachers should clearly explain assessment requirements, and integrate cultural aspects directly relevant to the interests of the students. It was also recommended that teachers should adjust the lesson content according to the students' levels of language proficiency and their needs, and, finally, that textbooks should preferably be updated and only one used in each year.

7.2.5. Summary

Through analysis of the student interviews, it was clear that the participants believed that grammar teaching was essential for students to improve their language skills. Students of Korean seemed to want to learn grammar through the teacher's direct explanation before an activity in order to avoid potential confusion and have clear understanding how to use it during the activity. Furthermore, they appeared to prefer the teacher to correct their errors explicitly, provided that this was done with constructive explanations and consideration of feelings, class size, and whether the grammar points had been learned recently or some time before. This investigation has revealed that the majority of students expressed a strong desire for more interactive activities because they felt that the emphasis of the current teaching was mainly on grammar exercises and writing activities. According to the comments, interaction could make the class fun, make students feel more engaged in learning, and motivate them to continue study. In this respect, one point should be noted. As some participants highlighted, it would not be practical or useful to provide pair or small group work in a large class such as a lecture. In addition, some students in Stage I were satisfied with the current, grammar-focused teaching style, and wanted to retain the balance of teaching grammar and communication. Furthermore, the data revealed that the students of Korean expected their teachers to deliver content clearly with proper support when teaching and setting assignments, and to provide more tutorials per week, more communication, and interesting classes. With regard to the students' roles, many students of Korean seemed to acknowledge and fulfil their roles such as reviewing and previewing material outside the classroom, while some students needed the teacher's guidance about learning

expectations. Finally, the findings suggest that teachers should bear in mind that their teaching approaches and attitudes have a strong impact on either stimulating students' interest in learning the language, or demotivating them so that they decide to discontinue study.

7.3. Discussion

The central aim of the in-depth individual interviews with students was to clarify the students' views and needs that had arisen from the focus group interviews and questionnaires. First, the data gave the reasons for students' preferences for grammar teaching and CF. Through the interviews, it was also possible to obtain a better understanding of why the students wished to have more communicative instruction in the current course. Furthermore, this investigation has provided more specific opinions from students on teachers' and their own roles in successful learning and the reasons for their decisions to continue or discontinue their study. This section discusses the findings in relation to the questions addressed in the individual interviews with students on page 135.

7.3.1. Students' preference for grammar teaching

The first question of the individual interviews with students asked about how students of Korean want to learn grammar along with their reasons in terms of learning grammar (1) deductively or inductively (e.g., Ellis, 2001b) and (2) explicitly or implicitly (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Lyster, 1994). First, the interview data confirm the results from the previous questionnaire-based study that the majority of participants had a strong preference for "deductive learning" (Nunan, 1991, p. 158). The students seem to consider their teachers to be the experts on the language, and explaining grammar is one of the learners' expectations from their teachers (McKay, 1987). The majority of the participants favour the teacher's direct explanation because they believe that teachers can prevent potential misconceptions or confusion they may hold if they attempt to discover rules on their own beforehand. Furthermore, the students appear to believe that deductive learning is more efficient because "no time is wasted in discovering" (Ausubel, 1964, p. 422). Given these findings, one could assume that the opportunity for discovering rules may not be necessary for learners of Korean because, perhaps in

contrast to school students, they are “older learners who are perfectly capable of comprehending abstract syntactic propositions” (Ausubel, 1964, p. 422).

In relation to students’ preference for explicit versus implicit grammar teaching, the interview data revealed that most participants expressed a stronger preference for explicit explanation of grammar regardless of different proficiency levels. This finding differs from that of the previous questionnaire-based study, in which students had no clear preference between them. One plausible interpretation of this difference may be attributable to the limitations of surveys, that is, as Kumar (2005) notes, respondents may misinterpret questions in a questionnaire, which “will affect the quality of the information provided” (p. 130). In contrast, interviewing can more effectively gauge student perspectives on this issue because participants have opportunity to clarify questions if they do not clearly understand them (Sharp, 2009; Stake, 2010).

The findings also revealed that the students regarded explicit grammar instruction before activities as effective because the impartation of grammatical knowledge could help students when they came to figure out what they should be doing during the activities. Furthermore, as P20 noted, it may be difficult for learners to concentrate on both grammar and communication at the same time (cf. Ellis, 2001b). These findings from this research support the views of DeKeyser (1998), Lightbown (1998), and Lyster (1994) that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction in L2 acquisition. The findings, however, contradict Lightbown’s (1998) and Long and Robinson’s (1998) assertion that implicit grammar-based instruction in context is more effective for language accuracy than isolated grammar instruction because learners still focus on meaningful communication even when learning grammar. They advocated abandonment of explicit grammar teaching.

In addition, the data provide evidence of strong positive opinions on learning grammar, as also revealed in the questionnaire-based study (cf. Schulz, 1996, 2001). The students of Korean seem to believe that grammar plays a constructive and fundamental role in learning the language in terms of creating a proper structure. In other words, they consider that “knowledge of grammar is essential for clarity of communication in both the written and the spoken form” (Bade, 2008, p. 182). Moreover, the findings suggest that learning grammar is useful for their assessments. This view is in accord with one of Schulz’s (1996) explanations about students’ favourable attitudes toward grammar-

focused instruction, that “student opinions may be strongly influenced by the grammar-based curriculum and discrete-point testing methods” (p. 348). Her explanation seems sensible according to P5’s comment in the interview that “the assessments were mainly grammar... one of our tests was just the grammar, the written test.” Thus, a possible reason for students’ positive attitudes toward grammar teaching derives from washback effect, which refers to “the impact that tests have on teaching and learning” (Horwitz, 2013, p. 217) in a way. Horwitz pointed out that “teachers may tell students to use language communicatively and creatively, but if grades are based on grammatical accuracy, students quickly learn to spend their time studying grammar” (p. 217). It must also be noted here, however, that although the students value the effectiveness of learning grammar, they might not necessarily like grammar study. In interviews, almost half of the participants expressed unfavourable attitudes toward learning grammar (e.g., it is boring, not enjoyable, difficult, and too many things to learn) (cf. Loewen et al., 2009). It can therefore be said that although students of Korean favour the teacher’s direct grammar instruction before activities, they may not be content with the current methods of teaching grammar.

7.3.2. Students’ preference for corrective feedback

The second question of the individual interviews with students related to how students of Korean want their errors to be corrected, along with their reasons for their choices. Unlike the findings from the questionnaire-based research, which revealed no statistically significant difference regarding students’ preference between explicit and implicit CF, the interview data indicated that many participants liked their teacher to correct errors by drawing their attention explicitly to them (cf. Mackey et al., 2007). The students desired not only repair or correction but also constructive explanations. One possible explanation for the different findings between the questionnaire-based study and the interview could be that, as noted above, compared with the survey, the interview method was more effective in probing students’ views on this topic in depth (Sharp, 2009; Stake, 2010). Their preference appears to be based on their belief that explicit CF enables them to understand better what they have done wrong and how they should correct their mistake. This reason is supported by Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen’s (2009) claim that explicit error correction is more effective than implicit error correction because of the clear nature of “meta-discourse” (p. 92) as well as raising learners’ metalinguistic awareness of corrected forms. Ellis et al. (2006) also

found from their experimental research that explicit CF in the form of metalinguistic information was generally more conducive to L2 learning than implicit CF.

It should be noted, however, that the findings also indicated that implicit CF may be more effective for some students. Some participants asserted that they could better understand when the teacher provided CF in an indirect way, such as by repeat or recast, giving as a reason that they were concerned about being embarrassed in class when errors were openly pointed out. According to P20, when a specific student is focused on in the whole class, he/she may be shocked or embarrassed and just follow what the teacher mentioned without proper understanding of the point. Fukai's (2000) study pointed out that embarrassment was one of the negative factors which generally caused insecurity and anxiety in learning an L2. Therefore, as a few participants suggested, rather than claiming that either form of CF is more effective than the other, it would be more reasonable to consider various conditions in which explicit or implicit CF is most effective or appropriate.

Furthermore, this research confirmed the findings of previous studies (e.g., Loewen et al., 2009; Schulz, 2001), in which the students expressed their positive attitudes toward error correction. Yet, it also revealed that the teacher was expected to carefully consider learners' feelings and personalities, and their learning environment, before giving CF. This finding is supported by H. D. Brown's (2007) assertion that teachers should sensitively take into account "learner's language ego fragility, anxiety level, confidence, and willingness to accept correction" (p. 350) in deciding whether to treat or ignore errors. In this respect, this research has revealed that small classes can contribute to facilitating students with a positive learning environment and less stressful atmosphere so that they could be more ready for CF. In a large class, students barely know each other and it is difficult for them to form a good relationship to initiate an activity in class (cf. Hiep, 2007). (The issue of class size will further be discussed later in this section.)

7.3.3. Reasons for students' desire for interactive activities

The third question of the individual interviews with students was asked to better understand why learners want to have more interactive activities despite their strong preference for grammar instruction. In order to better understand students' desire for

interactive activities, it is necessary to take a few current learning situations into account. First, the students' comments through the interviews revealed that the main classroom activities in their Korean courses, particularly in Stage I courses, seem to be learning grammar, reading the textbook, and written exercises. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001, 2014), the current Korean language courses can be perceived as grammar-based, the major focus of which is on reading and writing, with little or no systematic attention being paid to speaking and listening. Furthermore, as previously noted, the learning environment of Stage I differed from that of Stages II and III: that is, the Stage I course consisted of three lectures with a large class of over 100 students and one tutorial with a small class per week, while the Stages II and III courses contained only small classes combining lectures and tutorials. These different learning environments seem to influence students' perceptions about effective teaching approaches.

Firstly, the findings revealed that the students in Stage I had two contrasting opinions: seven students stated that they wanted the class to be more interactive, while four wished to retain the balance of classroom activities. The former group expressed a strong desire for more interaction in their course. They explained that the focus of instruction in both lectures and tutorials was on grammar and written tasks, and this consequently led to a lack of opportunity for using the language with others. They stressed that speaking through interaction could stimulate students' wishes for continuing the language because, as P8 asserted, when learners found they could say something in the language they were learning, they were further motivated to learn new things. Moreover, the comments suggest that interaction helps to make instruction more individualized and enables learners to learn how to work together with others. These reasons reflect the students' beliefs about the advantages of group activities or cooperative learning advocated by Ghaith and Kawtharani (2006), Jacobs (1998), and Long and Porter (1985) that interaction through group work can increase the quantity of learner speech, the variety of speech acts, motivation, enjoyment, autonomy, social integration, and learning, while it can also reduce anxiety.

The latter group in Stage I, on the other hand, wished to retain the existing balance of activities – more grammar instruction and less communication – emphasising the importance of learning grammar formally in class as their reason. In this respect, it is

worth noting that none of the students desired to have more grammar instruction in their course, admitting that they had sufficient grammar instruction. These findings are somewhat incongruous with those of Loewen et al. (2009), which revealed that their ESL learners who had previously received greater amounts of grammar teaching than their foreign language counterparts valued grammar-based instruction less, but strongly favoured communication at the same time. The distinctive preferences of the students in Stage I in this study probably result from unfamiliarity with group work. The students in Stage I have not experienced group activities much, so they may believe that teacher-centred grammar teaching is the best way to learn the Korean language (cf. Brookes & Grundy, 1990).

In addition, according to the participants in Stage I, it appeared to be clear that a lecture with a large class was not conducive to a more communicative approach, and the students of Korean were aware of this issue (cf. Hiep, 2007). P8 clearly explained this point, stating “it is difficult to form a relationship and be confident enough to practise with each other” in such a large class. As noted by T. Bell (2005), “lecturing may be effective in a history course but not in a beginning foreign language course” (p. 259). P4 remarked that many students are just sitting and talking with their friends during the activity times. The reason for this is probably that, in a lecture, “student attention soon wanes and turns to more stimulating and often undesirable activities” (Moore, 2009, p. 147), but the lecturer cannot control each student’s behaviour in a large class. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), learners are willing to participate in an activity in a “psychologically safe classroom climate,” in which they feel that they belong to the class and are supported (pp. 110-111). In fact, one could imagine that it is not easy for learners, particularly those with a lower level of language proficiency, to initiate interaction with a person who they do not know well. In order to encourage students to communicate with others, it is crucial to build a supportive and positive learning environment at the outset (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), but it is difficult to do so in a large lecture-type class.

In contrast, the students in Stages II and III who had more experience of diverse teaching methods and were provided only small classes expressed a strong desire for integrating more interactive activities in their current course. There appeared to be several reasons for this:

- Communicative group work makes the class fun and interesting, which creates a better learning environment.
- Interaction through different groupings makes the class more friendly and learning the language more exciting.
- Knowing the language is different from using the language – students cannot acquire the language without interaction with others.
- Interaction allows learners to familiarise themselves with others' ideas and their voices.
- Interactive group work helps learners feel more involved in learning because of connection with others.

One point that needs to be considered here is that there were no students in Stages II and III who wished to have more grammar instruction or retain the balance of current classroom activities. One possible explanation for this is that the participants may have experienced more interaction in their courses than in Stage I courses and find it effective in learning the language. This assumption is supported by Horwitz's (1987) assertion that "some beliefs are likely influenced by students' previous experiences as language learners" (p. 119).

7.3.4. Students' beliefs about teachers' roles in stimulating their learning

The fourth question addressed in the individual interviews with students investigated students' perspectives on how their teachers could help their learning. It was confirmed that students believed that the teacher plays a central role in language learning (Sanprasert, 2010). The interview data indicated that not only teachers' teaching styles but also their behaviours and attitudes toward the class and the course they are teaching affected their learning environment and feeling about learning the language (cf. Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The students of Korean seem to believe that "teachers are powerful *motivational socialisers*" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 35, emphasis in original) in the classroom.

The first important role the teacher plays is as a reliable source of information, which relates to teaching Korean effectively. Similarly, Schulz (2001) revealed that the L2 learners in her research regarded their teacher "as an expert knower" (p. 255). The students of Korean expect teachers to fully prepare for and understand the content they

are teaching so that they can explain teaching points and answer possible questions clearly. Teachers should build up teaching content from the basic and simple points, considering whether new vocabulary or grammar points are really necessary to teach. This point is well explicated in the following comment (P8), “you should fully learn and practise basic rules before adding new things.” Furthermore, teachers should ensure all students understand what they are learning. For instance, they need to explicitly explain what students are supposed to do before getting them to do an activity. Such clear guidance can reduce students’ confusion and anxiety (Fukai, 2000).

The teacher also plays a supportive role in the process of learning. The interview data suggest that clear assessment objectives with appropriate support can help students understand what they are expected to know and better prepare for the tests and exams. The format for tests/exams or assignments must be clearly explained so that students can prepare for them properly. This finding is supported by H. D. Brown’s (2007) claim that the teacher should ensure that students understand how they will be assessed in their courses, offering some preparation with appropriate and useful strategies for taking the test. P24 stressed that support and assistance for assessments helps students feel more motivated to study. In addition, P8 remarked that teachers should avoid a negative comment such as “I was very disappointed with the results of your listening test” after a test. He felt that it was not fair because the bad test results were caused by the lack of information about what they should study. As Dörnyei (2001) claims, teachers should consider providing motivational feedback which informs on progress and competence in tests or examinations, rather than judging the assessment results.

Furthermore, teachers can stimulate the learning process by making the class enjoyable. As previously indicated, the main classroom activities involved doing exercises from the textbook and checking the answers, which, according to several participants, was boring. The interview data also suggest that teachers can make class interesting by varying the activities (e.g., interactive group work, games, and extra-curricular activities), and a variety of teaching materials (e.g., PowerPoint, pictures, handouts, and videos) (cf. Cheung, 2001). In particular, teachers need to help to make the classes more relevant to students’ interests and needs. In other words, because many of the students learning Korean are interested in Korean culture, it may be conducive to integrate popular music, dramas, movies, and so on because “popular culture touches the lives of

students, and grows out of their natural experience and interest” (Cheung, 2001, p. 58). These findings support the claim by Blaz (2006) and Cheung (2001) that learning is more likely to take place when students are engaging in classes in which teaching content and activities relate to students’ interests, provided that the audiovisual materials are relevant to their learning points and at their language level. Furthermore, teachers’ cheerful attitude to teaching and their passion for the subject they are teaching will positively motivate students to have more interest in their study (cf. Cheung, 2001; Dörnyei, 1998, 2001).

Finally, the data suggest that a positive learning environment motivates students to learn Korean successfully. This view is in accord with Dörnyei’s (2001) assertion that teachers should create basic motivational conditions such as “appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the students,” “a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere,” and “a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms” (pp. 119-120). In order to create these psychological environments, it is of importance to provide more small classes. The data suggest that teachers could not control and monitor all students in a lecture with a large class. In a small class, however, it is much easier for the teacher to build a close relationship with students and between students and generate a more pleasant atmosphere, and it is accordingly much easier for students to approach their teacher and ask questions, and to interact with other classmates. In addition to facilitating small classes, the data also suggest that students are more willing to participate in class when their teacher demonstrates interest in each student without preferential treatment for any specific individuals. Therefore, teachers should bear in mind that teaching involves not only delivering knowledge but also supporting students in their learning process in a variety of ways.

7.3.5. The extent to which students of Korean take responsibility for learning Korean

The fifth question of the individual interviews with students aimed to determine to what extent students of Korean think they are responsible for their learning. Overall, a majority of the participants seem to be willing to accept responsibility for learning the language. The students highly value reviewing what they have learned in class and preparing for what they will learn in the next class. More students in Stages I and II than those in Stage III consider that revision is necessary for learning effectiveness, while

Stage III students believe more strongly than their Stage I and II counterparts that it is useful to preview lesson content. This implies that the students with a higher level more actively take the initiative in learning Korean. This is probably because the experienced language learners are more confident in taking control of their learning, as revealed in Rivers (2001). Furthermore, the findings support the questionnaire-based study that the students with a lower level of language proficiency revealed a stronger belief about their teacher's roles in class than their counterparts with higher levels of proficiency. They therefore regarded it as fundamental to attend each class, to pay attention to the teacher, and to actively take part in activities given to them in the classroom.

It is also worth noting that some participants did not or could not actively play their roles as learners because they had other demands on their time and needed to prioritize other subjects over Korean (cf. Richards & Gravatt, 1998), and they felt overwhelmed by numerous learning aspects and became lazy. More importantly, three students indicated that they could not initiate their study due to uncertainty about what they were expected to do for learning Korean. They usually did assignments or homework when they were instructed to do so. These students' approaches to learning Korean, demonstrating dependence on their teachers, suggest that they were not ready to be autonomous learners (Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1995). If the teacher provides all the aspects the students need, however, the students would become incapable of doing anything without their teachers' supervision (Sheerin, 1997, p. 63). Horwitz (1987) noted that "how students control this learning is crucial to their success as language learners" (p. 120). Similarly, Carter (2006) and Richards and Rodgers (2001, 2014) have stressed students' own contribution to the language learning process for successful outcomes. In order to help them assume more responsibility for their language learning, the teacher should find ways to develop their capacity for autonomy. In other words, "teachers will need to guide and facilitate autonomy by providing students with metacognitive support" in the long run, rather than directly controlling their learning (Carter, 2006, p. 147).

In addition, with regard to the finding that the majority of learners of Korean were responsible for their learning, one point requires consideration here. As indicated above, the comments the participants gave regarding their roles was subjective and based on how the participants believed they did or did not perform. Nevertheless, previous

studies (e.g., Cotterall, 1995; Cotterall, 1999; Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Victori & Lockhart, 1995) have revealed that learners' beliefs affect their approaches and attitudes toward language learning to a great extent. It can therefore be said that this investigation provided useful information to better understand the extent to which students of Korean play their roles in learning the language.

7.3.6. Factors that affect students' decisions to continue or discontinue learning Korean

The final question of the individual interviews with students aimed to elucidate the factors that have an important influence on students' decisions to continue or discontinue their study. First, this research supports the finding of the questionnaire-based study that the learners who major in Korean and who have a desire to improve their language competency further decide to continue their study. This finding is not surprising because the students are learning the language “for its own sake, in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 121). For example, P6 commented that “for me, I'm so obsessed with the Korean language. I don't really mind if class is boring. I'm just interested in it.” Those who are intrinsically motivated to learn seemed not to be much affected during their language learning process by extrinsic factors such as teaching styles, learning environment, social dynamics in the classroom, and student-teacher relationship (cf. Ushioda, 2008).

In contrast, the learners who are required to “take beginners level courses in one or more languages as part of their degrees in other subjects” tend to discontinue their study in the language (Richards & Gravatt, 1998, p. 3). This finding is also consistent with the results from the questionnaire-based study that these students predetermined not to take another Korean language course when they selected the course. No matter how strongly they express their interests in Korean culture and the language, they are unlikely to continue study. It can therefore be said that it is difficult to stimulate their continuation.

More importantly, the interview data indicated that there were demotivating factors which subsequently decreased the motivation which students previously had and led to discontinuation of their study (Dörnyei, 2001). One Stage I participant (P8) clearly indicated that he lost his motivation to study Korean during the learning process.

Negative aspects in class had generated his negative feelings about the Korean course during the first four weeks, and he had increasingly blamed himself, started putting off study, and eventually gave up continuation (cf. Gan, 2009). This finding confirmed the comments some Stage I students made in the open-ended section of the questionnaire that they were demotivated while taking the course. In other words, they had desired to continue before the course commenced, but decided not to study further due to their dissatisfaction with the course while learning the language. Falout et al. (2009) noted that the students who have less L2 learning experience or those with a lower language proficiency are particularly susceptible to becoming demotivated “when faced with disagreeable teacher personalities or pedagogies, or inappropriate level of courses or materials,” because they have less capacity for self-regulation to overcome demotivation (p. 411).

It should be noted that many of the demotivating factors highlighted in this study related to teachers: teachers’ poor presentational skills, lack of learning support, and their inappropriate behaviours (cf. Hu, 2011). This finding is in accord with Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2011) assertion that “everything teachers say or do and how they communicate and behave in the classroom may potentially influence student motivation in different ways” (pp. 28–29). One point that needs to be stressed here is that the student who was demotivated during the course (P8) clearly remarked that he was not expecting the teacher to motivate him to learn Korean, because he had already been self-motivated when selecting the course. Instead, he wanted the teachers to get rid of “not enjoyable” aspects in class. In other words, he would have continued his study if there had been no serious demotivating factors in the course. This finding supports the views of Falout et al. (2009) that “[t]eachers can promote motivation in their learners *now* simply by avoiding practices that demotivate them” (p. 412, emphasis in original).

In order to prevent or minimize potential dropouts from courses, it is advisable to consider carefully the negative factors that would cause students to discontinue their studies. The first demotivating factor relates to the teacher’s ambiguous presentation of teaching points. According to one interview, when P8 found that he could not understand the materials and explanations given in class, he came to place less value on the class and increasingly relied on his Korean friend outside. Similarly, Schulz (2001) and Banno (2003) indicate that L2 learners regard clear explanation in class as one of

the effective L2 teacher's qualities. Secondly, the data suggest that unsatisfactory test results as a consequence of lack of learning support may negatively affect students' motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009). This is similar to the claim by H. D. Brown (2007) that clearer formats and preparative practice for each assessment can help students to better understand what they are expected to study. Finally, teachers' inappropriate behaviour and attitude can demotivate students, leading to their decision to discontinue their study (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The findings indicated that an inexperienced teacher wasted a part of class time when checking homework in tutorials. The data also suggest that the teacher criticized or embarrassed students in public when they did not bring their homework to the class. This finding suggests a need of proper training for inexperienced teachers.

7.4. Conclusion

Through conducting interviews with students, many aspects which were unclear in the previous questionnaire-based study became clearer and more understandable. First, the findings reveal that students of Korean highly value teachers' explicit explanation of grammar before activities (FonFS), because they want to prevent potential confusion and better use the rules during the activity times. They may, however, consider learning grammar as boring and difficult due to teaching methods. When giving CF, teachers should avoid unnecessary public embarrassment. In this light, the findings suggest that it is beneficial to consider students' feelings and personalities, and their learning environment, and to provide small classes which can help teachers generate a pleasant atmosphere. Furthermore, the interview responses confirm that the current teaching focuses on structure-based instruction (i.e., a FonFS approach), and for this reason many students express a strong desire to have more communicative approaches. In order to stimulate students' interest in learning Korean, it seems to be effective to integrate communicative interaction and cultural aspects into class. In addition, according to this research, Korean learners perceive that their learning roles are crucial for successful outcomes, but some of them need teachers' metacognitive guidance and support to become more autonomous. Finally, the most important factors influencing students' decisions to discontinue study relate to teachers' presentation skills, their behaviour and attitude toward the course and students, and the learning environment they facilitate.

Chapter 7 – Study 3: Interviews with students

The following chapter discusses teachers' perceptions about effective language learning and teaching.

Chapter 8. Study 4: Interviews with teachers

8.1. Introduction

The three preceding chapters have examined students' learning needs and their perspectives on effective language acquisition and instruction. The research methods consisted of qualitative and quantitative analyses employing (1) focus group interviews; (2) a survey; and (3) in-depth interviews. The findings from the studies revealed that although students of Korean valued learning grammar, because of the current emphasis on a grammar-focused teaching approach, the majority of students desired more communicative activities in class. This finding was supported by their expectations that in learning the language they would be able to communicate in Korean. It was also clear that the teacher was a major factor in motivating or demotivating learning and many students seemed to be willing to assume their responsibility for successful outcomes. Finally, the findings suggest that in order to promote students' interest in learning Korean, it is important to foster a pleasant learning environment with a small class and integrate cultural aspects into the courses.

This chapter examines, through analysis of the interviews that took place with three teachers, what perspectives teachers of Korean have on effective learning and teaching. In Chapter 4, details of the method used to carry out interviews with teachers were described. The analysis addresses the following questions in the individual interviews with teachers:

1. What do teachers think is the most important aspect in teaching Korean? Why? – RQ 2a
 - a. What activities do they often provide in their course? Why?
 - b. What activities would they like to integrate more frequently into their course? Why?
 - c. Do they think grammar should be taught in the classroom? If so, how?
 - d. Do they think errors should be corrected in the classroom? If so, how?
2. What do teachers think their most important roles are when teaching Korean effectively? – RQ 2b

3. How could teachers help students become more interested in learning Korean? – RQ 2b
4. What do teachers expect students to do in order to learn Korean effectively? – RQ 2c
5. How could teachers help students assume their own personal responsibility for learning Korean effectively? – RQ 2d
6. Are there any aspects teachers consider in particular when preparing and teaching Korean in the New Zealand educational context? – RQ 2e

The teacher interview responses gave valuable insight into teachers' beliefs about effective Korean language instruction, including the theoretical perspectives that they perceived underpinned their teaching practices. Furthermore, they revealed teachers' perspectives on which approaches are most suitable for students of Korean in the New Zealand educational context as well as detail on teaching styles. Finally, the data revealed the teachers' opinions on their roles in achieving successful outcomes and the roles that they expect students to play in learning the language effectively. Although these findings cannot be directly compared with those from the studies with the students, they provide background information on teaching and suggestions from the teachers' point of view. As previously, findings are discussed with reference to previous studies.

8.3. Findings

8.3.1. How to teach Korean

8.3.1.1. Beliefs about effective teaching approaches and teaching practice

Important aspects in teaching Korean

The first question addressed in the individual interviews with teachers sought to identify teachers' beliefs about effective practices in teaching the Korean language. There was evidence from the teachers to suggest that they believed it was important to integrate many communicative activities into classes, from their indication that interaction could help make teaching more interesting and effective. It was apparent that although both grammar teaching and interactive work were important, grammar was not considered as the most important aspect in learning a language. It was noted, for example, that “as

language is about communication, when you get used to using something verbally, grammar will follow.” A belief was further expressed that students were taking a Korean language course to communicate in the language, and they should be assisted in developing their communicative language skills with confidence, rather than being focused on learning grammar. An observation was also made that “it’s easy for people to get bored while learning a language due to lack of intellectual stimulation.” Therefore, opinion was expressed that grammar should be taught in a way that teachers could get students interested in learning the language and continue to stimulate their interest as much as possible, although it was not made clear how this could be done. It was also evident that grammar was explained in the textbook and the teachers were of the opinion that students could read through this in advance. There was a further remark that “the length of the class is only fifty minutes, and I don’t think they come to class for grammar instruction, and as you know, they have few opportunities to use and hear Korean except in this class time.”

On the other hand, the question about which aspects needed special consideration in order to teach Korean effectively was not directly answered. Teaching Korean was instead defined as follows: “Teaching Korean is first understanding the characteristics of the Korean language and teaching them, and having students understand the similarities and differences between the Korean language and other languages and then teaching the details.” The teachers were asked an additional question about which ought to be emphasised more (i.e., teaching grammar or doing activities) when teaching the language. One opinion that was expressed was that teaching grammar could not be considered separately from having students do activities in class. In other words, there was no clear answer to the question of which aspect the teachers considered more important. Instead, typical responses were: “Pair work or group work is a way of teaching grammar,” and “in order to help students remember and use structures, the teacher decides which one to use: for example, it is good to use group work for this structure, while it is good to use pair work for that structure.”

Activities that are usually offered in the classroom

As revealed in the beliefs about effective teaching of Korean, the teacher perspectives reported that various activities were provided in order to make students learn more actively. One comment was: “I do a lot of things and ask students lots of questions.”

The corresponding explanation provided was that “I work with the students and also get them to do activities among themselves. Anyway, I try to reduce the amount of time when students are just sitting doing nothing in class.” This attitude appeared to be due to a belief that language could not be instilled in students’ minds without practice, as well as the teacher’s own desire to have the students learn more actively. Another response revealed that pair work and group work were the main activities that were provided in class:

I normally do pair work and group work together. Yet, the syllabus is based on the textbooks, so if group work is more effective for a sentence pattern, I use it, but if not, I use pair work. I choose an activity according to the situation if I can.

It also became apparent that limited experience of teaching Korean could lead to the whole class time being devoted to explaining grammar points from the textbook and leaving insufficient time for the students to carry out activities together. Gaining experience over a number of weeks and considering an experienced teacher’s advice, however, led to an attempt to “explain the grammar and do exercises for the first fifteen minutes and provide mainly activities for the remaining time” in order to have the students use the language as much as possible. Many examples concerning the grammar were given and then pair work provided. During the activity, the students’ conversation was listened to and mistakes were corrected whenever they were made. An observed outcome was that “the students began to use more Korean,” leading to an opinion that “I think it’s more important to do activities that way when teaching Korean.” These comments suggest that it is possible for a novice teacher to learn through his/her experience and a colleague’s suggestion that providing activities is more effective than teaching grammar in order for students to learn the language.

Activities that should be increased in the course

The teachers were in agreement that they would like to have more interactive activities and they perceived that they needed more contact hours to make this possible. For example, although many speaking activities were always prepared in advance for class, in reality only some of them were actually used. Speaking activities were focused on in class because “time is limited, so I cannot ask them to do writing or reading in class. ... Because speaking is not usually included in the final exams, I use group activities particularly for speaking.” Furthermore, despite a wish to “try everything, pair work, conversation, and so on,” the number of contact hours each week was not adequate for a

variety of activities, and the length of the semester in New Zealand was much shorter compared with universities in other countries. Lack of contact time was thus raised as an issue that affected teaching design. It was expressed that more frequent use should be made of role-plays if possible.

Key findings with regard to beliefs about effective teaching

The findings suggest that the teachers believed that the students took a Korean course to improve their communication skills in the language, and integrating interactive activities could make the Korean language class more interesting and help students learn the language more effectively. They also indicated that, based on their own beliefs, teachers provided a variety of activities in their classes so that the students could interact with their classmates as much as possible. In this regard, all of the interviewees felt that they lacked sufficient time to do activities, and they wished they could provide more communicative activities such as role-plays.

8.3.1.2. Grammar teaching

Beliefs about teaching grammar

There was general agreement that grammar was important for learning a language. This belief was justified, for instance, “because grammar is the basis of what you write and speak, if you don’t learn it, everything gets messed up. It’s definitely essential in learning a language. It should be taught.” Nevertheless, it was noted that if teachers taught language predominantly focusing on grammar, as is typical of the traditional Korean teaching style, they could not help students improve their language skills, especially pronunciation. Experience of learning English as a second language in Korea supported the traditional Korean teaching style – “the teachers were Korean and the class consisted of sixty to seventy students,” and they taught English based on grammar, mainly focusing on reading comprehension. Another response revealed that although grammar was not as important as role-plays, it should be taught in class because it was found that students still made many mistakes when using basic grammar. It was also noted, however, that “if you teach Korean focusing on grammar too much, it isn’t beneficial for the students,” and that activities should be utilised more during class. It was also stressed that “students should understand and use sentence patterns well, so it is one of the most important things in language teaching. This is because they definitely

need to know sentence patterns in order to learn the Korean language.” An additional comment was that “in order to teach them effectively, I use group work and pair work.”

Although the teachers all agreed that grammar was indispensable in learning a language and should be taught in class, their feelings about teaching grammar were slightly different. It was evident that, among the teachers, there were negative attitudes toward teaching grammar. One of the reasons given, for instance, was that “grammar is somewhat boring from my point of view. While I’m explaining grammar, I also feel a little bored. So, I guess the students must be bored too.” An additional remark was that “I’m not an experienced teacher, so when I teach grammar, I sometimes get confused myself. I’ve been thinking about how to teach grammar in a more interesting way. This is what I have to figure out from now on.”

On the other hand, the data also revealed a different perspective on teaching grammar as follows, which does not clearly indicate the teacher’s feeling or attitude toward teaching grammar and assigning group/pair activities in class:

Teaching grammar... Well, I like teaching Korean. Although the students need to know sentence patterns first in order to use the language, they can study this at home, so I don’t explain them in detail. I just draw their attention to the points that they should know and then go on to group work. I spend a lot of time on group work including pair work.

Methods of teaching grammar

The interviews revealed that the textbooks were the main teaching materials used when the teachers taught grammar, and they asked students to read through the grammar thoroughly in advance. One reason for not teaching grammar items one by one was that there was no time to repeat the grammar that students had already learned on their own. If there were any questions, however, they were answered. After that, the exercises or activities in the textbook were used to help students practise the grammar points so that they could reinforce what they had read. Likewise, another interview response indicated that “because explanations of the sentence patterns are in the textbook, I teach them on the assumption that the students know and understand them all,” and “I pick out the most important points.” It seemed to be felt that students should take responsibility for learning grammar thoroughly beforehand. One comment was: “I think if students don’t study, there’s no way to solve the problem. There is nothing else I can do about it, but I teach how to apply the grammar if necessary.” There was a similar argument that

“students should play a leading role in their study from the very beginning. Particularly when learning a language, students should invest time in their study.”

In contrast, the interview data revealed an inconsistent response that although students were asked to prepare grammar points for class, because there were students who did not study, the grammar still had to be explained. Therefore, grammar points were explained with relevant examples. For instance, one explanation provided was that “I use many examples. On top of the examples in the textbook, I tell students other examples that I have prepared beforehand.” There was a further belief that it would be better to teach grammar before activities because if the students did not know what to say in a situation, they could not form a sentence using the grammar. This belief was supported by the following experience that “when I started with conversations and explained the grammar later, the students didn’t seem to understand what I was talking about, so I changed the teaching order. I explained the grammar first and then did conversations.” The method for conducting activities was also discussed:

When I just asked the students to speak to each other about something, I felt that what they could say was limited. They spoke using the little that they knew and couldn’t continue the conversation. So I think it’s good to use the workbook because it ties in with each grammar point in the textbook. After teaching a grammar point, I ask them to use the grammar, saying “Please use this expression.” Then they carry on their conversations, focusing better on the grammar.

The comments indicated that tasks were given with appropriate instructions for students to follow to make the activities effective.

Key findings about grammar teaching

According to the interview responses, the teachers believed that teaching grammar was important for students to be able to write and speak the Korean language in a competent manner. The textbooks were usually used in teaching grammar and students were expected to study grammar points in advance. The findings indicated that there were two contradicting beliefs about how to teach grammar: one was selecting only key points or answering the students’ questions, while the other was teaching grammar explicitly for the benefit of those students who had not studied it by themselves at home. As for how teachers felt about teaching grammar, the interview responses revealed that some teachers had unfavourable attitudes toward teaching grammar. Their

reasons suggest that teachers may regard teaching grammar as boring. They may sometimes get confused themselves when teaching it due to lack of teaching experience. There was also an indication that teaching Korean may be difficult for a teacher who has no expertise in language teaching and who has not been trained to teach the language.

8.3.1.3. Corrective feedback

There was evidence from the teachers to suggest that they believed that it was important to give CF when students misused grammar or mispronounced Korean words because if the errors were not corrected, the students might continue to make the same mistakes. The interview data also revealed a different viewpoint that when correcting errors, “it depends on the situation. Generally speaking, I think it’s important to correct them when the students are paying attention to the lesson in a small class.”

Furthermore, it was apparent that the teachers of Korean had differing attitudes as to how and when to correct the errors students made. One response suggested that “if you don’t have time, you can just move on, but if time allows and you think other students may have the same problem, you can explain their mistakes in more detail.” This was the case when teaching the whole class. When students were engaged in an activity, however, it was stressed that “I don’t think we should bother them. I tell them after the activity. I don’t have time to give feedback to each student. It’s not a one-hour class. It’s only forty-five to fifty minutes.” It was also noted that “in many cases, students correct each other’s mistakes.”

Another response revealed that when students make an error in front of the entire class, it should be corrected in an indirect way. The reason for this was explained as follows:

I think that there are students who are annoyed and embarrassed when they’re directly corrected on the spot. As I’ve also had such experiences myself in front of the whole class, I only draw their attention to their error so that they can correct it themselves.

According to this view, however, when students carried out activities in small groups, their errors ought to be directly corrected immediately after they had been made because correcting the errors indirectly would take more time and the teacher would not be able to monitor all the groups.

Finally, there was a suggestion that when teachers were better aware of individual students' personalities, their methods of correcting errors were adjusted accordingly. It was stated that "if the student is pleased to get CF without restraint, it's good to correct errors immediately... Well, but everyone wants to be corrected immediately, not later." Another situation to be considered was that "in presentation, the teacher cannot correct mistakes as soon as they are made because it could distract from the student's speech." In the case of students whose preferences had not yet been recognised, however, such as in the first semester of Stage I, errors were directly corrected because their personalities had not yet been identified and it saved time, whereas errors were indirectly corrected when the students were working in small groups, when the class was small, and when time allowed.

Key findings about corrective feedback

The findings revealed that the teachers believed it was crucial for errors to be corrected in order to prevent students from making the same mistakes again. However, the teachers varied in their opinions about when and how to give CF. The amount of available teaching time seemed to be the biggest factor in decisions about the kinds of CF to provide as well as whether to correct errors or not. The teachers were, for instance, selective in providing direct CF, and even ignored minor errors, when they did not have time in class. Furthermore, the interview responses indicated that, to minimise negative feelings such as embarrassment, the teachers considered the situation at hand as well as students' personalities and preferences.

8.3.2. Roles of teachers and students

8.3.2.1. Teachers' roles

Teachers' roles in the classroom

The findings revealed that among the three teachers there were different beliefs about the roles of the teacher in the classroom. One response indicated that it was important for teachers to convey material such as grammar points, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and so on effectively. Furthermore, "Teachers should encourage students to take part in class activities and have them practise Korean a lot – in other words, to create a learning environment. Otherwise, some students are too shy to speak in Korean." There was a further comment that "teachers should be a bit like a 'monkey'

or something like that in front of the students.” In order to encourage students to speak Korean, it was felt that the teachers should try to transform a serious or uncomfortable atmosphere into a pleasant learning environment and tell students what they should do in each activity clearly. Finally, it was suggested that teachers have a responsibility to carefully consider the processes involved in student learning:

It is important to check whether the students are ready to learn before the teacher starts the class because I don't think only class time is for learning. Also, it is important to understand how much they can achieve during the class and whether they can continue to study outside the classroom.

It was also indicated that the classes started with asking students questions to find out what they did not know and what needed further explanation. An additional comment was: “Teachers should make sure that the students take part in activities during class and make them aware that they should be prepared to study outside of the classroom.”

How to stimulate students' interest in learning Korean

With regard to the ways of stimulating students' interest in learning the Korean language, it was first of all noted that if Korea played an important economic or cultural role in the world, in the way that countries such as the US, China, and Japan do, “everyone would want to learn the language even if it was uninteresting or difficult.” With the current situation, however, it was difficult to make students feel it was necessary to learn Korean. Therefore, the teacher's role was highly important and it was necessary to have teachers who could teach Korean well and in an interesting manner. One example was given of the need for an engaging teacher: “In Stage I, students attend classes and they just sit there and doze off. They don't continue their study at the next level. They don't want to take another course.”

Another motivating factor related to the students' interest in modern Korean culture, such as dramas and movies. In particular, the need to integrate cultural aspects into the course was highlighted as follows:

A survey I conducted in 2005 showed that non-New Zealand students, particularly Chinese students, predominantly wanted to learn Korean because of Korean culture. It was not related to their careers. In contrast, New Zealand students, that is non-Asian students, wanted to learn it for career-related reasons. Of course, as the majority of the students in the Korean course are Asian, it's good to show video clips for a few minutes, which I have done so far.

Furthermore, greater advantage could be taken of the students' interest in Korean movies and dramas by holding a film festival, as the Japanese department's programme does, and a special movie night to show a Korean movie. It was also felt that it would be beneficial to use audio-visual materials, such as DVDs, in class. One such video was shown in class: "When I asked the students what Korean people do for entertainment or as their hobby, their first response was *noraebang* so I searched You Tube and found a video clip which showed a New Zealander singing a Korean song." They watched it together in class, which stimulated the students' interest.

Key findings for teachers' roles

The teachers seemed to believe that they played important roles in conveying new material and information properly, fostering a positive learning environment, encouraging students to participate in class activities, checking whether students were playing their own part in learning inside and outside the classroom. It was also evident that teachers could motivate students to become more interested in learning the language. Furthermore, the teachers expressed a strong belief that an interest in Korean culture was the primary motivation for learning the language. It could therefore be useful to integrate Korean cultural aspects into classes with audio-visual materials, and to offer a film festival and a special movie night to show a Korean movie outside the classroom.

8.3.2.2. Students' roles

Teachers' beliefs about students' roles for effective learning

The teacher participants all agreed with the assertion that preparation for class was one of the most important roles of students, and this attitude came from having students with different language proficiency levels in one class. It was noted, for example, that "some are really good at the language, whereas others are really bad. I think if they studied before class, this gap would be reduced." Based on personal experience of learning a second language, the advantage of preparation was explained as follows: "When I had learned on my own in advance and listened to the teacher's explanation in class again, I remembered it for a long time. Class is more interesting if we prepare for it."

In addition to preparing for class, it was also expected that the students should "take part in class actively and practise as much as possible, and after class, as the students in

the US do, practise what they have learned in class at the audio-visual library for about an hour.” It was stressed that if they took such active roles, then they would find “they have learned a tremendous amount of Korean during the course of one semester.” Furthermore, a comment emphasised the roles of students outside of class time, indicating the lack of autonomous learning. It was noted, for instance, that “these days, students have so many materials, and I think they seem to want the teachers to do everything for them in many cases.” It was felt, however, that students should assume personal responsibility for their own learning; for example, “Students should read all the contents of the course outline, do the homework, and do the [web-based course and learning management system] exercises the university provides online.” It was also remarked that “in order to make them ready for class and to get them doing a lot of homework,” a plan had been proposed to make it compulsory for students in Stage I to buy the workbook.

How to encourage students to take greater personal responsibility for learning Korean

The teacher participants revealed that it was difficult to help students who were not motivated to study as much as they should. There was evidence from the teachers to suggest that it was important for students to take personal responsibility for studying on their own initiative, and it was difficult for teachers to motivate them. It was noted, for example, that “no matter how good the materials they are given are, the students cannot learn anything unless they study it by themselves.” It was similarly observed that “presumably, the only thing that we can do is to praise and encourage them when they do their best and get a good result.” Furthermore, there was an indication among the teachers that they may use assessment in order to make students assume greater responsibility for their own learning. In other words, they should give students an incentive, by awarding them marks according to their performance in tests. The suggestion was considered justified as many students do not study independently even when the teacher requests it in class, but study when they have to for upcoming assessments.

Key findings about students’ roles

According to the findings, preparation for class was the most important role that the teachers believed students ought to fulfil. The teachers believed that students should

play a leading role in learning the Korean language both inside and outside the classroom: that is, reading through grammar points before class, actively participating in class, and practising what they have learned and self-studying after class. They asserted that it was difficult for them to encourage students who were not motivated to study. Furthermore, the findings revealed that some teachers were aware that they could use assessment tasks to influence students' study behaviour.

8.3.3. Special characteristics that should be considered in teaching Korean in the New Zealand educational context

Certain special characteristics should be considered when designing courses and teaching Korean in the New Zealand context, and as noted earlier, the allocated class time is significantly shorter compared with universities in other countries, particularly the US. The university in New Zealand offers four contact hours per week until Stage II and three hours in Stage III, while their counterparts in the US generally offer five contact hours a week. In addition to class time, students in the US have to listen to assigned work for one hour per day in the audio-visual library after class and their attendance is recorded. At sixteen weeks their semester is also longer. In Korea, it is fourteen to fifteen weeks, while it is only twelve weeks in New Zealand. As the length of the semester here is considerably shorter, the amount of classroom learning done in New Zealand during the course of one semester is significantly less than in other countries. Furthermore, there is a need to develop audio-visual materials for the language lab, which should relate directly to recent lesson content:

Students can improve their language skills very quickly if they learn something in class and then follow it up by practising in the lab, and the next day learn new things in class and then practise them in the lab again and so on. Language experts usually make those materials, but we don't have them in the Korean department.

It was also noted that the Korean department lacked adequate numbers of teaching staff. There was a desire to create a CD for the students and while there have been several attempts at creating one, it required too much time and was deemed too difficult for one teacher to complete. There is, therefore, a need for more teachers.

Another notable characteristic difference was that there were both Korean heritage students and non-Korean heritage students in the same class. Since the Korean heritage

students tended not to study, it was felt that they were rather behind the others in class, but they achieved good marks in listening and speaking tests. It was, consequently, a concern to the teachers that non-Korean heritage students might be discouraged by the Korean heritage students.

Furthermore, the findings drew attention to the fact that “students frequently raise their hands and ask questions in the middle of class. Korean heritage students do that, but non-Korean heritage students ask more questions.” It was noted that:

When students asked a question, if the question is something that every student should know, I should answer the question even if it’s in the middle of teaching, but if it is only a problem for that student, I should answer it later, after class.

At the same time, the data revealed that “New Zealand students are pretty quiet.” This, however, was not because many of those who learned Korean were Asian. It was noted that “lecturers say that New Zealand students are generally quieter than their US counterparts. You can see such a tendency in the Korean department too,” and this was why it was considered important to give students an opportunity to speak because learning a language requires spoken communication. Despite such different impressions of New Zealand students between the two teachers, there was no opportunity to clarify the reasons for these during the interviews.

Key findings about special characteristics that should be considered when teaching Korean in the New Zealand educational context

The findings revealed that the Korean courses in the New Zealand educational context had several special characteristics. According to the data, the Korean courses in New Zealand seemed to have significantly shorter allocated class time compared with their equivalents in the US and Korea. Furthermore, there were few audio-visual materials relating to lesson content in the language lab, and there were practical difficulties with creating extra teaching materials because the Korean department lacked adequate numbers of teaching staff. Moreover, as Korean heritage students and non-Korean heritage students study in the same class, non-Korean heritage students might be discouraged by the Korean heritage students who tend not to study but still gain good marks in listening and speaking tests. There were also conflicting views on students in New Zealand: one response indicated that students frequently asked questions in the middle of class, while the other noted that they were generally silent in class.

8.3.4. Suggestions to make the Korean course more effective

The final question of the individual interviews with teachers asked what the teachers would like to change or do in order to teach Korean more effectively, while taking practical consideration of the specific circumstances of teaching Korean in New Zealand. First, there was a desire to change the teaching personnel, indicating a need for language specialists. One comment suggested that in order to develop the Korean department faster, they need more teachers who are trained as language teachers and are interested in developing teaching methods, noting that “because some teachers at our university, including me, are not trained in how to teach a language, there are some issues such as the teaching methods that aren’t good and students say that it isn’t interesting to learn Korean.” It was similarly claimed that language specialists should teach every language course and educate the other teachers because “the experts know when to teach grammar and how to teach it effectively.”

Another suggestion related to the core teaching materials. It was stated that “the new words in the textbook are not updated, and some of them are not used any longer. Also, the textbook itself is uninteresting. It provides lots of grammatical explanations but lacks exercises and the supplementary examples are old.” The findings also revealed that, as there was an insufficient number of exercises in the textbook for practice, other exercises from the workbook were photocopied and given as homework. For example, “I ask them to do the homework by the next day and I show the answers on the OHP or PowerPoint in the next class.” It was also noted that three or four classes per week were inadequate for a language course so it would be better to have more class hours if possible.

The findings also revealed that it was important to teach small-sized classes from the first semester of Stage I, referring to the difficulty of improving the student retention rate. An effort was made to assign twenty-five students to each stream for the first semester of Stage I, and two hours for lectures and two hours for tutorials were to be offered from 2011. It was also noted that there was a practical difficulty in providing more than two hours per week for tutorials. Although one hour for lectures and four hours for tutorials was proposed, in line with what the other language departments provided, the university stated that as the Korean department did not have a sufficient

number of students in proportion to the number of teachers required, the Korean language course could not offer a similar number of tutorials.

Key findings about suggestions to make the Korean course more effective

According to the findings, there are some important points that should be considered to make the Korean course more effective for students to learn the language successfully. First, there seemed to be a need to improve teaching methods. It was therefore asserted that there was a need for more language specialists who could teach the Korean language in an interesting and effective manner in order to facilitate the development of the Korean course. Furthermore, it was maintained that the textbooks should be updated, and more class time was required for the course. Finally, it was suggested that in order to improve the student retention rate, it was important to provide small classes from the first semester of Stage I, but this was difficult to do given the current departmental situation.

8.3.5. Summary

The interviews with the three teachers of Korean enabled insight into the teachers' beliefs and opinions on effective teaching of the Korean language. Firstly, the teachers seemed to believe that communication was the most important aspect in teaching Korean and it was vital to provide various interactive activities with the aim of having more time for communication. Although they agreed that grammar should be taught in class, some negative attitudes toward teaching grammar were expressed. The textbook was the main material for teaching grammar, but grammar seemed to be taught in different ways: in one response, each grammar point was fully covered; while in another, only key points were selected or questions were answered when students asked. In providing CF, the teachers remarked that they considered the situation, the amount of teaching time available, ways to avoid potential embarrassment, and, if possible, the students' personalities. Furthermore, the findings suggest that the important roles of the teacher are conveying information and material, fostering a positive learning environment, and monitoring the processes involved in student learning. In order to stimulate students' interest in learning Korean, it was suggested that teachers incorporate cultural aspects that reflect students' interests into the class. With regard to the teachers' beliefs about the students' own roles, the teachers expected students to play a leading role in learning the language, particularly in preparation for class. They

expressed a belief that it was difficult to encourage those students who were not motivated to assume personal responsibility for their study. In addition, the findings revealed that there were some difficulties – such as the limited amount of class time available, and teaching students of different proficiency levels in the same class – when designing courses and teaching Korean in the New Zealand educational context. Finally, in order to develop the Korean course, the teachers asserted that they needed more language specialists, updated textbooks, more class hours, and smaller classes from the first semester of Stage I. (One point that should be noted here is that there was no observational evidence of teachers’ perspectives. This limitation will be discussed later.)

8.4. Discussion

The interviews with teachers aimed to establish teachers’ perspectives on teaching Korean effectively in the New Zealand educational context. The interview responses have revealed teachers’ preferences for teaching approaches, expectations of students, and their opinions on how teachers can help students assume the responsibility for their study. Furthermore, the findings suggest some special characteristics that teachers should take into account in designing and teaching Korean language courses in New Zealand. These findings are discussed in relation to the questions addressed in the individual interviews with teachers on pages 172 and 173.

8.4.1. Teachers’ preferences for teaching approaches and their reasons

The first question of the individual interviews with teachers related to what aspect teachers believe is most important when teaching Korean and their reasons for their expressed beliefs.

8.4.1.1. Communicative approaches

In common with the findings from A. Brown’s (2009) and Schulz’s (2001) research, this study revealed that the teachers appeared to highly value communication in learning the language and had a strong desire to integrate communicative activities into their courses as much as possible. Furthermore, according to their comments, the teachers seemed to provide interactive activities (i.e., pair/group work, role-plays) for students to communicate with their classmates and learn the language actively in the classroom. Despite their efforts at integrating interaction in class, however, the teachers still felt

that there was a need to provide more communicative activities. In order to make this possible, they asserted that they need more teaching contact hours per week. In addition, the interview data suggest that a novice teacher can develop teaching strategies in response to contextual realities, reflecting on experience and colleagues' suggestions over a period of time (cf. Watzke, 2007).

The findings may stem from teachers' own perspectives about effective language learning and teaching: that is, students take a Korean language acquisition course to communicate in Korean, they have few opportunities to hear and use Korean except in class time, language cannot be instilled in students' minds without practice, and interaction could help them learn the language in an interesting and effective way. These findings are supported by some researchers (e.g., Batstone, 2006; Carter, 2008; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Willing, 1989), who have noted that the teachers' intuitive beliefs and experiences of language learning and teaching often influence their teaching practices.

It should be noted, however, that these teachers' responses are incongruous with students' assertions in the previous focus group interviews, survey, and individual interviews that the main classroom activities in their Korean courses, particularly for Stage I course, focus on structure-based instruction, reading the textbook, and written exercises. This suggests that what is actually happening in class is not necessarily commensurate with stated beliefs, and supports the views of Borg (2006), Nunan (1988), and Phipps and Borg (2009) that teachers' stated beliefs do not always coincide with their practices in the classroom. It must therefore be acknowledged that a limitation of the present study is that no data were gathered to examine the relationship between teachers' beliefs and actual practices, making this an important aspect for future further exploration. (The similar and different perspectives on classroom activities between teachers and students will be discussed in the next chapter.)

8.4.1.2. Grammar instruction

With regard to teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar, the interview data revealed that the teachers regarded grammar as a fundamental aspect in order for students to communicate and write in a competent manner. This view is in accord with Bade's (2008) assertion that "knowledge of grammar is essential for clarity of communication

in both the written and the spoken form” (p. 182). The teachers of Korean, however, claimed at the same time that they should not devote much time to explaining grammar in class, but rather to providing interactive activities using grammar points. It was clear that textbooks were the main materials the teachers utilised when explaining grammar, and they expected students to read through grammar points thoroughly beforehand. With regard to mainly using textbooks in class, one concern that needs to be stressed is that, as Moore (2009) claimed, the “textbook teaching” could make the lectures “extremely boring, because the teacher usually is lecturing about the material students were assigned to read” (p. 146).

The methods of teaching grammar were different depending on the teachers. On the assumption that students read grammar points before class, two teachers seemed to cover only the main teaching points or answer questions when students asked. One of these teachers stated that “in order to teach them effectively, I use group work and pair work.” Given this teacher’s comment, it seems that the primary focus of the teacher’s lesson is on interaction rather than grammar instruction. In contrast, the third teacher indicated that each pertinent grammar point was taught before activities because the teacher felt that many students did not prepare for class in advance. This finding indicates that the teacher explicitly draws students’ attention to grammar points first, which supports the views of DeKeyser (1998), Lightbown (1998), and Lyster (1994) that it is necessary to incorporate explicit focus on form for certain learners. Furthermore, the interview responses suggest that teachers may view teaching grammar as being boring and confusing, and have a negative attitude toward it. These unpleasant feelings may relate to the main teaching materials (i.e., textbooks) they use to explain grammar. (In the next chapter, the teachers’ attitudes toward grammar instruction will be compared with the students’ attitudes toward learning grammar.)

8.4.1.3. Corrective feedback

In relation to teachers’ perceptions about giving CF, it appeared that the teachers of Korean generally viewed correcting errors as important to prevent students from making the same mistakes again. This view is in accord with Choe Yoon’s (2004) assertion that teachers should draw students’ explicit attention to their mistakes. Furthermore, the data revealed that the teachers of Korean considered the amount of available teaching time, situations such as the class size, and students’ personalities and preferences. This

finding reflects Mori's (2011) research, which also showed that the teachers took into account student personality, and the level of student communication ability as well as local contextual aspects such as learning and teaching situations.

At the same time, however, this investigation reveals that the teachers of Korean somewhat differed in their opinions on how and when they should correct errors. One teacher seemed to explicitly give CF during group work to save time, but implicitly in the whole class to minimise negative feelings such as embarrassment. Another teacher suggested that explicit correction is used in the whole class to save time, while implicit CF is utilised when time allows, or when students are working in a small group or in a small class. In particular, time constraints seem to be the most influential factor that affects when and how teachers correct errors. For instance, if teachers do not have time or want to save time in class, they correct errors in a direct way or even ignore them. Unfortunately, it was not possible to determine from the interview data why the teachers had different beliefs about the effectiveness of using explicit and implicit methods of error correction. One possible explanation may be, as Mori (2011) and Schulz (2001) have claimed, that teachers' previous learning and professional experiences could contribute to their different beliefs about effective CF.

8.4.2. Teachers' beliefs about their roles in teaching Korean effectively

The second and third questions of the individual interviews with teachers addressed what teachers of Korean believe about their roles in teaching Korean effectively. The teacher interview data indicate that one of the important roles the teachers believed they should play is to deliver knowledge and information (i.e., grammar points, vocabulary, reading comprehension, etc.) effectively. On top of that, the findings indicated that teachers should encourage students to actively play their learning roles inside and outside the classroom. In other words, in the classroom, teachers should stimulate students' active participation in classroom activities, and in order to do so, it is suggested that they clearly explain what each student is expected to do during an activity and check whether all students play their roles. Outside the classroom, it is noted that teachers should encourage students to prepare for class beforehand and make sure students are ready to learn in class. The interview data also suggest that it is important to facilitate a positive learning environment where students could easily take

part in activities. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom is a precondition to generating motivation.

Furthermore, the teachers of Korean seemed to believe that they play a crucial role in stimulating students' desire to learn Korean. In particular, given the fact that Korea does not play an important economic or cultural role in New Zealand as much as it does in the US, China, and Japan, the interview responses highlighted the importance of teachers' roles in motivating students. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) explained the motivational impact of teachers, stating that "everything teachers say or do and how they communicate and behave in the classroom may potentially influence student motivation in different ways" (pp. 28-29). The findings highlighted that, in order to stimulate students' desire to learn the language, teachers need to make the best use of students' interest in Korean movies and dramas. According to the interview responses, some teachers have integrated cultural aspects through audio-visual materials, such as video clips and DVDs, in class, and their students' responses have been very positive. In addition, it would be beneficial to provide out-of-class activities such as holding a film festival and a special movie night to show a Korean movie. Cheung (2001) claimed that popular culture can bring "relevance to students' lives" (p. 56) and motivate them to become more responsive and active in the learning process.

These findings suggest that the teachers believed that they play multiple roles in and out of class. These perspectives on teachers' roles are supported by previous researchers' assertions that teachers play multifaceted roles in the learning process as a reliable resource, supporter, motivator, and so forth (e.g., H. D. Brown, 2007; Carter, 2006; Wan et al., 2011). For instance, Wan et al.'s (2011) study indicated that the most important teachers' roles are as provider (i.e., conveying knowledge in various ways or assisting students to learn), nurturer (i.e., a facilitator of personal growth and development), and as interest arouser (i.e., entertainer and magnet attracting students' attention).

8.4.3. Teachers' beliefs about students' roles in learning Korean effectively

The fourth question of the individual interviews with teachers asked about what teachers expect students to do in order to learn Korean effectively. The findings suggest that it is important for students to prepare for class beforehand, which could help them

understand a teacher's explanation easily and enjoy the lesson more. Furthermore, the teachers revealed that preparation for class can help reduce the gaps in students' language proficiency levels. Other important roles the teachers expected students to play were taking part in classroom activities actively and practising what they had learned outside the classroom. It should be noted, however, that the teachers held a belief that many students of Korean did not study independently even when the teacher requested it and they seemed to rely on their teachers.

The fifth question of the individual interviews with teachers examined how teachers can encourage students to be more responsible for their learning. Unlike many previous studies (e.g., H. D. Brown, 2007; Carter, 2006; Cheung, 2001; Dörnyei, 1998, 2001), which have asserted that teachers can stimulate students' active roles for successful learning in many motivating manners, such as showing the teachers' own enthusiasm, using learner-centred instruction, and so on, the teachers in this investigation asserted that it is difficult to encourage the students who have already lost their motivation for learning Korean. They express a strong belief that although they can praise and encourage when students do their best and obtain a good test result, it is students who should take the initiative to assume personal responsibility for their own learning. For instance, one response indicated that "I think if students don't study, there's no way to solve the problem. There is nothing else I can do about it." This view is in accord with Nunan's (1995) assertion that "it is the learner who must remain at the centre of the process, for no matter how much energy and effort we expend, it is the learner who has to do the learning" (p. 155).

In addition, the findings suggest that teachers may use assessment in order to get students to be more responsible for the learning process: that is, give learners an incentive according to their performance in tests. Although, as one interview response noted, it may be true that students will study when they have the incentive of upcoming assessments, it is very doubtful whether it can lead learners to becoming more self-directed. In other words, they may not study when they are not given any incentives from tests. H. D. Brown (2007) stressed that "successful mastery of a foreign language will depend to a great extent on learners' autonomous ability both to take initiative in the classroom and to continue their journey to success beyond the classroom and the teacher" (p. 70). It can therefore be said that using assessment may be helpful to get

students to prepare for tests in the short run, but it may not have an ongoing impact on the students' ultimate success in their learning.

8.4.4. Special characteristics that should be considered in designing and teaching Korean in the New Zealand educational context

The sixth interview question explored the specific characteristics of the New Zealand student population that teachers should consider when designing and teaching Korean language acquisition courses. The teachers indicated that the allocated teaching contact hours were significantly shorter compared with universities in the US and Korea. They believed that more class time is required for the Korean courses. They also pointed out a need to develop, for use outside the classroom, supplementary audio-visual materials that should relate directly to recent lesson content. There are, however, practical difficulties for the existing teaching staff to make time for such teaching materials. Furthermore, the teachers found it difficult to handle both Korean heritage students and non-Korean heritage students in the same class because they reveal different language proficiency levels in terms of listening and speaking (cf. E. Kim, 2005). There was also an expressed concern that non-Korean heritage students may be discouraged by the Korean heritage students who tend to study less than their non-Korean heritage counterparts, but still gain a good mark. It may be problematic to teach both groups of students in the same class because heritage- and non-Korean heritage learners have different learning needs (S. Sohn, 1997).

8.5. Conclusion

The findings of the in-depth interviews with the Korean teachers provide an insight into how teachers view effective teaching of Korean in the New Zealand educational context, with their perspectives about teachers' and students' roles to achieve successful outcomes. According to the data, the teachers expressed a strong preference for communicative approaches based on their beliefs that students learn Korean because they want to communicate with Korean people and it is more beneficial to provide students opportunity for interaction as much as possible in limited contact teaching hours. Their practice, at least in terms of their articulation of it, seems to focus on communicative activities rather than teaching grammar points or structure-based teaching. Although the teachers valued the importance of grammar, they tended to

expect students to study it before class so that they could save class time for communicative activities. Furthermore, the findings revealed that the amount of available teaching time affected teachers' decisions about the kinds of CF to provide and whether to correct errors or not.

With regard to their roles in teaching effectively, the interview data indicated that teachers can promote students' interests in learning Korean, particularly by integrating cultural aspects in and out of class. The teachers argued, however, that it was difficult to motivate those who have already lost their interest in study, so students should initiate taking responsibility for their learning processes. Finally, the findings suggest that it would be beneficial to provide more class times and small classes from the first semester of Stage I in order to develop Korean courses, although there are practical difficulties with providing extra teaching hours and offering only small classes in the Korean department.

The next chapter brings the different aspects of this study together and discusses the differences between the teachers' and students' perspectives.

Chapter 9. General discussion

9.1. Introduction

The major purpose of this research project is to explore what students learning the Korean language perceive that they need, what they believe about the learning process and what teachers believe about effective teaching of Korean, in order to suggest ways to motivate students to learn the language successfully. Chapters five to seven examined students' learning needs and their beliefs about effective language acquisition. The research methods were both qualitative and quantitative, employing focus group interviews, a survey, and in-depth interviews. The findings from the studies revealed what students believed they needed in order to learn Korean successfully. Chapter eight explored teachers' perspectives on effective language acquisition and instruction through individual in-depth interviews. The findings from the interviews revealed what teachers of Korean believe about effective instruction and their teaching practices. The following main research questions were addressed:

1. What do students need in, and believe about, the learning of Korean?
 - a. How do students want to learn Korean?
 - b. What do students expect teachers to do in teaching Korean effectively?
 - c. What do students think they need to do in order to learn Korean effectively?
 - d. Why do students take a tertiary Korean language course in New Zealand?
 - e. What do students expect to be able to do as a consequence of taking Korean?
 - f. What makes students decide to continue or discontinue their Korean language course?
 - g. How are students' individual differences (cultural/educational backgrounds and language-proficiency levels) related to their perceived learning needs and beliefs?
2. What do teachers believe about the teaching of Korean?
 - a. How do teachers want to teach Korean?

- b. What do teachers think about their responsibilities for teaching Korean effectively and realistically?
- c. What do teachers expect students to do when learning Korean effectively?
- d. How should teachers help students take responsibility for learning Korean effectively?
- e. What specific characteristics of the New Zealand educational context do teachers consider as being important to take into account in designing and teaching the Korean language acquisition courses?

This chapter adds to the discussion sections that were part of chapters five to eight. It takes the discussion further by discussing the findings derived from the different aspects of the study and by comparing students' and teachers' points of view on effective learning and teaching of Korean. These findings are discussed in relation to previous studies relevant to each area. Implications for practice are taken into consideration in the concluding chapter.

9.2. Students' and teachers' perspectives on teaching approaches

Research questions 1a and 2a examined how students wish to learn Korean in terms of classroom activities and how teachers want to teach the language, and their respective reasons. Some differences of perspective between the students and teachers emerge, particularly with regard to how the teachers appear to perform in practice and what activities the students report that they undertake in their classrooms.

9.2.1. Grammar teaching

9.2.1.1. Beliefs about learning and teaching grammar

In common with the findings from previous studies (e.g., Bade, 2008; H. Kim, 2003; Schulz, 1996, 2001), this research reveals that the students and teachers of Korean highly value grammar in learning the language. From the analysis of the student interviews, it was clear that the participants believed that grammar instruction was one of the most important aspects of Korean language acquisition courses because it helped students to put words together in the correct order to form a structure or sentence. Furthermore, some student responses revealed that, because tests were mainly focused

on understanding grammar points, having grammar-focused instruction could lead to good marks in assessments. This finding suggests that the students' favourable opinions on grammar instruction may be affected both by "discrete-point testing methods" (Schulz, 1996, p. 348) and by washback, such that "if grades are based on grammatical accuracy, students quickly learn to spend their time studying grammar" (Horwitz, 2013, p. 217). Similar to the findings from the students' data, the teacher interview data revealed general agreement among the teachers that grammar was essential for students to be able to write and speak the Korean language in a proper way, so it should be taught in the classroom. This view is consistent with Bade's (2008) assertion that "knowledge of grammar is essential for clarity of communication in both the written and the spoken form" (p. 182).

Despite appreciating the importance of grammar teaching in the classroom, not all students and teachers of Korean had a positive attitude toward learning or teaching grammar. In interviews, many students responded that they did not like learning grammar, expressing negative feelings about grammar that mirrored those revealed in Loewen et al.'s (2009) study: "it's boring, tedious, monotonous, dry, difficult, confusing, and complicated" (pp. 99-100). Similarly, the teachers' interview responses revealed that some teachers considered teaching grammar as being tedious and confusing, and did not favour teaching it. According to the students' interview data, a possible negative factor that could make grammar instruction boring in class may relate to the way teachers teach grammar. The students in the interviews responded that they often did grammar exercises in the textbook during class, but they believed that learning grammar without context is likely to be tedious. Moore (2009) claimed that, in textbook teaching, students can be bored easily because they "tend to either read the text or listen to the lectures—seldom both" (p. 146). In other words, this finding suggests that the grammar teaching in the classroom seemed to place emphasis on knowledge of grammar points, and its practice and drills isolated from context, which implies a structure-based approach (a FonFS approach).

9.2.1.2. Students' preferences for grammar instruction and teachers' beliefs about effective methods of teaching grammar

The findings from this study demonstrated that there were contrasting views between the student and teacher groups on effective methods of grammar instruction. In order to

avoid potential confusion, a majority of the students seemed to have a strong preference for teachers' direct instruction of grammar (deductive instruction) over their own discovery of grammar rules before being formally taught them (inductive instruction) (cf. McKay, 1987). In particular, those with a lower level of language proficiency revealed that they greatly relied on their teacher's explanations because they were not confident in learning grammar on their own and believed that their teachers were the experts in Korean (cf. H. D. Brown, 2007; Schulz, 2001). A Stage I student, for instance, commented in the focus group interviews that "the teacher is very important at this stage because we don't know anything about Korean and it is the teacher that gives us direction." In this light, H. D. Brown (2007) claimed that for beginning learners, "a teacher-centred or teacher-fronted classroom is appropriate for *some* of your classroom time" (p. 113, my emphasis). A Stage II student also noted that the teacher's grammar teaching was more efficient than their own individual efforts to learn the rules because it saved time (cf. Ausubel, 1964).

Furthermore, the student data have shown that apparently the students want to learn grammar explicitly before moving on to activities that might practise the grammar (explicit instruction) (cf. Schulz, 1996, 2001). Through the interviews, the participants asserted that they wanted to learn grammar through the process of statement, explanation, example, and practice, which implies "the classic lesson structure of Presentation-Practice-Production, or 'PPP'" (Klapper, 2003, p. 34). This finding lends support to Ellis' (2001b, 2005) argument that FonFS which primarily involves teaching the pre-selected grammar rules followed by intensive practice can be beneficial to L2 acquisition. Alcon Soler (2005), DeKeyser (1998), Lightbown (1998), and Lyster (1994) have also argued that, for certain learners and certain learning contexts, it is necessary to incorporate explicit instruction and systematic practising of grammatical rules.

In addition, according to the students' opinions, it is preferable to learn grammar with a large number of set examples which highlight the contexts in which the grammar points could be applied. The main reasons for this approach are to prevent potential confusion and mistakes and to clearly understand how to use the rules during activities. Moreover, some students assert that it is difficult to learn grammar and pick up the words during interaction at the same time (Lyster, 1994). Ellis (2001b) also claimed that it may be difficult for learners to concentrate on both grammar and communication

simultaneously. This finding supports DeKeyser's (1998) assertion that explicit grammar instruction followed by systematic practice would be more efficient and effective than integrating grammar teaching into activities.

In contrast, although the teachers agreed that grammar was one of the most important aspects of successful language acquisition, they stressed that teachers should *not* devote a great deal of time to explaining grammar in class. They expressed a strong belief that students should take individual responsibility for learning grammar points thoroughly before class, so that they can be ready for communication with others using the rules and therefore learn the language actively in the classroom (cf. Doughty & Varela, 1998; 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998). Teachers should, on the other hand, provide opportunities for students to practise grammar points in class. This assertion stemmed from their beliefs about the effectiveness of interaction in language acquisition and students' learning needs and expectations for being able to communicate in Korean (cf. A. Brown, 2009; Schulz, 2001).

The findings, however, have indicated that teachers teach grammar in different ways, although they appear to mainly use textbooks to teach and practise grammar. One teacher indicated that each grammar point was fully covered before activities because the teacher felt that many students did not prepare for class in advance. Given this teacher's comment, it seems that grammar is explicitly taught (FonFS) (cf. Schulz, 2001). Nevertheless, the teacher stressed that interaction was more focused on than grammar instruction in class. In contrast, the other two teachers, acting on the assumption that students had undertaken some preparation, selected only key teaching points or answered questions when students asked and spent much time on pair and group work. One of the teachers added that "in order to teach them [grammar points] effectively, I use group work and pair work." From the perspective expressed by Ellis (2005), this teacher's comment would imply that grammar is implicitly taught during activities (FonF).

Considering the findings from student and teacher data synthetically, it would appear that the teachers believe that they favour inductive and implicit instruction (FonF), and some teachers employ this approach in practice; in reality, however, they may provide a deductive and explicit approach (FonFS). In addition, the students of Korean seem to prefer to learn grammar via a FonFS approach.

9.2.2. Corrective feedback

9.2.2.1. Beliefs about corrective feedback

The students and teachers of Korean agreed that correcting errors was vital in learning Korean in order to prevent students from repeating the same mistakes (cf. Loewen et al., 2009; Schulz, 1996, 2001). The student data reveal that the participants, particularly those with a higher level of language proficiency, have a favourable view of CF, indicating that students should accept their teacher's corrections with a positive attitude because ultimately the corrections are for their own benefit. Furthermore, this investigation suggests that error correction given in a pleasant manner will likely be beneficial, but public embarrassment in any form can severely discourage students from attempting to use the target language (cf. Dörnyei, 2001). The findings from the student data reveal that whether or not students will feel embarrassed in front of others depends on the teacher's attitude and manner in giving CF. They suggest that students are highly embarrassed if the teacher corrects their mistakes loudly enough for other students to hear in front of the whole class. Moreover, having errors corrected in a sarcastic or humorous manner can lessen students' enthusiasm for learning and should be avoided. As the findings from Fukai (2000) suggest, embarrassment is one of the negative factors which most cause insecurity and anxiety in learning an L2.

With regard to constructive ways of correcting errors, there is general agreement between the students and teachers that the methods of error correction should reflect the learning environment, class size, and students' feelings and personalities (cf. Mori, 2011; Yoshida, 2008). In order to prevent negative feelings such as embarrassment, teachers are expected to correct errors with thoughtful care and in a sensitive manner considering the situation at hand. More importantly, the students seem to be sensitive to class size: that is, whether a class is large or small seems to seriously affect students' feelings about CF in the classroom. In particular, those with a lower level of language proficiency are in favour of receiving CF in tutorials or during small group work because they feel less embarrassed when they make errors in working in a small group. Furthermore, the size of a class is extremely important for the teacher to create a pleasant learning environment and build a good relationship between the students and the teacher and among the students themselves, which can help learners feel more receptive to CF (cf. H. D. Brown, 2007).

9.2.2.2. Students' preferences for and teachers' perspectives on methods of giving corrective feedback

The findings of this research reveal that the students and teachers have somewhat different perspectives on when and how the teacher should correct mistakes. The findings from the focus group interviews and the results from the questionnaire-based study indicated that a majority of the students wanted the teacher to correct errors as soon as they were made rather than after an activity was completed as this enabled students to immediately recognise what they had just done wrong. Furthermore, through the interviews, it was clear that many learners had a stronger preference for explicit CF. They believed that the teacher should correct errors not only in a positive manner but also with constructive explanations. P13, for instance, stressed the importance of “constructive criticism” in the interview, stating a preference for the teacher to “tell me what was wrong, but do so nicely. Don’t just say ‘that’s wrong.’ I need to see why it’s wrong and how I can make it correct.” These findings suggest that many students of Korean want their teachers to explicitly draw their attention to their errors immediately. In this way, they could be better aware of their errors and the ways of correcting them with the benefit of metalinguistic information (Ellis et al., 2006; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009).

It should be noted, however, that the findings also indicated that implicit CF may be more effective for certain students. P11’s response, for instance, indicates that some students have negative feelings about explicit methods of CF in a large class. As they feel uncomfortable and humiliated when their errors are openly pointed out in the presence of the whole class, they prefer the teacher to correct errors in an indirect way, such as repeating or recasting (cf. Dörnyei, 2001). P20 claimed that students would try very hard to say a sentence, but if the teacher openly drew attention to their mistakes in public, they might be too embarrassed and discouraged from trying to say anything further. In addition, a few students noted that their preference for the method of CF depended on the situation: if the teacher corrected errors in front of the entire class, an indirect correction was preferred, but in a one-on-one situation, a direct correction was considered acceptable. It can therefore be said that, as a few participants stressed, it would be more reasonable to consider the various conditions in which explicit or implicit CF is most effective or appropriate, rather than claiming either form of CF is more effective than the other (Lightbown & Spada, 2008).

On the other hand, the teachers' perspectives were inconsistent regarding when and how they should give CF. One of the teachers indicated that, when teaching the whole class, teachers should correct errors only when time allows and if other students are having the same problem, and, during activities, they should not interrupt the conversation to correct errors, and if they have to correct, they should do so after the task. This teacher's comment implies a belief that fluency in communication is more important than accuracy. Another teacher indicated that, to minimise embarrassment, it is more effective to give CF in an indirect way when students work as a whole class, but explicitly give CF during group work to save time. In contrast, the remaining teacher suggested that explicit correction should be used when students work as a whole class to save time, while implicit CF should be utilised when time allows, or when students are working in a small group or in a small class. The findings from the teachers' responses suggest that the teachers place importance on time constraints over other conditions such as learning environment or learners' preferences in decisions with regard to the kinds of CF to provide as well as whether to correct errors or not. In other words, the teachers believed that they corrected errors directly when they did not have time or wanted to save time in class.

9.2.3. Activities that should be increased in the course and reasons for this

This research has revealed that the students of Korean highly value both grammar instruction and communicative activities for effective Korean language acquisition. The findings from the questionnaire-based study clearly indicated that the teaching approach students preferred *least* was “focusing on communication and teaching grammar only when necessary.” This finding supports the views of many previous studies that instruction is most effective when linguistic aspects are incorporated into language teaching in some ways (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Lightbown & Pienemann, 1993; Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Lyster, 1994; Nunan, 1991; Spada, 1997; Spada & Lightbown, 2008).

9.2.3.1. Students' and teachers' perspectives on activities to be increased in the current courses

There is general agreement between the student and teacher perspectives on the activities that should be increased in the courses. It was apparent that although they

believed that both grammar-focused instruction and teaching approaches that focus more on communication were important in learning Korean, the majority of students and all three teachers expressed a strong desire for more communicative activities in class. The student data reveal that a large number of the participants felt they needed more “contemporary approaches towards language teaching, with an emphasis on communication skills” (Richards & Gravatt, 1998, p. 17). They favoured working in a pair or a small group rather than working on their own in class, noting the advantages of interactive group work (cf. Carter, 2006; Fukai, 2000; Ghaith & Kawtharani, 2006; Jacobs & McCafferty, 2006; Long & Proter, 1985):

- As knowing is different from using, people cannot properly communicate without practice with others;
- Communicative activities make the class fun, interesting, and effective, and have a positive effect on motivating students to continue study;
- Interaction is helpful for both improving communicative ability and familiarisation with other people’s thoughts;
- Students feel more involved in learning when interacting with others.

This does not necessarily mean, however, that the students prefer communication to grammar teaching. As indicated earlier, they value both at the same time. The reason for their desire to have more interaction in class can be explained by additional comments and suggestions given in the questionnaire-based study and the individual interview responses, which suggest that the focus of instruction in both lectures and tutorials is on grammatical aspects. In other words, the current teaching approaches tend toward a structure-based method (FonFS), so the students wish to have more interactive group work to provide a balance.

Furthermore, it is worth noting that, unlike the Stage II and III students, the Stage I students expressed varied opinions on activities they wished to have more of. The findings from the interviews revealed that, out of the 11 students in Stage I, seven students wanted to have more interaction in class, while the remaining four students wished to maintain the existing balance of teaching methods. The latter group of students asserted that grammar instruction was more important than being given the opportunity to practise conversation in class, but none of them wanted even more

grammar-based activities because they felt that the proportion of grammar teaching and interactive activities in the course was sufficiently balanced to their needs.

Like the majority of the students, although the teachers of Korean admitted that grammar was one of the most important aspects in learning Korean, they greatly valued interaction over teaching grammar in the classroom and expressed a strong desire to integrate communicative activities into their courses as much as possible (cf. A. Brown, 2009; Schulz, 2001). The teachers stressed the effectiveness of group work activities, claiming that:

- Students are taking a Korean language course in order to communicate in the language;
- They have few opportunities to hear and use Korean except in class time;
- Language cannot be instilled in students' minds without practice;
- As language is about communication, when people get used to using something verbally, grammar will follow;
- Interaction can help them learn the language in an interesting and effective way;
- Grammar is explained in the textbooks, so students can read it through on their own.

The teachers insisted that although they tried to do their best to facilitate various interactive tasks during the course, they wished to provide more opportunities for students to use the language with others and they required more contact hours to make this possible.

9.2.3.2. Students' and teachers' perspectives on current teaching approaches

This research has also sought to uncover how the students and teachers perceive the current teaching approaches. There were considerable discrepancies in perception between the students and the teachers: the former observed that the main teaching methods tend to be traditional approaches in which classes focus on grammar, writing and textbook exercises, while the latter felt that they predominantly provide interactive activities such as paired or group work in their courses. The student data from the focus group interviews and the questionnaire-based study imply that the major focus of the Korean courses is on reading and writing, whereas the teachers appear to hold a view that the essential reason for learning Korean is to communicate (cf. Bernaus & Gardner,

2008). The students' comments in the interviews confirmed this point: they indicated that their Korean courses, particularly for Stage I, were structure-based, with little or no systematic attention paid to speaking and listening, with the focus instead on being taught grammar points, reading the textbook, and doing writing exercises. The following interview response (P10) illustrates this point:

The lecturer just taught and we listened to her and read the textbook. After the grammar explanation, we did some exercises. That's how we learned. The teaching method in the tutorials was the same as that in the lectures.

Faced with grammar-focused teaching (FonFS) and little interaction in class, the majority of the participants stressed that they needed more interactive activities in the course.

In contrast, the findings from the teacher interviews suggest an underlying belief that the major teaching practice should focus on communicative activities rather than structure-based teaching. One teacher commented that various activities were provided in order to make students learn more actively. Another teacher remarked that pair and group work were the most common activities in class. Similarly, the remaining teacher stated that the focus of instruction was on speaking activities, claiming that "time is limited, so I cannot ask them to do writing or reading in class."

The findings from this research did not give clear reasons why the teachers believed that they offered many interactive activities, while the students felt that there was little interaction in the classroom. One possible explanation for this significant discrepancy could be that the students and teachers have different perspectives on interactive activities. The teachers may assume their practice is a communicative approach because they get students to work together in pairs or groups. In contrast, a majority of the students felt that they lacked interaction in the classroom because the activities relate to reading a dialogue or figuring out grammatical tasks in the textbook although they work in a small group. According to Johnson (2001) and Lightbown and Spada (2008), the lessons, which characteristically begin with a lengthy grammar explanation almost always using the learner's first language and followed by examples and sentence-level practice, are structure-based instruction, not communicative approaches.

It is also possible that the teachers were describing their “ideal” teaching approach in the classroom, which they believed they were supposed to follow for successful outcomes in teaching Korean, rather than their “actual” teaching approach. As previously stated, previous studies (e.g., Borg, 2006; Nunan, 1988; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Polat, 2009) have suggested that teachers’ stated beliefs about effective teaching approaches do not always coincide with their practices in the classroom. Phipps and Borg’s (2009) research, for instance, demonstrated that teachers’ practices were affected by their previous experience with their class rather than their beliefs about effective teaching. One of the teachers in their research remarked that she valued the effectiveness of group work to promote speaking, but her actual practice was observed as teacher-class interaction. The difference between her belief and practice resulted from the teacher’s practical knowledge reflecting “student expectations and preferences, and classroom management concerns” (p. 387).

Furthermore, the teachers may have been influenced by an implicit conflict between their own cultural backgrounds and their perceptions of effective L2 pedagogy in the Western context. For example, although the Korean teachers may strongly believe that student-initiated communicative approaches are more effective than traditional instruction when teaching Korean in the New Zealand context, because they had been educated in Korea, they may subconsciously employ the traditional Korean teaching style, which is generally more teacher-centred and aimed at students who are quite passive in their learning processes (Chung, 2004; Flaitz, 2003). In addition, the teachers’ data indicated that some teachers felt they did not know exactly how to teach most effectively in the classroom, which may have been partly because of differences in their prior learning (and teaching) experiences, influenced by their cultural backgrounds, and the demands of the classroom they now teach in (cf. Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Sanchez, & Borg, 2014). Sanchez and Borg (2014) noted that the psychological, socio-cultural, and environmental realities of the classroom and institution play a crucial role in shaping teachers’ pedagogical choices. In other words, teachers who are from a Korean background may find, when teaching in a Western classroom, that they face challenges and expectations different to what they are familiar with.

In this research, as noted earlier, in contrast to the teachers’ assertion that they predominantly use a communicative approach, the student data have revealed that the

teachers of Korean seem to focus on grammar-based instruction, closely following the grammar exercises in the selected textbooks, which also implies that their practices may be based on a syllabus which is designed according to a list of grammatical structures. In order to clarify the Korean teachers' actual teaching practice, there is a need for further investigation on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices through classroom observations (e.g., Phipps & Borg, 2009; Polat, 2009).

9.3. Students' and teachers' perspectives on their roles

Research questions 1c and 2b related to students' and teachers' perspectives on teachers' roles in learning and teaching the Korean language effectively. Research questions 1b and 2c asked about students' and teachers' expectations of their counterparts for successful outcomes. Finally, research question 2d addressed teachers' perspectives on how they can help students take personal responsibility for their own learning.

9.3.1. Teachers' roles

Similarly to previous studies (e.g., Falout et al., 2009; Fukai, 2000; Griffiths, 2007; Holliday, 1994; Sanprasert, 2010), this research suggests that teachers play a central role in successful learning outcomes. Their roles are not just limited to teaching aspects but also include supportive and motivational factors (Dörnyei, 2001; Wan et al., 2011). The motivational roles largely relate to making class enjoyable and creating a positive learning environment.

9.3.1.1. Teaching role

Firstly, a teacher is expected to teach Korean effectively "as an expert knower" (Schulz, 2001, p. 255). The students of Korean believed that teachers should clearly explain teaching points and answer potential questions. The teachers were also aware of this teaching role, remarking that teachers should take responsibility for presenting new materials and information properly. The students' comments related to this point are worth noting: they stated that some teachers appeared to be confused about what they were teaching and could not sufficiently answer the students' questions. After several attempts the students simply stopped asking because they felt that ultimately they would not receive an adequate response from the teacher. This view is in accord with one teacher's response that the teacher is sometimes confused when teaching grammar

points and does not know how to teach grammar effectively. In order to teach effectively, the students suggested that teachers fully prepare and build on lesson content from basic and simple points, commenting that “you should fully learn and practise basic rules before adding new things.”

9.3.1.2. Supportive role

Another important function the teacher should perform is offering support in the learning process. The teachers interviewed seemed to believe that they need to carefully consider the following processes involved in student learning. First, they can check whether students are ready to learn, asking questions to find out what they do not know and what needs further explanation before class. Secondly, they should ensure that learners participate in activities and how much they achieve during the class. According to the student and teacher interview data, teachers should provide clear instructions before having students perform an activity and ensure all students understand what they are learning. As noted by Fukai (2000), teachers’ clear guidance can reduce students’ confusion and anxiety in learning a language. Finally, they should make students aware that they should prepare for class outside the classroom.

In particular, the interview data revealed that students expected the teacher to present clear assessment objectives and offer appropriate support, which could encourage them to prepare for tests better (H. D. Brown, 2007; Fink, 2003). P8, for instance, complained that listening tests were very difficult although he had prepared for them very thoroughly. Since there was no indication of the format of the test and no forms of the listening test were given, the student did not know “how to best listen, like how much time to spend listening, when to read and choose the answers.” As a consequence, he could not properly complete the listening test, received a poor grade, and was very disappointed. This investigation suggests that the teachers should provide all the information about assessment including the length of test time and test coverage before the test (H. D. Brown, 2007; Horwitz, 2013).

Furthermore, the findings indicated that some participants were greatly frustrated by their lecturer’s negative comment that the teacher was very disappointed with the results of their listening test when the tests were returned. The students believed that the bad test results were caused by a lack of information as to what they should study. The

students argued that, instead of this kind of discouragement, teachers should give motivational feedback which provides information on progress and the competence level of tests or examinations (cf. Dörnyei, 2001). As H. D. Brown (2007) suggests, it is important to “make the test performance an intrinsically motivating experience through which a student will feel a sense of accomplishment and challenge” (p. 474).

9.3.1.3. Motivational role: making class enjoyable

One of the motivational roles of the teacher is making class enjoyable. In order for the teacher to make class interesting, the data suggest that teachers should develop effective teaching materials and methods (Holliday, 1994) and provide various activities such as interactive group work, games, and extra-curricular activities. As previously indicated in the student data, the Korean courses seemed to be conducted in an old-fashioned style of teaching, with students mainly completing exercises from the textbook and checking the answers, which many participants found boring. Jung’s (2011) research also revealed that, in terms of teaching styles, the key demotivating factor was “teachers’ boring lecture-based classes” and suggested that “teachers should lead the class in an interactive way and promote lots of interaction between students and the teacher” (p. 67). In this respect, the findings from the teacher data reveal that the teachers may not be familiar with enjoyable activities and students need teachers who can teach Korean effectively and in an interesting manner.

Furthermore, the findings suggest that learning is more likely to take place when students are engaged in a class in which teaching content and activities relate to the students’ interests (Blaz, 2006; Cheung, 2001). Therefore, many students suggested that teachers integrate Korean popular music, dramas, and movies through audiovisual materials into course and extra-curricular content (cf. Cheung, 2001). Interestingly, in the interviews, some teachers remarked that they had integrated cultural aspects using video clips and DVDs in class, and their students’ responses had been very positive. In addition, the student data suggest that it is useful for the teachers to consider whether the material is relevant to the lessons and is suitable for the students’ language level. In addition, the findings suggest that if teachers are enthusiastic in what they are teaching, students become interested in why the teachers like it and why they should learn it, and enjoy what they are doing (cf. Cheung, 2001; Dörnyei, 1998, 2001). If the teachers have

a negative attitude toward teaching, however, students become aware of this and lose interest in the subject.

9.3.1.4. Motivational role: creating a positive learning environment

The other motivational role of teachers is facilitating an optimum learning environment. As previously discussed, in a small class it is much easier for the teacher to foster a close relationship with students and among the students themselves and generate a more pleasant atmosphere, so that students can easily approach their teacher and interact with other classmates (cf. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; L. Wilkinson & Olliver-Gray, 2006). The teachers' responses agree that it is beneficial to provide only small-sized classes from the first semester of Stage I in order to develop Korean courses, but in practical terms it is difficult to do so in the Korean department.

Furthermore, the student data suggest that teachers demonstrate interest in each student without giving preferential treatment to any specific individuals. If the teacher takes an interest in individual students and is willing to learn students' names and backgrounds, the students will become more interested in the language. In such a friendly learning atmosphere, the teacher is more approachable, so it is more comfortable for students to ask questions and to use the language with less embarrassment about making mistakes. As a consequence, students will learn more quickly. Moreover, in order to encourage students to speak Korean, the teacher responses indicated that it would be helpful for teachers to try to transform a serious or uncomfortable atmosphere into a pleasant learning environment and give clear instructions about what each student should do in activities.

9.3.2. Students' roles

9.3.2.1. Students' roles in learning Korean effectively

As revealed earlier, it is clear that the teacher's role is of great importance because teachers may affect students' feelings about the topic and stimulate their interest in learning through the teaching materials and approaches they provide. According to the student data, however, a majority of the students seem to believe that success in learning Korean depends on how they assume responsibility for their own learning inside and outside the classroom rather than what the teacher does in the classroom (cf.

Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1999; Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014). In particular, those students with more than five years or all of their schooling experience in the New Zealand education system expressed a stronger belief that students should assume responsibility for their own learning in order to learn Korean effectively than those who had not had the same level of experience of the New Zealand educational context, because they are the ones who want to learn (cf. Cotterall, 1999).

This investigation suggests that there is a variety of requirements on students both inside and outside the classroom in order for them to learn Korean effectively. In other words, students should prepare for class, attend class, pay attention to the teacher, conduct themselves appropriately in the classroom, and practise and revise after class what they have learned. The student responses further indicate that they should have the necessary qualities such as having a desire to learn Korean, having a positive attitude toward learning the language, asking the teacher questions when necessary, and helping other students. In particular, the teacher participants all agreed with the assertion that preparation for class is one of the most important requirements of students. They stressed that advance self-study could help reduce the gaps in students' language proficiency levels. Furthermore, it could help students understand a teacher's explanation easily and enjoy the lesson more. These students' and teachers' perspectives were in accord with the opinions expressed by H. D. Brown (2007) that "successful mastery of a foreign language will depend to a great extent on learners' autonomous ability both to take initiative in the classroom and to continue their journey to success beyond the classroom and the teacher" (p. 70).

9.3.2.2. The extent to which students of Korean take individual responsibility for learning Korean

Overall, many participants remarked that they were willing to accept personal responsibility for their study and most of the time fulfilled the roles they considered necessary for learning achievement. In particular, the students with a higher level of language proficiency seemed to take the initiative in learning Korean more actively than their counterparts, commenting that they usually prepared for the next class. On the other hand, those with a lower level revealed that they relied more on their teachers, considering it fundamental to attend each class, pay attention to the teacher, and actively take part in activities given to them in the classroom. These findings suggest that

experienced language learners are more confident in taking control of their learning than beginners (Griffiths, 2007, 2008; Rivers, 2001). According to Griffiths (2008), learners with a higher level of language proficiency are more self-directed learners, who tend to be “very eclectic in their preferences regarding learning method” (p. 261), and to “flexibly employ the methods which best suit themselves and/or their situations in order to achieve their learning goal” (p. 262).

In contrast, the teachers’ responses revealed that they believed that many students of Korean, especially those of a lower level of language proficiency, seemed to rely on their teachers in the classroom (H. D. Brown, 2007), and they did not study independently even when the teacher requested it. At the same time, the student data reveal that some students do not or cannot conduct themselves as they should (cf. Richards & Gravatt, 1998). As reasons for this, some students pointed to other demands they had to prioritise over studying Korean, while others stated that they often felt overwhelmed by the amount of content to learn and became lazy. Moreover, the remaining students revealed that they could not initiate study on their own because they simply did not know what to do, although they usually completed assignments or homework when instructed to do so. These findings suggest that the students of Korean may not be ready for being self-directed learners and need the teacher’s support.

9.3.3. How to encourage students to take greater personal responsibility for learning Korean

In order to help students take personal responsibility for studying on their own initiative, the teacher needs to find ways to develop students’ capacity for autonomy. It is important that teachers do not provide all the aspects the students require, but instead guide them to make their own effort to learn the language (Carter, 2006; Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014; Sheerin, 1997). In other words, the students need the teacher’s guidance and support to become ultimately more autonomous, rather than have their learning directly controlled by their teachers (Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1995).

In response to the question of how to encourage students to be more personally responsible for their learning, however, no teacher provided clear suggestions. There was general agreement among the teachers that it is difficult for them to stimulate students, particularly those who have already lost their motivation for learning Korean,

to be more autonomous learners. They stressed a belief that “it is the learner who must remain at the centre of the process, for no matter how much energy and effort we expend, it is the learner who has to do the learning” (Nunan, 1995, p. 155). Accordingly, it is necessary, in the perception of the teachers, for students to assume personal responsibility for their own study.

Uncertain how to encourage this behaviour, one teacher commented that “presumably, the only thing that we can do is to praise and encourage them when they do their best and get a good result.” This supports Dörnyei’s (2001) assertion that the teacher should provide motivational feedback which informs on progress and performance in tests or examinations. In this light, the student data suggest that it is important for teachers to avoid a negative comment about the assessment results (Dörnyei, 2001). Another teacher, somewhat hesitantly, stated that in order to promote students’ learning behaviour, it might be effective to use assessments as an incentive by awarding grades according to students’ performance, as students did not study unless they had to do so for upcoming assessments. This direct teacher’s control, however, may not lead to autonomous learning (Carter, 2006). Rather, in order to make assessment effective for encouraging students to take greater personal responsibility for learning, the student data suggest that teachers need to provide relevant information for the tests and some preparation with appropriate and useful strategies for taking the tests (H. D. Brown, 2007). They emphasised that such appropriate support and assistance for assessments help them feel more motivated to study. In addition, to avoid negative washback in advance, teachers should ensure, when designing a course, that the learning goals, the teaching and learning activities, and the feedback and assessment “reflect and support each other” (Fink, 2003, pp. 64-65).

9.4. Reasons for learning Korean and motivational factors

Research questions 1d and 1e explored students’ reasons for taking a Korean language acquisition course and their expectations as a consequence of learning the language.

9.4.1. Reasons for taking a Korean language acquisition course

The findings of this research are in line with previous studies by Choe (2005) and H. Kim (2003) that the major reasons that students learn the Korean language are directly Korean-related aspects such as the language, culture, and people, followed by future

career prospects and a genuine interest in languages more generally. Firstly, according to the findings from the questionnaire-based study, all ethnic groups and Stage groups most frequently reported that they learn Korean due to an interest in the Korean language or a desire to improve their Korean language skills. In particular, Korean heritage participants expressed a stronger desire to improve their general language skills than other ethnic groups. This finding is similar to the results from Richards and Gravatt's (1998) study, which indicate that L2 learners in a New Zealand tertiary institute selected "interest in the language" and/or "improving the language" as the most common motivator (p. 3).

Secondly, the focus group interview and individual interview data revealed that many students had a positive impression of Korean people and its popular culture such as Korean music, dramas, and movies, stating that they usually watched Korean programmes on TV or via the internet at home. The findings from the student interviews suggest that teachers should make the Korean courses as relevant to the students as possible by integrating Korean dramas and movies, music and culture into lesson content (cf. Cheung, 2001). P15, for instance, commented that those taking Korean as a GE paper might not be really interested in learning the language but many of them were still interested in the culture. One teacher's interview response supported this view; based on a study she had conducted in 2005, she stated that "non-New Zealand students, particularly Chinese students, predominantly wanted to learn Korean because of Korean culture." Among the Stage groups, the Stage I students more often expressed an interest in Korean culture than their counterparts. Similarly, the teachers strongly believed that students' interest in Korean culture was the primary motivation for learning the language. These findings suggest that it will be beneficial to capitalise on students' interest in Korean popular culture and use it as an initiator in class.

Thirdly, the findings from the questionnaire-based study confirmed those from Choe's (2005) research, which indicated that non-Asian students selected the response that they were learning the language for their future careers more frequently than Asian students, including Korean heritage participants. Some participants in the focus group interviews noted that Korea's economic power was important in the world market, and they thought there would be greater employment opportunities if they could speak Korean.

Finally, it is important to note that a degree regulation requirement for a GE or language paper was not the primary reason for most of the participants studying Korean, even for those taking the language as a GE course requirement (cf. H. Kim, 2003). The findings from the questionnaire-based study revealed that of the 23 students taking Korean as a GE course, only eight indicated the GE paper requirement as their reason for study, whereas the remaining 15 cited other reasons.

9.4.2. Expectations as a consequence of learning Korean

The findings from the focus group interviews and the questionnaire-based study revealed that, regardless of different ethnic or Stage groups, the students wanted to improve their language skills, and in particular expressed a strong desire to be able to understand and/or communicate in Korean by the completion of the course they were taking (cf. Richards & Gravatt, 1998). They seemed to regard speaking as the most important language skill to develop, with differing expectations of the language proficiency levels they hoped to attain. The students with a lower level of language proficiency expected to be able to “reach a basic conversational ability,” while those who had a higher level hoped to be able to “communicate with people on a normal basis.” This attitude corresponds with their view that the teacher should use Korean as much as possible in class. Furthermore, in terms of writing skills, the participants with a higher proficiency level had somewhat higher expectations of being able to write Korean at a high/adequate level. In addition, among ethnic groups, the Korean heritage group appeared to have higher expectations of being able to read and write Korean at a high/adequate level than their counterparts (cf. Byon, 2008). In connection with this point, one teacher’s view expressed in this research corresponds with Sohn’s (1997) assertion that there is a need for teaching the two groups differently according to their learning needs and expectations.

With regard to the students’ main expectations of taking a Korean language course, it would be beneficial to consider the connections between the students’ expectations of and reasons for learning Korean and their preferences for classroom approaches. As noted earlier, a preliminary motivating reason for learning Korean is a genuine interest in the language and/or improving ability in the language. Given this finding, being able to understand and speak Korean is the students’ natural expectation at the completion of the course. In this light, Schulz’s (2001) assertion needs to be considered, that “if

teacher behaviours do not match with student expectations, learner motivation and a teacher's credibility may be diminished" (p. 256). Furthermore, it is useful to consider that this research suggests that many students desire more communicative approaches in their courses because of the effectiveness of interaction in learning Korean and the lack of interactive activities in their courses. This preference may be explained by their expectations of the course. In other words, students of Korean expect to be able to communicate with Korean people, so they want to have more interaction with others when learning the language. In addition, the data reveal that although many students indicate that they take Korean because of an interest in its culture, they do not expect to gain a deeper cultural understanding from their course. In other words, Korean culture motivates students to learn the language (cf. Cheung, 2001), but gaining an understanding of the culture is not their primary expectation of the Korean course.

9.5. Factors influencing students' decisions to continue or discontinue their study

Research questions 1f and 1g sought to identify the factors that have an important influence on students' decisions to continue or discontinue their study. In order to stimulate more students to continue learning Korean, it is important to consider not only motivating factors but also possible demotivating factors that subsequently decrease the motivation that students previously had and lead to discontinuation of their study.

9.5.1. Factors influencing continuation of study

According to the findings from the questionnaire-based study and individual interviews with students, the students taking Korean as a major/minor paper and wishing to further improve their Korean generally decided, not surprisingly, to continue studying the language. They seemed to have an intrinsic motivation before they decided to take a Korean language acquisition course at university. Some students in Stage I, for instance, remarked that they had decided to major in Korean before starting the course because they had previous, pleasant experiences learning the language. More importantly, those who are intrinsically motivated to learn are not so affected during the language learning process by extrinsic factors such as learning environment, social dynamics in the classroom, and teaching styles (H. D. Brown, 2007). Furthermore, Ushioda (2008) asserted that learners who are intrinsically motivated to learn an L2 should be more

actively involved in their learning process and learn more effectively than those who have extrinsic motivation.

With regard to motivating factors that affect students' continued interest in learning Korean, it is important to consider the students' special interest in Korean culture, as indicated earlier. This research suggests that reflecting this interest in teaching is an effective way of motivating learners to become more responsive and active in the learning process. In other words, students can be more encouraged to learn Korean when the teacher incorporates a good deal of Korean dramas, movies, and music into language instruction (cf. Cheung, 2001). The findings suggest that the teacher should not rely merely on the textbook to try to engage students' interest, but should also consider audio-visual materials such as DVDs or video clips that reflect Korean culture. As previously stated, two out of the three teacher participants commented that they had integrated cultural aspects through video clips in class, and received very positive responses from their students. Furthermore, this investigation indicates the importance of providing cultural aspects outside the classroom as well, which stimulate students' interest in learning Korean. Some teachers and students in this study suggested that it would be useful to provide Korean-related social or cultural events in the form of an extra-curricular activity (e.g., holding a film festival and a special movie night to show a Korean movie).

9.5.2. Factors influencing discontinuation of study: Demotivating factors

The data from the questionnaire-based study revealed that, above all, many students in Stage I had no plan to take another Korean language course, indicating that their decision had already been made before they even started the course. The majority of them were taking Korean as a GE paper, and reported in the questionnaire that they wanted to focus on their major or other papers, or else they had no time to learn the language (cf. Richards & Gravatt, 1998). This finding was confirmed by the student interview data, which suggest that when students receive the GE paper points they require, they do not need to continue learning Korean. In this respect, it should be noted that, as highlighted earlier, those taking Korean as a GE paper asserted that they were learning the language because they were interested in Korean culture and the language. In other words, the GE requirement was not their main reason for taking Korean. No matter how strongly they expressed such an interest, however, they were unlikely to

continue studying. It can therefore be said that it is difficult to motivate these students to continue. There were other minor reasons for discontinuation of study: students were taking the Korean course in their final year; they had schedule clashes with other subjects; and they intended to undertake further study in Korea.

It is, however, worth noting that students can be directly or indirectly demotivated by the teacher, so much so that they eventually decide to discontinue their study (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Falout et al., 2009). It seems that students who have less L2 learning experience and those with a lower level of language proficiency are more likely to be negatively affected as they have less capacity for self-regulation that would allow them to overcome demotivation (Falout et al., 2009). Some Stage I students, for instance, reported in the open-ended section of the questionnaire that, although they had initially planned to continue their study to a higher level, they lost interest in learning the language during their course of study. Furthermore, P8 stated in his interview that he lost his motivation to study Korean during the first four weeks. Affected by unpleasant aspects of the course (e.g., being unable to achieve a good mark despite preparation for tests), he increasingly questioned his ability, started putting off study, and finally gave up his Korean studies. This finding suggests that students who are dissatisfied with the course tend to make a decision to discontinue their study during the course, rather than completing the course.

In order to prevent or minimize possible discontinuation of study, it is crucial to identify what causes students to become demotivated while they are learning. First, the findings reveal that the discrepancy between the teacher's teaching approaches and students' expectations may contribute to demotivation (Gan, 2009). A student in Stage I, for instance, reported in the questionnaire-based study that although he had planned to finish both Stage I courses, the teaching process did not meet his expectations, so he was considering discontinuing his studies. Another Stage I participant also explained in the questionnaire-based study that because the quality of the course he was taking was not as he had expected, he would not take another. Similarly, P8 commented in an interview that it was difficult to understand the materials given and the explanations of grammar points. Consequently he gradually placed less value on the class and began to rely more on his Korean friend outside class.

A second potential demotivating factor is unclear formats and lack of preparative practice for each assessment, which leads to unsatisfactory test results (cf. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The student who expressed dissatisfaction with the teaching methods commented that he was discouraged by the results of his assessments, because he could not gain a good mark even though he had prepared for each test. He stressed that he needed the teacher's clear guidance for each test, so that he could understand what he was expected to study.

A third possible demotivating factor relates to the teacher's behaviour in class. The student who wanted clear guidelines and examples ahead of assessments (P8) further remarked that he felt he had wasted a great deal of time in tutorials. According to this student, while the teacher was checking each student's homework, the others were sitting and waiting for their turns between ten and fifteen minutes at the beginning of each class. The teacher did not realise that the method of checking homework was wasteful and inefficient until some weeks afterwards. Moreover, the student frequently felt that he was considered a bad student and was embarrassed or humiliated when he did not bring his homework to class.

In addition, the focus group interview data suggest that the teacher's assumption that every student has the same level of ability frustrates and discourages many students. As some students have previous experience of learning Korean while others have none, it is important for the teacher to recognise that students may have differing levels of language proficiency in the beginner course and consider their individual differences when teaching (cf. Ellis, 1986). This research supports the claim by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) that "everything teachers say or do and how they communicate and behave in the classroom may potentially influence student motivation in different ways" (pp. 28–29). In other words, teachers should note that their own unsuitable teaching approaches or poor presentational skills, lack of learning support, and unreliable behaviour and attitudes in class could discourage students from continuing their studies during the learning process (cf. Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Hu, 2011).

9.6. Influence of students' individual differences on their perceived learning needs and beliefs

Research question 1h addresses how students' individual differences (cultural/educational backgrounds and language proficiency levels) are related to their perceived learning needs and beliefs.

The student data provide some very valuable evidence of the influence of students' individual differences on their perceptions of learning needs and effective language acquisition (cf. H. D. Brown, 2007; Choe, 2005; Loewen et al., 2009). First, the findings suggest that different language proficiency levels could influence students' expectations and beliefs about effective learning. The findings from the focus group interviews revealed that the students in Stage I depended on the teachers' explanation of grammar more than those in Stage II. The data from the questionnaire-based study further clarified that students at a lower level of language proficiency had a stronger expectation of the teacher's role in using various teaching methods effectively and setting learning goals than their counterparts with higher levels of proficiency. The findings from the individual interviews also revealed that students at a lower level expressed strong beliefs about the teachers' roles in class. They regarded it as fundamental to attend each class, to pay attention to the teacher, and to actively take part in activities given to them in the classroom. These findings support the views of H. D. Brown (2007) that students of a lower level of language proficiency are highly dependent on the teacher.

On the other hand, students with a higher level of language proficiency seemed to be more ready for autonomous learning, and to more actively take the initiative in learning Korean. The focus group interview data suggest that Stage II students assume greater responsibility for self-study of grammar ahead of class time, believing it beneficial to preview the grammar points that would be learnt in an upcoming class. This finding is supported by the individual interview data, which indicate that students with a higher level of proficiency more strongly believe that it is useful to preview lesson content, while more students at lower levels consider that revision is necessary for learning effectiveness. This suggests that students with a higher level may be more confident in taking control of their learning because they are experienced language learners (Rivers, 2001). Furthermore, according to the findings from the questionnaire-based study, the

students at a higher level, in comparison with those of a lower level, want their teachers to use more Korean in class. The interview data also suggest that most students in Stages II and III want more interactive activities integrated into their current course, probably because students with a higher level of language proficiency are more confident and competent at communicating in the language (H. D. Brown, 2007).

Similarly to the observations made by Choe (2005), the findings from the questionnaire-based study also suggest that students' cultural backgrounds may influence their motivations for learning. The student data revealed that the non-Asian students responded more frequently than the Asian and Korean heritage students that they were learning the language for their future career prospects, with the expectation of increasing their job opportunities. Furthermore, there were slightly more students from the Asian and non-Asian groups than from the Korean heritage group who commented that an interest in Korean culture attracted them to the language. Moreover, although the reason for learning Korean reported most frequently among all ethnic groups was an interest in the language/desire to improve language skills, 75% of the respondents from Korean heritage groups selected this item. The other two reasons the Korean heritage participants gave were a desire to communicate with the Korean community and an interest in Korean culture.

Finally, there is evidence that the learning experience of different education systems may affect students' perceptions of the teacher's roles and their own responsibility for successful language acquisition (cf. Loewen et al., 2009). The findings from the questionnaire-based study revealed that the students with more experience of the New Zealand education system believed that their success in learning Korean depended more on themselves than their counterparts with less experience of schooling in New Zealand.

9.7. Difficulties in teaching Korean in the New Zealand educational context

With regard to research question 2e, the findings from the interviews with the teachers suggest that there are some special characteristics that teachers should consider when designing and teaching Korean language acquisition courses in a New Zealand tertiary education.

Firstly, it seems that the allocated class time is noticeably shorter compared with universities in other countries such as the US and Korea. The data indicate that the university in New Zealand offers four contact hours per week until Stage II and three hours in Stage III, while their equivalents in the US generally offer five contact hours a week. Furthermore, the length of one semester here is considerably shorter, at only twelve weeks, while it is sixteen weeks in the US and fourteen to fifteen weeks in Korea. In other words, the amount of classroom exposure to the language in New Zealand during the course of one semester is far less than in other countries. The teachers stressed that they needed more class time for the Korean courses.

As well as the short allocated class time, there is a need for teachers to develop audio-visual materials related directly to current lesson content. One teacher cited the example of students in the US who are required to listen to assigned work for one hour per day in the audio-visual library after class and have their attendance recorded. This teacher remarked that there have been several attempts at creating a CD for the students in the context considered here, but it requires too much time and it is difficult for the existing teaching staff to find time to create such teaching materials. More importantly, there was a concern that “language experts usually make those materials, but we don’t have them in the Korean department.” This finding suggests that although there is a need for supplementary audio-visual materials, there are practical difficulties with creating extra teaching materials because of a lack of teaching staff in the Korean department.

Finally, the teacher interview data indicate that it is difficult to manage both Korean heritage students and non-Korean heritage students in the same class. As indicated earlier, the teachers were concerned about different language proficiency levels between the two groups in terms of listening and speaking skills (cf. E. Kim, 2005; Kim, 2001). One teacher, for instance, commented that some Korean heritage learners tended not to study but still gained good marks in listening and speaking tests. As a result, non-Korean heritage students may feel discouraged when comparing themselves with Korean heritage students. Furthermore, as noted by Sohn (1997), they had different learning needs: Korean heritage students had a strong desire to improve reading and writing skills, while non-Korean heritage learners wanted to develop speaking and listening abilities. Accordingly, it can be said that it is problematic to teach both groups of students in the same class.

9.8. Conclusion

This study has suggested several important aspects that should be noted to better meet students' perceived learning needs in a tertiary Korean language acquisition programme. Firstly, this investigation has revealed some noticeable discrepancies between students' and teachers' beliefs. Although both students and teachers believe that grammar instruction is important in learning Korean, both groups hold different views on how to achieve this. While students, particularly those with a lower level of language proficiency, want the teacher to explain grammar explicitly before communication (deductive and explicit instruction: a FonFS approach), teachers appear to expect students to prepare grammar points for class beforehand and they focus on providing opportunity to use them in the classroom. This research also suggests that, due to the current structure-based approach, many students assert that they need more communicative activities in class, which reflects a desire to improve their Korean language skills. The teachers, on the other hand, believe that they have provided interactive activities mainly using paired or group work. Many previous studies (e.g., Banno, 2003; Biggs, 1998; A. Brown, 2009; M. Li, 2000; Schulz, 1996, 2001) have revealed that it is crucial to minimise the conflict between the two parties because a mismatch between learners' expectations and pedagogy in an L2 classroom can lead to student confusion, demotivation, and dropout.

Furthermore, this research has indicated that teachers can motivate students to learn or demotivate them and cause them to lose interest in a variety of ways. The student data have revealed that the Korean courses employ a traditional structure-based approach, with students mainly completing exercises from the textbook and checking the answers, which many participants view as being tedious. In order to make class interesting, the data suggest that the teacher should provide various activities such as interactive group work and make good use of students' interest in Korean popular culture as an initiator to work in class. Moreover, the teacher plays a vital role in creating a pleasant learning environment and building a good relationship with students and among the students themselves. In this connection, the student data have stressed the importance of providing small classes, in which students can easily interact with other classmates, and feel more comfortable to ask questions and be more receptive to error correction (cf. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; L. Wilkinson & Olliver-Gray, 2006). In addition, the student data suggest that, with the aim of supporting and motivating successful learning, the

teacher should provide clear assessment objectives and appropriate support and assistance such as some preparation with useful strategies for taking the tests (H. D. Brown, 2007). The assessments also need reflecting the learning goals and classroom activities and vice versa to avoid or reduce negative washback (Fink, 2003).

The next chapter provides implications for practice, including some possible solutions for the issues that have been identified in this study, in order to teach Korean as an L2 effectively, particularly in the New Zealand context. The chapter also addresses limitations and recommendations for future research, with final conclusions.

Chapter 10. Conclusion

10.1. Introduction

In order to discover ways in which tertiary Korean language programmes could better meet students' learning needs in New Zealand, this research has explored students' and teachers' perspectives on effective Korean language acquisition, as well as students' perceived learning needs and their expectations, using a mixed methods approach. The findings of this study have shown that there are different perspectives on classroom activities between students and teachers: (1) students want the teacher to teach grammar explicitly before any activity (a FonFS approach), while teachers wish the students to prepare grammar points for class beforehand and to use them in interaction in class; (2) students believe that their teachers mainly follow a structure-based approach (and perceive that they need more interactive activities), whereas teachers perceive that they predominantly provide communicative activities in the classroom. Furthermore, this study has revealed that the teacher plays important roles in not only conveying information and material, but also making classes interesting, fostering a positive and supportive learning environment, and monitoring student learning processes. Finally, it should be noted that, although teaching approaches and teachers' behaviours and their attitudes in class can influence the learning process, it is the students who need to take personal responsibility for their study because success in learning Korean depends on what they do inside and outside the classroom.

This final chapter, considering the teachers' and students' roles, provides the pedagogical implications of the research findings, and then addresses the limitations of the research, with possible directions for further research, and concludes the study.

10.2. Pedagogical implications

The following eleven 'golden rules' for pedagogical practice, each of which is discussed below, emerge from the findings of this research:

1. Teacher proficiency in the target language is crucial to student success.

2. At the beginners' level, grammatical instruction must be direct, clear and preceding active use of the language – a deductive approach. It would be beneficial, however, if students were to prepare beforehand.
3. Explicit and deductive grammar teaching needs to be embedded in real-world contexts that illustrate active use of the relevant grammatical structures.
4. Teachers should provide focused, direct, explicit feedback within the context of a supportive encouraging environment.
5. Teachers of Korean may wish to explore the interactional merits of a task-based or task-supported approach to CLT, albeit one that is situated within a more traditional form-focused orientation to grammar instruction. A task-based or task-supported approach may also make classes enjoyable and create a pleasant and supportive learning environment.
6. Professional development that encourages teachers to explore both their own and other teaching approaches would be of benefit in strengthening current Korean programmes in New Zealand.
7. It would be conducive to motivation to integrate into Korean programmes aspects of Korean popular culture that reflect students' interests inside and outside the classroom.
8. Teachers' positive and impartial attitudes towards students will enhance the learning environment and promote positive affective responses in students.
9. Large lecture-based courses limit opportunities for meaningful interaction and collaboration. Small classes provide a more conducive opportunity to focus on meaningful interaction and collaboration.
10. Effective language assessments need to reflect what teachers expect students to know and be able to do with the language beyond the classroom. Assessments need to mirror the communicative and interactive intentions of the learning programme.
11. A good deal of the ownership for motivation in the Korean classroom rests with the students, but adequate scaffolding for learner autonomy is important.

10.2.1. Teaching role

One of the important roles teachers should play relates to teaching aspects. This research indicates that, from the students' perspective, teachers are expected to deliver knowledge and information effectively, give appropriate CF, and provide various

classroom activities to use the language. First of all, teachers should be confident in what they are doing. The teacher interview data revealed that when teaching grammatical aspects, teachers sometimes got confused themselves due to lack of teaching experience. Similarly, the findings from the student data indicated that some teachers were confused about their teaching points and were not able to answer questions clearly. The students suggested that, in order to teach Korean effectively and be a reliable source of information, teachers need to fully prepare for and understand the content they are teaching, making a solid plan, organising for the class constructively, and building up lesson content from basic and simple points. In other words, teacher proficiency in the target language is crucial to student success (Pedagogical Implication 1).

With regard to the methods of teaching grammar, the student data indicated that many students, particularly those who had a lower level of language proficiency, relied on teachers' direct and explicit explanation of grammar. They wanted to learn grammar through the process of statement, explanation, provision of a large number of set examples, and practice. This is because they were not confident to learn grammar by themselves and wanted to avoid confusion and save time. In other words, the students of Korean have a strong preference for teachers' explicit approaches to grammar teaching before an activity (cf. Schulz, 1996, 2001). Despite these students' expectations, according to the teacher responses, two out of the three teacher participants argued that they did not treat grammar explicitly in the classroom, although they also pointed out that many students did not study on their own before class. The teacher participants believed that students should read grammar points in the textbooks at home thoroughly in advance, while teachers should provide opportunity to use them in the classroom. Preparation for class was one of the most important roles that the teachers required students to play. The teachers stressed that advance self-study could help students understand a teacher's explanation easily, enjoy the lesson more, and reduce the gaps in their language proficiency levels.

These findings suggest two things. First, at the beginners' level, grammatical instruction must be direct, clear and preceding active use of the language – a deductive approach based on a PPP model. Second, if teachers wish to encourage students' active use of the language in class, teachers need to make clear their rationale for insisting on students'

prior preparation, and need to inform them more explicitly about what they expect students to prepare for each class and what they will and will not cover during class (Pedagogical Implication 2). This may become more necessary as students progress to higher levels of proficiency.

Moreover, it is also important for teachers to consider interesting ways of teaching grammar, because learning grammar is not necessarily enjoyable. Although the students and teachers of Korean valued the effectiveness of learning grammar, the interview data showed that almost half of the students and two of the three teachers expressed unfavourable attitudes toward learning and teaching grammar because of teaching methods (cf. Loewen et al., 2009). To make learning grammar more meaningful and enjoyable, the findings of this research suggest that teachers should explain grammar in context and with a variety of set examples, employing a variety of teaching materials and methods. According to the teacher responses, it was clear that the teachers mainly used textbooks when explaining grammar. The “textbook teaching,” however, could make the lectures “extremely boring, because the teacher usually is lecturing about the material students were assigned to read” (Moore, 2009, p. 146). (The ways to make classes interesting will be discussed in detail later.) In other words, explicit and deductive grammar teaching needs to be embedded in real-world contexts that illustrate active use of the relevant grammatical structures (Pedagogical Implication 3).

Another important teaching role that the teachers of Korean should play is to offer constructive CF for successful learning outcomes. Related to students’ and teachers’ perspectives on when and how to give CF, the student data indicated that many students preferred the teacher to correct errors explicitly with constructive explanations as soon as they are made. Their preference appears to be based on a belief that explicit error correction helps students better notice what they did wrong and how to correct the error, because of the provision of metalinguistic information (Ellis et al., 2006; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009). The teacher data, on the other hand, revealed that time constraints were the most influential factor that affected the teacher’s decision of whether or not to correct errors and the types of CF to offer. For instance, they corrected errors explicitly or even ignored them when they did not have time or wanted to save time in class. This research implies that there is a need for the teachers to consider students’ preferences for methods of CF. Furthermore, if they lack time in class, it may

be useful to utilize peer feedback on errors when doing small group work (H. D. Brown, 2007).

More importantly, this research indicates that students' feelings about CF can be influenced by various conditions, such as the teacher's attitude and manner, the learning environment, class size, students' feelings and personalities, and so on (cf. Mori, 2011; Yoshida, 2008). In this respect, the data suggest that teachers should correct errors with thoughtful care and in a sensitive manner, endeavouring to prevent or reduce possible public embarrassment in any form, which can severely discourage students from attempting to use the language in class (cf. Dörnyei, 2001; Fukai, 2000). Furthermore, this investigation suggests that it would be beneficial to provide CF in tutorials or during small group work. As small classes can help teachers generate a pleasant learning environment and build a good relationship with students, students feel less embarrassed and more receptive to CF. In other words, focused, direct, explicit feedback within the context of a supportive encouraging environment appears to be what students are looking for in their Korean classes (Pedagogical Implication 4).

The last important teaching role relates to rethinking activities for learners of Korean. According to the interview data, the teachers insisted that they mainly focused on interactive tasks in class, getting students to communicate with each other in pairs or small groups. The students, however, argued that they often did grammar exercises in the textbook and rarely had communicative interaction with classmates in the classroom. A majority of the students of Korean, therefore, wished to have more communicative activities in class. This finding suggests that the paired or group work that the teachers consider they use may not involve an interactive activity, or may not be being used as much as teachers reported. In other words, students may simply practise grammar points in a small group, which is not a communicative approach, but rather "evident in the traditional approach to grammar teaching" (Ellis, 2001b, p. 14). The nature of communicative activities implies paying systematic attention to not only linguistic but also functional aspects of language in a situational and social context (Littlewood, 1981a, 1981b). There is, therefore, a need for teachers to provide interaction focusing on meaning-centred contexts in the Korean language acquisition programmes, not merely to get students together to practise grammatical points in the textbook (cf. Ellis, 2001b). It is here, perhaps, that teachers of Korean may wish to explore the interactional

merits of a task-based or task-supported approach to CLT, albeit one that is situated within a more traditional form-focused orientation to grammar instruction (Pedagogical Implication 5).

This study also suggests that teachers of Korean may need professional development to better understand and employ a variety of effective language teaching approaches. The teacher data indicated that a novice teacher had developed his/her pedagogical knowledge through experience and a colleague's suggestion that providing activities is more effective than teaching grammar in order for students to learn the language. This supports Watzke's (2007) assertion that new teachers could develop their pedagogical knowledge and strategies as they gain professional experience engaging with learners, build teacher-learner relationships, and reflect on teaching in response to contextual realities. Furthermore, it is important to note the following comment from another teacher that "because some teachers at our university, including me, are not trained in how to teach a language, there are some issues such as the teaching methods aren't good and students say that it isn't interesting to learn Korean." Thus, there is a need of professional development for the teachers of Korean. As Watzke (2007) notes, professional support and mentoring can help teachers improve their coping strategies, from traditional teaching methods to various approaches including contemporary pedagogy, which can lead them to becoming more confident in teaching the language. In other words, professional development that encourages teachers to explore both their own and other teaching approaches would be of benefit in strengthening current Korean programmes in New Zealand (Pedagogical Implication 6).

10.2.2. Motivational roles

Teachers' roles are not limited to teaching skills but there are also other roles that teachers should play as "powerful *motivational socialisers*" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 35, emphasis in original). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) noted that "teachers naturally act as key social figures who affect the motivational quality of the learning process in positive or negative ways" (p. 28). The findings of this study suggest the importance of teachers' motivational roles particularly in making classes enjoyable and creating a pleasant and supportive learning environment – another reason why teachers may wish to be open to a task-based approach in the New Zealand context. Savignon (2002) noted that task-

based curricula are “designed to provide learners with maximum opportunity to use language for a purpose” (p. 4).

Firstly, teachers should play a motivational role in making classes enjoyable. As mentioned earlier, the student data indicated that teachers utilised a traditional approach to teaching Korean, focusing on mainly completing exercises from the textbook and checking the answers, which many students found tedious. According to this investigation, it was clear that the students of Korean were motivated by their interest in Korean and/or improving ability in the language and they expected to be able to understand and speak the language at the completion of the course. Moreover, many students wanted more interaction in their courses, indicating that communicative activities make the class fun, interesting, and effective, and have a positive effect on motivating students to continue study. In other words, the students of Korean desire to be actively involved in learning. To make classes interesting, these findings suggest that the teachers should supply more interactive group work in classroom activities and vary the teaching materials, such as including the use of PowerPoint slides, pictures, handouts, and videos. Fink (2003) asserted that “redesigning the course to incorporate more active learning has the greatest potential not only to solve the student boredom problem but also to increase the quality of students learning” (p. 24), which leads to significant improvements in learning.

Furthermore, this research suggests that in order to make classes interesting, it is useful to make the teaching materials more relevant to learners’ interests and needs. The student data revealed that a majority of the students expressed a strong interest in Korean popular music, dramas, and movies. These cultural aspects were also the key motivating factors that most inspired students to take a Korean language acquisition course. The findings from the student and teacher interviews indicated that it would be useful to incorporate cultural aspects through audio-visual materials in the classroom and provide Korean-related social or cultural events in the form of extra-curricular activities. The teacher data revealed a positive indication that integrating cultural aspects through video clips helped the learners become more responsive and active in class. This finding is supported by Blaz’s (2006) assertion that “when teachers are able to make required content appeal to student interests, students are likely to respond with greater commitment, energy, and endurance” (p. 8). In other words, it would be

conducive to motivation to integrate into Korean programmes aspects of Korean popular culture that reflect students' interests inside and outside the classroom (cf. Blaz, 2006; Cheung, 2001) (Pedagogical Implication 7).

Secondly, teachers should endeavour to create a pleasant learning environment, which is a precondition to generating motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). This research revealed that the teacher's attitudes and behaviours closely related to a key motivational factor, which influences the learning atmosphere. In the interviews, for instance, students commented that if their teacher showed interest in each student (e.g., being willing to learn students' names and backgrounds) without giving preferential treatment to any specific individuals, students would become interested in the language and more ready for participation in class. This is because the teacher's interest in individual students is helpful to create a friendly learning atmosphere, in which the teacher is more approachable. This makes it more comfortable for students to ask questions and to use the language with less embarrassment about making mistakes. Another example is that if teachers are enthusiastic in what they are teaching, students will become interested in why the teachers like it and why they should learn it, and enjoy what they are doing (cf. Cheung, 2001). Therefore, teachers should bear in mind that the teacher's attitudes toward students and their enthusiasm for the subject they teach could affect students' motivation to learn (cf. Cheung, 2001; Dörnyei, 1998, 2001). In other words, teachers' positive and impartial attitudes towards students will enhance the learning environment and promote positive affective responses in students (Pedagogical Implication 8).

In particular, this research suggests that, in order to motivate students' active participation in interactive activities, teachers should note the size of the class. As previously indicated, communicative approaches may not be effective in a beginning foreign language course when the class is large because it is difficult for students to form good relationships with one another. The student data revealed that, in a large lecture-type class, teachers could not control and monitor all students, and it was not easy for students to initiate interaction with a person whom they did not know well (cf. Hiep, 2007). As T. Bell (2005) noted, "lecturing may be effective in a history course but not in a beginning foreign language course" (p. 259). Consequently, many students are merely sitting and talking with their friends during the activity times in lectures (cf. Moore, 2009). An essential condition for encouraging students to communicate with

others is facilitating a “psychologically safe classroom climate,” in which they feel that they belong to the class and are supported (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, pp. 110-111). The findings of this research therefore suggest that it is of importance to provide more small-sized classes or tutorial sessions from the very start of the first-year course. In a small class, it is much easier for the teacher to foster a close relationship with students and between the students themselves and generate a more pleasant atmosphere, and it is accordingly much easier for students to approach their teacher and ask questions, and to interact with other classmates (cf. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; L. Wilkinson & Olliver-Gray, 2006). In other words, large lecture-based courses limit opportunities for meaningful interaction and collaboration. Small classes provide a more conducive opportunity to focus on meaningful interaction and collaboration (Pedagogical Implication 9).

Finally, teachers should play a supportive role in the learning process. In particular, this study suggests that teachers need to provide students with appropriate support to prepare more adequately for tests and exams. The interview data gave an example of a student who, although he had prepared for listening tests thoroughly, found they were very difficult due to a lack of information about how best to listen, how much time to spend listening, and when to read and choose the answers. As a consequence, he could not properly complete the listening tests, received a poor grade, and was very disappointed, and he ultimately decided to discontinue his study of the Korean language. The interview responses revealed that students expected their teacher to present clear assessment objectives, explain the format of the tests/exams, and offer opportunities to practise forms of the tests/exams so that they could better understand what they were expected to know and could prepare for the assessments properly (cf. H. D. Brown, 2007). This finding suggests that unclear formats and lack of preparative practice for each assessment can lead to unsatisfactory test results and demotivate students’ learning (cf. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In other words, appropriate support and assistance for assessments can help students feel more motivated to study.

In addition, with regard to teachers’ supportive role in effective assessments, it should be noted that there is a discrepancy between teachers’ perspectives on their major teaching activities and assessments. As noted earlier, this research has revealed that the teachers valued the effectiveness of interaction and provided as many communicative

activities as they could in the classroom, whereas the assessments in the course were mainly focused on understanding grammatical aspects. In this light, Horwitz (2013) asserted that teachers should understand the “washback effect” (p. 116), which refers to the impact of tests on language teaching and learning: for instance, “teachers may tell students to use language communicatively and creatively, but if grades are based on grammatical accuracy, students quickly learn to spend their time studying grammar” (p. 217). Effective language assessments need to reflect what teachers expect students to know and be able to do with the language beyond the classroom (cf. Horwitz, 2013). Similarly, Fink (2003) suggested that when designing a course, teachers should ensure that the learning goals, the teaching and learning activities, and the feedback and assessment “are integrated, that is, that they reflect and support each other” (pp. 64-65). If teachers of Korean wish to develop their students’ speaking skills, they should allow the students to “see the connections between oral tests, the course curriculum, and their grades” (Horwitz, 2013, p. 183). Assessments need to mirror the communicative and interactive intentions of the learning programme (Pedagogical Implication 10).

10.2.3. Students’ roles

The findings of this investigation suggest that although students may rely on the teacher in various ways on their learning process, it is students who should assume personal responsibility for their learning. The Korean learners seemed to acknowledge the importance of their own contribution to the learning process for successful language acquisition (Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1999; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014). For rewarding consequences, this study suggests the following requirements on students both inside and outside the classroom: preparing for class beforehand; attending class; paying attention to the teacher; actively participating in classroom activities; and practising and revising after class what they have learned. In particular, the teacher participants stressed the importance of advance self-study, which could help students understand a teacher’s explanation easily and enjoy the lesson more, and help reduce the gaps in students’ language proficiency levels. The research findings further indicate that students should have the necessary qualities, such as having a desire to learn Korean, having a positive attitude toward learning the language, asking the teacher questions when necessary, and helping other students. In other words, a good deal of the ownership for motivation in the Korean classroom rests with the students.

Related to the extent to which the students of Korean have their own learning roles to play, the student data indicated that many students, particularly those with a higher level of language proficiency, were willing to accept personal responsibility for their study and most of the time fulfilled the roles they considered necessary for learning achievement. In contrast, the teacher data revealed that the teachers considered that a majority of the students did not study independently even when the teacher requested it. Some student responses also revealed that the students did not or could not conduct themselves as they should because they simply did not know what they were expected to do (cf. Richards & Gravatt, 1998). These findings suggest that some students are not ready for being self-directed learners and need the teacher's appropriate support. In other words, adequate scaffolding for learner autonomy is important.

In order to help students assume personal responsibility for taking the necessary initiative in learning, the teacher should find ways to develop students' capacity for autonomy. It is important that teachers should not provide all the aspects the students require, but instead guide them to make efforts to achieve successful outcomes (Carter, 2006; Horwitz, 1987; Richards & Rodgers, 2001, 2014; Sheerin, 1997). In other words, to ultimately become more self-directed learners, students need the teacher's guidance and support rather than having their learning directly controlled by their teachers (Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1995). Furthermore, if the teacher wishes to aim for active learning, teachers should provide students with more "doing" and "observing" experiences with realistic and meaningful tasks, allowing them to reflect what they are learning and how they are learning alongside or with others (Fink, 2003, p. 106).

In addition, this research has revealed general agreement among the teachers that it was difficult to remotivate those who have already lost their interest in study. In order to promote the students' learning behaviour, the teacher responses suggest that it might be helpful to use assessments as an incentive by awarding grades according to students' performance. It is doubtful, however, whether the teachers' direct control of the students' learning process will lead learners to becoming more self-directed, and this may not have an ongoing impact on the students' ultimate success in their learning in the long run (Carter, 2006; Cotterall, 1995). Thus, this study suggests that students should initiate taking responsibility for their study because "no matter how much energy and effort we expend, it is the learner who has to do the learning" (Nunan, 1995, p. 155),

while teachers need to give appropriate guidance and support in the learning process (Pedagogical Implication 11).

10.3. Limitations and directions for future research

In this mixed-methods study, quantitative and qualitative data were drawn from four different research methods (i.e., focus group interviews, a survey, individual interviews with students, and individual interviews with teachers). This was done to compensate for the weak points of each method of investigation and increase the reliability of the findings. The use of questionnaires, for example, may mean that superficial and simple information is obtained. Therefore, in order to gain better insight into students' beliefs, this study also involved in-depth individual interviews, which "would shed light on questionnaire responses" (T. Bell, 2005, p. 267).

There were, however, some limitations to the research project. Firstly, as there was only one Korean programme in New Zealand, this research encountered difficulties in recruiting sufficient student and teacher participants. Because the number of participants in this research was limited, generalisability of the findings was constrained. Due to the limited number of teachers, it was not possible to collect quantitative data from teacher participants. Similarly, because of the limited number of student participants in the questionnaire-based study, the findings cannot be generalized to cover all students of Korean. In future studies, quantitative research with more students is recommended for further exploration of this topic.

Furthermore, the findings of this research suggest that students' individual differences such as language proficiency levels, cultural background, and educational background may influence their preferences, expectations, and beliefs about effective language acquisition. The number of participants in each group, however, was not equal, and it was difficult to draw definitive conclusions about the impact of learner variables. There is a need for further clarification of the influence of students' individual differences.

Finally, it should be noted that the findings from this study are based on students' and teachers' subjective beliefs and perceptions about language learning and teaching and the participants may have been hesitant to express their true feelings. In this study it was apparent from a comparison of teacher and student data that the teachers did not always appear to do what they claimed to do (Nunan, 1988). Therefore, in order to provide

“first-hand, *eye-witness* accounts of what people say and do” (Sharp, 2009, p. 92, emphasis in original), classroom observation would be worthy of consideration. Such observations would include an additional data source that would add a further dimension to the self-report data.

10.4. Final remarks

This research project has aimed to discover ways in which tertiary Korean language programmes could better meet students’ learning needs in New Zealand. The findings have suggested that a majority of the students of Korean are preliminarily motivated by Korean popular culture and expect to be able to communicate with Korean people as a consequence of taking the course. The findings of this study will help teachers to make the best use of the learning needs and expectations that the students perceive when designing a Korean language acquisition course. Furthermore, this research has indicated noticeable discrepancies between students’ and teachers’ beliefs about learning and teaching Korean. In this light, the findings suggest several pedagogical implications, reflecting teachers’ and students’ roles for successful learning outcomes to develop the teaching of Korean as an L2 in New Zealand. The practical guidance in this research would also be useful in teaching Korean to students from non-Korean heritage backgrounds, particularly in cases where such students are the majority. Finally, as noted in the beginning of this thesis, because Korea and the Korean community have gradually become important for New Zealand economy and society, being able to speak Korean would be helpful for a future career, or for living together with Korean people inside and outside of New Zealand.

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Appendix A: Focus group interview PIS

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: Tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand: Do they meet students' needs?

To students

My name is Seunghye Lee and I am a graduate student at the University of Auckland undertaking a PhD in the Faculty of Education. I am conducting research about current teaching practices and students' needs in tertiary Korean language acquisition programmes.

Although many studies have pointed out the importance of taking students' needs into account when planning for language teaching, research in this field has been noticeably absent in tertiary Korean language teaching contexts. This research is a pilot study which aims to investigate the needs of learners of Korean and their reasons for studying Korean.

I would like to invite you to participate in a focus group interview. This research will consist of two focus groups with five to six students in each group. The focus group interviews will take up to one hour, and its proceedings will be tape-recorded. Your participation in one of the focus group is entirely voluntary, and you are under no obligation to participate in this research. This research is not intended as an evaluation of the course or the teacher, but rather as a way for me to understand your current thoughts about the teaching of Korean in general, and as a means of informing questions that I might ask other students in a follow-up study. Your relationship with me or with your fellow students or with the University will not be affected in any way by your choice to participate or not to participate.

The Head of Asian Studies and the course co-ordinator have given the researcher permission to conduct the focus group interviews. They have provided assurance that your participation or non-participation in the focus group interviews will not affect your grades for the course.

You can withdraw from involvement at any time before the interview starts. Also, should you wish to do so, you can leave quietly at any time during the focus group interview without having to provide an explanation. However, it would be difficult to withdraw information provided through comments once you have made them as the audio recording may not reliably distinguish between different students' comments. To show gratitude for participation, a \$10 voucher will be given to each participant after the focus group interview.

All efforts will be made to protect the confidentiality of any information you provide. Your identity will be known only to me and to other members of the focus group. No names will be mentioned in any reports on this research nor will any information you give be provided on an individual basis to anyone else. The findings from the focus group will be used to inform the development of rationales for and design of questionnaires to be administered to students and teachers in a later study.

A summary of the final report will be available to participants in this research on request. All data collected from this research will be kept for a period of 6 years and will be destroyed afterwards.

If you agree to participate in this research, please complete a Consent Form and return this to me.

Appendix

I greatly appreciate your cooperation and help in making this research possible. If you have any queries or wish to know more, please contact me by the e-mail or phone number given below or write to me at:

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For any queries regarding ethical concerns please contact you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373-7599 extn. 83711.

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 17 June 2009 for a period of 3 years, from 17 June 2009. Reference Number 2009/243.

Appendix B: Focus group interview consent form

STUDENT CONSENT FORM THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS

Project title: Tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand: Do they meet students' needs?
Name of Researcher: Seunghee Lee

I have read the Participant Information Sheet and have understood the nature of the research and the length of time involved: up to one hour. I have been given an explanation of this research project and the opportunity to ask questions.

- I agree to take part in this research.
- I understand that this research is not intended as an evaluation of the course or the teacher.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw participation at any time before the focus group interview starts.
- I understand that it would be difficult to withdraw information I have provided through comments once I have made them as the audio recording may not reliably distinguish between different students' comments.
- I understand that, should I wish to do so, I can leave quietly at any time during the focus group interview without having to provide an explanation.
- I understand that, whether or not I take part, my relationship with the tutor, other students, or the University will not be affected in any way.
- I understand that the Head of Asian Studies and the course co-ordinator have given their permission for the conduct of this study. I also understand that they have given reassurance that participation or non-participation in the focus group interviews will not affect students' grades.
- I understand that the focus group will be audio recorded.
- I agree to not disclose to others outside the focus group anything discussed in the focus group.
- I understand that data will be kept for 6 years, after which they will be destroyed.
- I wish / do not wish to receive the summary of findings.

Please tick if you wish and write down your email address below:

Name _____

Signature _____ Date _____

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 17 June 2009 for a period of 3 years, from 17 June 2009. Reference Number 2009/243.

Appendix C: Questionnaire PIS

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR STUDENT - QUESTIONNAIRE

Project Title: Tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand: How can they better meet students' needs?

Name of researcher: Seunghee Lee

My name is Seunghee Lee and I am a graduate student at the University of Auckland undertaking a PhD in the Faculty of Education. I am conducting research about ways in which tertiary Korean language programmes could better meet students' learning needs in New Zealand so that more students can take an interest in learning Korean and persist in it.

Many studies have pointed out the importance of taking students' learning needs into account when planning for language teaching, but research in this field has been noticeably absent in tertiary Korean language teaching contexts. This investigation is not intended as an evaluation of teachers or the course that they are currently teaching. Rather, it is intended for me to understand students' reasons for taking Korean and their needs and expectations in learning Korean effectively. I would like to invite you to participate in completing an anonymous questionnaire. You are being invited to participate in this research because you are currently taking a Korean language acquisition course.

The questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your completion of this questionnaire is entirely voluntary, and you are under no obligation to participate in this research. If you do not wish to take part, you are not required to complete the questionnaire. Completing the questionnaire will be taken as your consent to take part. Since the questionnaire is anonymous, it will not be possible to withdraw your data. Whether or not you take part, your relationship with the department, staff or grades will not be affected in any way. I have discussed and ensured the clear communication of these points with the Head of Asian Studies and the course coordinators. They have given me permission to administer the questionnaire. A box is provided at the classroom door for you to return your completed questionnaire in over the next three lectures or tutorials.

Because the questionnaire is anonymous, it will not be possible to identify you in any reports of the findings on this research. No information will be provided on an individual basis to anyone else. The data collected from this research will securely be stored in a locked cabinet in the University of Auckland for a period of 6 years. Paper-based data will be destroyed using a shredder.

If you agree to participate in this research, please complete the questionnaire, and return and place it in the clearly labeled drop box, which will be outside the door of the classroom.

You have also received a participant information sheet about a follow-up interview. Please read this to see if you would like to participate in a follow-up interview at a time that would suit you. If so, please indicate this by completing the interview forms which was handed to you with the questionnaire. The follow-up individual interviews with students will be conducted to obtain more detailed insights and information pertaining to the issues and considerations in the questionnaires. This is explained in the interview participant information sheet. A second clearly labeled drop box will be provided for the interview forms at the door of the lecture theatre. This box will be collected by someone other than myself. I will not have access to these

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forms until after your grades are locked down on CECIL at the completion of the course. In this way your anonymity of participation or non-participation is assured.

I greatly appreciate your cooperation and help in making this research possible. If you have any questions or wish to know more, please contact me by the e-mail address or phone number given below or write to me at:

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For any queries regarding ethical concerns please contact you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373-7599 extn. 83711.

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 14 APRIL FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS, FROM 14 APRIL 2010 REFERENCE NUMBER 2010/141.

Appendix D: Questionnaire

Questionnaire

Title: Tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand: How can they better meet students' needs?

The main aim of this research project is to explore what students need in and believe about learning Korean in order to discover ways in which tertiary Korean language programmes could better motivate students to learn and to persist in studying the language. Your responses to the questionnaire will be of valuable assistance to the researcher and much appreciated. Please read each item very carefully before you answer.

Section I: Learner background information

Please tick the box(es) that you feel is appropriate or write your answer in the space provided.

1. **Gender:** Male Female

2. **Age:** 17 – 20 21 – 24 25 – 28 over 29

3. **Ethnic group:**
 NZ European Maori Chinese Taiwanese
 Japanese Malaysian Indonesian Korean
 Other (Please specify): _____

4. **Length of New Zealand schooling:**
 Less than 1 year 2 – 5 years More than 5 years
 All schooling in New Zealand Recent Arrival/No schooling in New Zealand

5. **Korean language course you are currently taking:**
 Korean 110G Korean 110 Korean 111
 Korean 200 Korean 201 Korean 300 Korean 301

6. **Major(s):**
 Korean Japanese Chinese Asian Studies
 Accounting Economics Marketing Psychology
 Law Other (Please specify): _____

Section II: Preferences for teaching approaches and beliefs about learning Korean effectively

Preferences for grammar teaching, corrective feedback, and group work.

In this section, your preferences for teaching approaches are sought. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling a number between 1 (Strongly Disagree) and 5 (Strongly Agree).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I like to have opportunities to discover grammar rules on my own before being taught.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I like the teacher to explain grammar rules directly without the process of discovery on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I find it easier to learn grammar before I communicate using Korean.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I like learning grammar by seeing the explanation and doing practice exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I like learning grammar in the middle of speaking, writing, listening or reading activities.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I like the teacher to teach grammar by itself so that I can see exactly which grammar point I am studying.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I prefer lessons that focus on communication and teach grammar only when necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I prefer practising Korean in real-life situations to studying and practising grammar rules.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I like to have more formal study of grammar in my Korean course.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I like to have more paired or small group work activities to facilitate interaction between students in my Korean course.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I like the teacher to correct my errors as soon as I make them.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I like the teacher to correct my errors after an activity is completed.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I like the teacher to explicitly draw my attention to my errors.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I like the teacher to correct my mistakes implicitly (e.g., recasting or repeating the errors).	1	2	3	4	5
15. I prefer to be corrected in small group work rather than in front of the entire class.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Every time when I make errors in speaking Korean, I like the teacher to correct them.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Every time when I make errors in writing Korean, I like the teacher to correct them.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I dislike it when I am corrected in class.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I like doing classroom activities in a pair.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I like doing classroom activities in a small group.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I like doing classroom activities in the whole class.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I like doing classroom activities on my own.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix

Beliefs about learning Korean effectively

This section seeks your beliefs about learning Korean effectively in terms of the teachers' and students' roles. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling a number between 1 (Strongly Disagree) and 5 (Strongly Agree).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
23. I believe the teacher should set my learning goals.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I believe the teacher should tell me what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I believe the teacher should create an interesting and friendly learning environment.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I believe the teacher should use Korean as much as possible in class.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I believe the teacher should offer help to me when I need it.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I believe the teacher should explain teaching points clearly.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I believe the teacher should provide opportunities to use Korean.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I believe the teacher should know various teaching methods and use them effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I have a clear idea of what I need Korean for.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I believe I should set my own learning goals to learn Korean successfully.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I know what activities to undertake outside the classroom to learn Korean successfully.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I know how to plan my schedule for study to learn Korean successfully.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I believe I should find my own ways of practising Korean to learn it successfully.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I know how to evaluate my own learning and progress to learn Korean successfully.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I believe I should ask for help when I need it to learn Korean successfully.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I can learn more Korean through independent study than through attending classes.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I believe my success in learning Korean depends on what the teacher does in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I believe my success in learning Korean depends on what I do in and outside the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5

Section III: Reasons and expectations for taking Korean

This section asks about your reasons and expectations for taking Korean and continuation or discontinuation of studying the language next semester. Whether you decide to take another Korean course in a higher level or not will not affect your current study in any ways, so please be honest in writing your choice and the reasons.

1. Why are you taking this Korean course? Give your reason(s).

2. What do you expect to be able to do as a consequence of studying Korean at university?

3. Are you planning to take another Korean course? Why/Why not? Give your reason(s).

Section IV: Further comments or suggestions to make the Korean course more helpful and effective to your learning

Please feel free to write any thoughts and opinions that you want to share.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Appendix E: Interview with students PIS

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR STUDENT - INTERVIEW

Project Title: Tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand: How can they better meet students' needs?

Name of researcher: Seunghee Lee

My name is Seunghee Lee and I am a graduate student at the University of Auckland undertaking a PhD in the Faculty of Education. I am conducting research about ways in which tertiary Korean language programmes could better meet students' learning needs in New Zealand so that more students can take an interest in learning Korean and persist in it.

Many studies have pointed out the importance of taking students' learning needs into account when planning for language teaching, but research in this field has been noticeably absent in tertiary Korean language teaching contexts. This research is not intended as an evaluation of teachers or the course that they are currently teaching. Rather, it aims to obtain more detailed views pertaining to issues and considerations that the students may not have been able to fully explain in the questionnaire that was previously administered.

I would like to invite you to participate in an individual interview. If you are willing to be interviewed, please complete the two interview forms: 1) the background information form and 2) the consent form. The background information form will be used to select 15 students with a range of variables such as language proficiency levels and educational backgrounds. A second clearly labeled drop box will be provided for the interview forms at the door of the lecture theatre. This box will be collected by someone other than myself. I will not have access to these forms until after your grades are locked down on CECIL at the completion of the course. In this way your anonymity of participation or non-participation is assured. The interviews will be conducted to obtain more detailed views about the issues and considerations that you may not have been able to fully explain in the questionnaire. The interviews will be conducted at a time of your choosing after the course is completed and grades are locked down on CECIL.

Each person will be interviewed in a small seminar room for not more than 30 minutes, and its proceedings will be audio recorded. The recording is necessary so that I can refer back to the discussion when I write a report. Your participation in the interview is entirely voluntary, and you are under no obligation to participate in this research. Whether or not you take part, your relationship with the department, staff or grades will not be affected in any way. I have discussed and ensured the clear communication of these points with the Head of Asian Studies and the course coordinators. They have given me permission to conduct the interviews.

You can withdraw at any time before or during the interview. You can also take back your data within one week after the interview without having to provide an explanation if you wish to. All efforts will be made to protect the confidentiality of any data you provide through the interview. Your identity will be known only to me. No names will be mentioned in any reports on this research nor will your information be provided on an individual basis to anyone else. A summary of the final report will be available to participants in this research on request.

I will transcribe the recordings and store all data collected from this research securely in locked cabinets in the University of Auckland for a period of 6 years. The digital voice recordings will be kept separately from the transcripts and other identifying materials. Paper-based data will be destroyed using a shredder while digital voice recordings will be deleted permanently afterward.

Appendix

If you agree to participate in this research, please complete and return the attached forms. To show gratitude for participation, a \$10 book voucher will be given to each participant after the interview, irrespective of whether or not they withdraw during the research.

I greatly appreciate your cooperation and help in making this research possible. If you have any questions or wish to know more, please contact me by the e-mail address or phone number given below or write to me at:

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Head of School:

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For any queries regarding ethical concerns please contact you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373-7599 extn. 83711.

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 14 APRIL FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS, FROM 14 APRIL 2010 REFERENCE NUMBER 2010/141.

Appendix F: Interview with students consent form

CONSENT FORM FROM STUDENT - INTERVIEW

THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS

Project title: Tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand: How can they better meet students' needs?

Name of Researcher: Seunghee Lee

I have read the Participant Information Sheet and have understood the nature of the research and the length of time involved: up to 30 minutes. I have been given an explanation of this research project and the opportunity to ask questions.

- I agree to take part in this research.
- I understand that this research is not intended as an evaluation of the course or the teacher.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw participation at any time before or during the interview.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw information I have provided within one week after the interview.
- I understand that the Head of Asian Studies and the course coordinator have given their permission for the conduct of this study.
- I understand that the Head of Asian Studies and the course coordinator have given their assurance that, whether or not I take part, my relationship with the department, staff or grades will not be affected in any way.
- I understand that the interview will be audio recorded and the recordings will be transcribed by the researcher.
- I understand that all efforts will be made to protect the confidentiality of any data I provide through the interview.
- I understand that no names will be mentioned in any reports of the findings on this research nor will any information be provided on an individual basis to anyone else.
- I understand that all data will be kept securely in locked cabinets in the University of Auckland for 6 years. The digital voice recordings will be stored separately from the transcripts and other identifying materials.
- I understand that paper-based data will be destroyed using a shredder and digital voice recordings will be deleted permanently afterward.
- I wish / do not wish to receive the summary of findings.

Please tick if you wish and write down your email address below:

Name _____

Signature _____

Date _____

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Appendix G: Interview with teachers PIS

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR TEACHER

Project Title: Tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand: How can they better meet students' needs?

Name of researcher: Seunghee Lee

My name is Seunghee Lee and I am a graduate student at the University of Auckland undertaking a PhD in the Faculty of Education. I am conducting research about ways in which tertiary Korean language programmes could better meet students' learning needs in New Zealand so that more students can take an interest in learning Korean and persist in it.

Many studies have pointed out the importance of taking students' learning needs into account when planning for language teaching, but research in this field has been noticeably absent in tertiary Korean language teaching contexts. The main aim of this research is to examine teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching Korean effectively in the New Zealand tertiary education context. This research is not intended as an evaluation of teachers or the course that they are currently teaching, but as a way for me to better understand teachers' perspectives about the successful teaching of Korean and students' responsibilities for learning Korean effectively. Please refer to the interview questions enclosed.

I would like to invite you to participate in an individual semi-structured interview. The interviews will take up to one hour, and its proceedings will be audio recorded. The recording is necessary so that I could refer back to the discussion when I write a report. They will be conducted in Korean and the recorded data will be transcribed and translated to English by myself later. The Head of Asian Studies and the course coordinator have given the researcher permission to conduct the interviews. They have given assurance that your participation or non-participation will not affect your employment status. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and you are under no obligation to participate in this research. You may withdraw at any time before or during the interview. You may also take back your information within one week after the interview without having to provide an explanation.

Because of the limited numbers of teachers, there might be a risk that, to some extent, anonymity cannot be fully assured. However, I will always mention teacher participants as a group, focusing on what was found (not on who mentioned what), in any reports on this research. No names will be mentioned in any reports of the findings on this research nor will your information be provided on an individual basis to anyone else. All efforts will be made to protect the confidentiality of any data you provide through the interview.

When I write the report about the teacher interviews for my thesis, I will give you a draft to check – and the opportunity to tell me if there are any points you wish to clarify, correct or exclude. A summary of the final report will be available to participants in this research on request.

All data collected from this research will securely be stored in locked cabinets in the University of Auckland for a period of 6 years. The digital voice recordings will be kept separately from the transcripts and other identifying materials. Paper-based data will be destroyed using a shredder while digital voice recordings will be deleted permanently afterward.

Appendix

If you agree to participate in this research, please complete a Consent Form and return this to me.

I greatly appreciate your cooperation and help in making this research possible. If you have any questions or wish to know more, please contact me by the e-mail address or phone number given below or write to me at:

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For any queries regarding ethical concerns please contact you may contact:

The Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373-7599 extn. 83711.

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Appendix H: Interview with teachers consent form

CONSENT FORM FROM TEACHER

THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS

Project title: Tertiary Korean language programmes in New Zealand: How can they better meet students' needs?

Name of Researcher: Seunghee Lee

I have read the Participant Information Sheet and have understood the nature of the research and the length of time involved: up to one hour. I have been given an explanation of this research project and the opportunity to ask questions.

- I agree to take part in this research.
- I understand that this research is not intended as an evaluation of the course or the teacher.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw participation at any time before or during the interview.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw information I have provided within one week after the interview.
- I understand that the Head of Asian Studies and the course coordinator have given their permission for the conduct of this study.
- I understand that the Head of Asian Studies and the course coordinator have given their assurance that participation or non-participation will not affect my employment status.
- I understand that the interview session will be audio recorded.
- I understand that the interview will be conducted in Korean and the recorded data will be transcribed and translated to English by the researcher later.
- I understand that because of the limited numbers of teachers, there might be a risk that, to some extent, anonymity cannot be fully assured. However, all efforts will be made to protect the confidentiality of any data I provide through the interview, and the participants will always be mentioned as a group.
- I understand that I will be given drafts of the reports on the interview and will have an opportunity to correct, clarify or withdraw any points that I may subsequently not be comfortable to include.
- All data collected from this research will securely be stored in locked cabinets in the University of Auckland for a period of 6 years. The digital voice recordings will be kept separately from the transcripts and other identifying materials. Paper-based data will be destroyed using a shredder while digital voice recordings will be deleted permanently afterward.
- I wish / do not wish to receive the summary of findings.

Please tick if you wish and write down your email address below:

Name _____

Signature _____

Date _____

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ON 14 APRIL FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS, FROM 14 APRIL 2010 REFERENCE NUMBER 2010/141.

Appendix I: Teacher member checking information sheet

MEMBER CHECKING INFORMATION SHEET

First, thank you very much for your participation in the teacher interview. I deeply appreciate your cooperation and assistance in making this research possible. Your opinions and comments throughout the interview were very helpful in allowing me to obtain a better understanding of teachers' perspectives on teaching Korean effectively and practically in the New Zealand educational context.

I would now like to give you an opportunity to check a draft of what I have written, and to tell me whether you think I have portrayed your views correctly. At this stage, the important thing is to tell me whether I have accurately portrayed what you said in the interview.

In order to protect the confidentiality of the data you provided in the interview, in the report I have always referred to the teacher participants as a group, focusing on what I found (not on who said what). In the attached writing, I have only selected your comments, separating them from those of the other teacher participants. Please check what you said and how I have understood what you said, following this procedure:

1. Read through your quotes and my portrayal of what you said in the report draft.
2. If you think that I have inaccurately portrayed what you meant to say, please indicate it on the page using the "Track Changes" function in Word. Please make sure to clarify the points that you think I have inaccurately portrayed, along with an explanation of what you meant to say.
3. If you generally regard my portrayal of what you said as appropriate and do not want me to consider changing anything, there is no need for you to make any comment.

If you wish, you may ask me to send you your audio-recorded file and its transcript. If you have any questions, please contact me at the e-mail address or phone number given below:

Seunghee Lee
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The University of Auckland
Tel: 09 373-7599 extn. 87530
E-mail: imblisslee@hotmail.com

As I will need to submit work relating to this material to my supervisors in the near future, I would very much appreciate it if you could get back to me by **18 July**. After that time, it may become difficult for me to make further changes to the information I report about the teacher interview as other matters I write about in the thesis will depend on it.