# EFL in Korea:

# The teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in the context of South Korean culture.

**Thesis submitted by**
**Jae Guk Cha**

**For the degree of**
**Doctor of Philosophy**

**Department of Education**
**University of Stirling**

**1998**

# ABSTRACT

The objective of the present research is to explore the present state of EFL (English as a foreign language) in Korean culture which is assumed to be different from that of English speaking countries, and to investigate learners' attitudes toward needs and motivation for the English language. Since it seems to be recognised that language and culture are inseparable, EFL in the Korean cultural context might reflect its own typical aspects.

Chapter 1 deals with problems in EFL in Korea, and the relationship between foreign language acquisition and cultural background. The meaning of culture and its importance in a foreign language learning and teaching is elaborated.

Chapter 2 reflects the characteristics of Korean culture, with an account of her history, education system and national policy of EFL. Current implementation of English language teaching at Korean universities, with its developmental history, is presented with evidences obtained from previous research.

Chapter 3 reviews the theoretical literature on needs, attitudes, interest, anxiety and motivation in foreign/second language learning, since they are recognised as central to foreign language acquisition. Research studies on these variables are introduced, compared with each other and critically discussed.

In Chapter 4, research questions and hypotheses are drawn, based on the theoretical framework reviewed in Chapter 3. The research design (sampling, methods of and procedures for data-collection) is elaborated.

Chapter 5 begins with a description of data- interpretation methods employed in the study. Data obtained from these instruments were statistically analysed through a computer programme 'SPSS'. The findings of the research are presented, followed by a discussion of the results.

In Chapter 6, more detailed profiles of analysis than those given in Chapter 5 are presented. Particularly, item-by-item comparison is made between the college students' and graduates' questionnaires.

Chapter 7, as a closing chapter of the present research, reviews the foregoing chapters and derives conclusions, suggesting implications for further research. Key implications arising from the research are: priority for teaching EFL from intercultural perspectives, and (so far as learners are concerned) to tolerating the new approaches to teaching that are required.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am also very grateful to the professors, instructors and lectures in the English departments and their students at those universities in Pusan City who were willing to cooperate with me in the collection of the data.

A special expression gratitude should be accorded to my father-in-law, Rev. Shin Myung-Gu, and my mother-in-law, for their persistent encouragement and prayers for my study.

My beloved wife, Sue, and two daughters, Gowun (June in English name) and Eun (Grace), deserve my special love and thanks, in return for their loving care, understanding and endurance shown to me during my absence from home for many years.

My mother, who has been living in my hometown alone without her husband who was killed during the Korean War 47 years ago when she was 26 years old, is my pride without whom I cannot imagine my present life.

My heartfelt thanks, love and all the glory turn to our Lord Jesus Christ who is the Way, the Truth and the Life.


Jae-Guk Cha

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# ACRONYMS

The following acronyms are used in the text:

| | |
|---|---|
| CNP | Communication Needs Processor |
| DA | Deficiency Analysis |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| ELL | English Language Learning |
| ESP | English for Specific Purposes |
| FL | Foreign Language |
| FLL | Foreign Language Learning |
| FLT | Foreign Language Teaching |
| KCU | Kosin Christian University |
| KEDI | Korean Educational Development Institute |
| L1 | First Language |
| L2 | Second Language |
| TEFL | Teaching English as a Foreign Language |
| TESP | Teaching English for Specific Purposes |
| TOEFL | Test of English as a Foreign Language |
| TSA | Target Situation Analysis |
| PUFS | Pusan University of Foreign Studies |

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 The problem(s) to be investigated

Approaches to the teaching and learning of a foreign language cannot be understood without reference to at least two cultures: the culture(s) in which those learning the foreign language grow up and are educated, and the culture(s) in which the foreign language is spoken by its native speakers. Both of these cultures will exercise some influence on the attitudes, needs and motivations that the learners experience in relation to learning and using the foreign language.

The approaches by which the foreign/second language is acquired, and the attitudes, motivation and needs of the learners, are likely to vary from culture to culture. Therefore, it will be worthwhile to inquire into learners' needs, motivation and attitudes towards learning a foreign or second language ('English' in the present study), and how the language is learned at several levels in the cultural context of Korean society.

Korea is a country where English for many years had been taught as a foreign language from secondary school level (ages 14-19). In 1996, English was introduced as a compulsory subject to the curriculum of the 3rd grade pupils (age 10) at primary level (ages 8-13). The Ministry of Education decided to implement this new policy of early education in English, based on two principal assumptions: (a) that children are better language learners than adolescents, and (b) that the primary school is now less dominated by the washback effect of the college entrance examination than it was in the past (KEDI, 1994).

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Before the learners reach their tertiary schools (aged 20-23), they are offered English as a compulsory and core subject, especially for admission to higher educational institutes (colleges and universities or junior colleges) at age 20. Teaching approaches applied to English Language Teaching (ELT) particularly in secondary schools are largely dependent upon instructor-centred written English via the so-called grammar-translation method. On the one hand, the policy of ELT determined by the Ministry of Education and its implementation in each school tends to neglect the particular needs of the learners and is exclusively aimed at the entrance-examination to Korean universities and junior colleges. On the other hand, the importance of proficiency in English for the more practical purposes of future career and promotion in Korean society is strongly emphasised by teachers at the learners' schools.

Therefore, it seems likely that many learners assume English to be an essential academic subject for elites and to play a more important and crucial role in their success in society than their own major subject, whatever that may be. ELT at Korean universities and junior colleges is not compulsory in every institution of higher education. However, the great majority of colleges and universities require students to undertake more than two semesters of English, usually in the first year, while some universities make four semesters of English compulsory.

Korean universities and junior colleges are the most appropriate places for learners of English to acquire the knowledge and to achieve the level needed for their ambitions. Not all Korean universities and junior colleges would, however, adjust their programmes to cope with learners' changing needs. Korean universities and junior colleges, unlike the secondary schools where the teachers choose one or two among eight different kinds of fixed textbooks, are free to choose their own teaching materials and syllabuses, many textbooks being compiled by the teaching staff and published by the universities themselves. Quite a few American and British books are being utilised with audio-visual tapes and aids.

The teaching method most popularly adopted by ELT instructors at Korean tertiary schools is based on textbooks consisting of a selection of American and British literary extracts, and lessons tend to be text-book based, including translation, with explanation of difficult vocabulary and

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cultural points. Not much attempt is made to relate language classes to the learner's needs or major

subjects. In other words, institutions, (with some exceptions that specialise in science, technology,

theology or maritime subjects) do not vary much in their ELT syllabuses.

The Korean Educational Development Institute, in their Regular Research Report 86-5,

(KEDI 1986) point out some problems of the present state of ELT in Korea in four different aspects: 1)

teaching objectives, 2) opportunity, 3) environment, 4) assessment of ELT.

> Of the objectives of foreign language teaching, more emphasis should be put on
> improving the communicative skills of learners. The curriculum should be changed for
> the students to begin English from primary school. There are very few opportunities
> for the college student to keep on learning the English they learned at secondary school.
> The quality of foreign language teachers should be upgraded and improved. Teaching
> facilities for foreign language education should be furnished enough in each school to
> be available for the teacher and student to use in teaching and learning. (KEDI, 1986:
> 154-55).

A comparative survey was conducted by one of Korea's biggest broadcasting companies, MBC

TV (Munhwa Broadcasting Centre), in order to estimate the level of Korean students' English by TOEFL

(Test Of English as a Foreign Language) scores. The low level of Korean students' 'TOEFL' scores was

found and broadcast on MBC TV in October 1994. The statistics computed by 'TOEFL' scores show

that Korean students rank far below the average for the world. Among the four skills (that is, 'structure

(grammar)', 'vocabulary', 'reading comprehension' and 'listening comprehension'), the lowest score that

Korean students obtain is in 'listening comprehension', and the highest is in 'structure', an indication

probably of the teaching methods to which they were accustomed.

A survey of English Language Teaching and Learning in Korea conducted by the British

Council (1989) indicates:

> Motivation is low and attitudes to language acquisition become more negative as the
> students progress through the programme. Korean pupils are more and more bored
> with English, treating it as another ordinary school subject to be passed as a
> requirement for graduation. English is taught as a `content' subject rather than a skill,
> because the programme rewards test-taking ability only (British Council, 1989:10).

In 1992, the British Council made their second contribution to the progress of Korean ELT by joining a research team of the Ministry of Education. As British specialists, they presented their view of the real state of Korean ELT. This research has the great merit of being based on collaboration between foreign and domestic experts on foreign-language teaching and represents a linking of the two cultures indicated in the first paragraph of the present chapter.

While they find many positive features about Korean schools, the serious problems concerning ELT taking place in Korean secondary schools they pinpointed are that the average level of proficiency of the English teachers is low as far as oral expression and aural comprehension are concerned, and the average teacher seems to have a very limited repertoire of teaching techniques. In addition, the teachers are still using a grammar-translation approach which was not considered to be a suitable approach for a mass education system in the 21st century. The lessons were offered through the medium of Korean. The materials in use also did not help, because they lacked variety, pace and activities, and were not authentic.

The seriousness of the problems that Korean ELT faces in its very essence may be encapsulated in the following quotation by the researchers from the British Council:

> Modern Korea cannot afford to continue wasting its resources on providing thousands of hours of teaching for Korean children with so little result. An outsider is struck immediately on arrival in Korea by the enormous demand for English. If Korea's economy and place in the world is to continue to grow it needs to have people proficient in the use of foreign languages. A mass system of education where all students have to learn the language is unlikely to be the only means of meeting this need, but the present system of English language teaching will never achieve this goal. The Ministry of Education has decided that it is time for radical reform and we completely support this view. It has set in motion a series of reforms to be implemented during the next three years, the purpose of which will be to transform English language teaching in Korea and make the system deliver what the Korean people and government believe is necessary, namely, an ever-increasing number of people capable of operating in English in commerce, business, research and education. (British Council, 1992: 56).

The above-mentioned researchers also indicate that the government is on the way to introduce a new University Entrance Examination which will include a listening component with a weighing of 15% of the total mark, but still without including a test of speaking competence.

According to their report, major areas for reform in Korean ELT policy are in assessment, curriculum ('the Six Curriculum Reform is a major advance on its predecessors'), compilation of textbooks & materials and teaching methodology.

Since 1982, when the Korean Government opened the door to study abroad, Korean university students who seek to further their studies at more academically advanced institutions, especially in English-speaking countries, are highly preoccupied with studying English. On the other hand, the social context in Korea, which has been challenged by rapid Westernisation or internationalisation in the fields of business (including trade), industry, technology and education, demands staff resources with a high proficiency level of English. Therefore, the variety and the range of English that students need would be likely to be greater than their instructors or institutions might expect or be able to provide.

However, even though the Ministry of Education introduced a major reform of ELT in Korea some time ago, as described above, the satisfaction of the individual student's needs on whose foundation ELT objectives and curriculum are established is likely to be in considerable doubt. This in turn has implications for their needs, attitudes, motivation and interests in relation to ELT.

Thus far, very few Korean scholars have undertaken research in the field of ELT, and only a small corpus of research-based information is available that would provide a background for further research. Accordingly, the present research is intended to be viewed as preliminary, as something that might stimulate further research and development in ELT within the Korean context.

## 1.2     Foreign language acquisition and cultural background

Human beings are raised in their particular society, succeeding to its particular culture, immediately after being born into it. Since this process takes place almost unconsciously, it may be considered as a common experience for everybody, and so one may come to feel a sense of strong contradiction as soon as one is placed in a different or more heterogeneous society. This contradiction has its origin in differences of cultural characteristics from one society or community to another.

A culture has its outer signs, e.g., its art and architecture, its music and literature, its folk-traditions and icons, its religious, social and business practices, its political institutions and its educational system. These reflect an inner life in the form of attitudes, beliefs, tastes, styles, myths and values that shape national and local group and individual identity. In other words, culture includes the material and non-material aspects of a way of life which are shared and transmitted among members of a certain society or community. All of these material and non-material aspects are learned and acquired by individuals through their participation in a particular society or community.

From the early years of one's childhood, many of the patterns of later life begin to be established over a long period. As children grow older they learn anew and modify their habits, values, beliefs, concepts, but, until they make contact with another culture, these intangible elements function consciously or subconsciously within their inner self.

Culture is also defined as an `overall phenomenon or system of meanings within which sub-systems of social structure, technology, art and so on exist and interconnect.' (Byram 1989:80).

Apart from material elements such as food, clothing, housing, vehicles, the non-material elements form so much a part of people's lives that they are scarcely aware of them unless they are actually exposed to a different culture (Park 1993:30).

Among the non-material elements that add to the uniqueness of culture, language is of particular significance. Language within a certain culture is so important that the vocabulary of a language has been called an index of its culture (Swadesh, 1972).

Reynolds & Flagg (1977) emphasise the close relationship between culture and language. Three elements of which culture consists are symbolic forms (gesture and mime), conventions of usage (developed through interaction within social groups) and systems of beliefs, values and action (or, the semiotic approach to culture).

A culture and its languages are as inseparable as brain and body; while one is a part of the other, neither can function without the other. Since language is inseparable from culture and intrinsically

contained within culture, learners who learn about language learn about culture; and those who learn to use a new language learn to communicate with other people from a different culture. Languages are complicated organs of culture and embody the quickest and the most efficient means of communicating within their respective cultures. Byram (1989) derives the following proposition from this theory: 'To learn a foreign language is to learn another culture.' Language-learning is therefore regarded as culture-learning and language teaching as culture-teaching.

It is evident then that a language is an important phenomenon of culture in general; a language in a society is not just a medium of communication, but also a basis which influences the ideas of the linguistic social group, interpreting, analysing and classifying human experiences. Byram (1989) regards the relationship between language and culture as a complicated matter which has psychological, sociological and political dimensions. His remark implies that the deeper the difference between two cultures is, the more the barrier of linguistic communication is increased. Park (1993) expresses views on culture and language similar to those of Byram by arguing that these two aspects are so closely intermingled that they are usually inseparable in most cases. There is an intimate and inevitable relationship between the language in a certain culture and the modes in which the people living in that culture think and act. This is another way of saying that the very way we organize our lives is part of a network of communication and that those who would function within a society or culture other than their own must learn its cultural as well as its linguistic codes.

The definitions of culture, as it relates to the processes of teaching and learning of foreign languages in schools, according to Byram (1989:58), include knowledge of the country (German meaning of `Landeskunde'), the way of life and institutions of a particular country (French meaning of `civilisation'), and learning about customs and behaviours largely associated with language learning, thus concentrating on daily life (American meaning), and knowledge which supplements language learning, largely concentrated on information about customs and daily life with some reference to social institutions (British meaning).

Schumann (1975) enumerates several important factors influencing second language learning, such as method of instruction, age, aptitude, attitudes, motivation and empathy. Schumann also enumerates several impediments affecting second language learning, such as cultural alienation, also observed by Larsen and Smalley (1972), language shock, culture shock and culture stress. From this, it would follow that language learning should be accompanied by a process of acculturation which is 'the gradual adaptation to the target culture without necessarily forsaking one's native language identity'. (Acton 1986:20). In addition to acculturation, two additional strategies may be mentioned which second language learners might adopt: assimilation and preservation. Schumann (1976) maintains that in the strategy of assimilation, learners of a second language give up their own cultural patterns including life-style and values, and adopt those of the target language community. Preservation, on the other hand, means here to completely reject the target culture. In the strategy of acculturation, which falls between these two, learners adapt to the life-style and values of the target language group, but at the same time maintain their own cultural patterns for use in intragroup relations. Assimilation is therefore defined as forsaking the learner's own culture and adopting a target culture. Schumann maintains:

> Assimilation fosters minimal social distance and preservation causes it to be maximal. Hence, second language learning is enhanced by assimilation and hindered by preservation. Acculturation falls in the middle." (Schumann, 1976:137).

Misunderstanding and culture-shock result largely from the different modes of thought and cultural patterns between the two countries rather than from the linguistic incompetence of the user of the language. Therefore, a person exposed to a foreign culture is regularly confronted by cultural pitfalls in both verbal and nonverbal communication (Park, 1993:28-29). To limit our discussion of culture to the domain of foreign-language teaching, the influence of a very different cultural background upon foreign-language teaching can be colossal, for the difference between two cultures can cause serious misunderstanding of the one by the other.

Since each human language has its own unique relationship to the culture(s) it expresses, translation from one language to another often becomes problematical, and inter-cultural opacity can result. A person either exposed to British culture or to Korean culture, for example, can possibly be confronted by cultural opacities at all levels - within a phrase, within a sentence and even down to individual words and also within a gesture. For example, 'to be in' or 'to take the chair' in English does not bear the same meaning in Korean.

The Korean language has such distinctive semantic differences from English that one can not hope to reproduce the semantics of the original Korean in English, using the same number of words and sentences and always expressing the same Korean word by the same English word. This disharmony between two different languages from two different cultures comes from intrinsic differences in the cultural background of each language, but also in their basic structure. Semantic differences between English and Korean mainly arise from differences between the two cultures. For example, in English idiomatic or colloquial expressions there are various phrases and sentences concerning 'butter' or 'cheese', for example, 'to butter somebody up' which means 'to flatter'. On the contrary, in Korean, it is quite easy to find phrases and sentences or even jokes concerning 'kimchee', a traditional Korean food. In any transfer there is an inevitable modification in the meaning and consequently some degree of distortion and loss (Park, 1993:23-24). Thus, to teach a foreign language is to introduce learners to different meaning systems and their associated symbols, to provide them with the opportunity to acquire new competence and to allow them to reflect upon their own culture and cultural competence.

The assumption explicated thus far in this chapter that learning and teaching of a foreign language necessarily imply acquiring and understanding aspects of its associated cultures has been further reinforced by recent emphasis on communicative competence as a broader concept than grammatical competence in foreign-language teaching. To be more specific, the main components of communicative competence as established by Canale (1983) include four areas of knowledge and skill which he terms lexical-grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic

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competence. Lexical-grammatical competence pertains to the language code, and the knowledge and skill to understand and produce the accurate meaning of utterances. Sociolinguistic competence comprises sociocultural conventions of use which `addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts, depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or convention' (Canale, 1983:7). Discourse competence is concerned with how to associate grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres. Strategic competence denotes mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies.

In other words, these four components of communicative competence, as mentioned above, suggest how inseparable communication is from cultural knowledge and understanding. This applies at the level of the capacity to understand and express the cultural meanings of individual words or phrases (lexical-grammatical competence), the capacity to decide whether particular functions of language (e.g., apologising, offering, praising) are appropriate at particular contexts in a given culture, and if so, how these functions should be expressed in culturally appropriate ways (sociolinguistic competence), the capacity to understand and produce text (written or spoken) that is appropriate within particular cultures, e.g., a business letter or an act of persuasion in Korean have a different discourse structure from their counterparts in English (discourse competence), and the capacity to cope with or repair breakdowns in communication arising from the inevitable and often unpredictable dissonances that learners experience in the process of foreign-language acculturation (strategic competence). Byram (1989) claims that this recent development is therefore a renewal and extension of the auxiliary, pragmatic function of cultural studies.

The above discussion of culture and communication poses major problems for learners of EFL in Korea. It is not just a question of learning the universal 'dictionary' meanings of English words and the basic grammar of English, but it is also a question of developing the four above-mentioned components of communicative competence, all of which have been shown in this first chapter to be culturally sensitive.

Even in this brief first chapter the present researcher has provided some indications of how different

Korean and English-speaking cultures are, but in the next chapter the present researcher will develop this

aspect further through discussion and analysis of Korean culture, particularly as it affects the educational

system.

# CHAPTER TWO

# ENGLISH LANGUAGE
# TEACHING AND LEARNING
# IN THE CULTURAL
# CONTEXT OF KOREA

## 2.1    Introduction

The present chapter provides an account of the following aspects: the history, culture and

education system of South Korea that may be considered to set the context for the teaching and learning

English as a foreign language. To begin with, the process of Korean modernisation is described, because

this period was a turning point for that hitherto veiled country, allowing it to be exposed to the rest of the

world. A more active exchange of culture with neighbouring countries, especially China and Japan,

began, and the doors to trade with Western countries began to open. As a consequence, increased needs

for learning foreign languages have emerged.

Secondly, the introduction of Christianity to Korea has also played its part in the awakening of

need for foreign-language education.

Thirdly, a discussion of Korean culture and its influence on the education system is unavoidable,

because they are closely related to the teaching English in the country.

In addition to the specific references that are mentioned in the ensuing pages, the present chapter

draws also on a number of general accounts of Korean history and on more specific accounts of particular

periods or events, e.g. Sohn et al (1971), Choy (1971), McCrane (1973), Chon (1974), Kim (1977), Choi

(1978), Lee (1981) and Covell (1981). For present purposes it is not intended to present a critical

analysis of Korean history but rather to tell its story, based on these key and influential historical

accounts, and thereby to help the reader gain insight into how Koreans understand their past.

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## 2.2    The opening and modernisation of Korea

Korea had been known as 'a hermit land' or 'the land of morning calm' (Ham, 1952; Han, 1970) by other countries before 1876 when the then-Government opened her door to foreign countries through the Kangwhado Treaty with Japan, because it was secluded from the rest of the world except China and Japan. Korea is a peninsular country located in the farthest eastern part of mainland Asia which has always been influenced by Chinese culture. Since the prehistoric era up to the modern period, Korea has continued a very close relationship with China, accepting Chinese culture, transferring it to Japan as a cultural bridge.

As a land bridge between north Asia and the outside world, especially the islands of Japan, located only a few hundred miles to the east, Korea always possessed great strategic importance. Invaders from the north sometimes swept over the nation with the goal of attacking Japan, while the Japanese themselves on numerous occasions occupied the Korean peninsula as a base from which to attack the Asian mainland.

From the end of the 16th century Korea embarked upon a systematic policy of isolationism, as a reaction to the terrible damage suffered during two successive Japanese invasions. This policy was carried out so thoroughly that even in the 19th century, when China and Japan had finally been opened to Western contacts, Korea was still virtually unknown abroad.

The Yi dynasty which was established by Yi Sung-gye in 1392 and had suffered many serious domestic and foreign upsets was eventually forced to end her isolation, to experience the influence of a more modern age and accordingly bring about several reforms. The pressure on the Yi Dynasty from Western countries was increasing, demanding the opening of the country. Mercantilism of the West that grew in the 19th century increased the number of Western ships, such as British ships in 1831 and 1845, German in 1866, Russian in 1865, that appeared in Korean waters, but without success in opening the hermit country.

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However, the opening of Japan to the West in 1854 by foreign pressure, backed by massive naval strength initiated by the squadron of U.S. warships in July 1853, and the opening of the northern ports of China following the conclusion of treaties between China and the Western powers in 1858, made it impossible for Korea to maintain her isolation.

The Taewon-gun, the then ruler, did not pursue an anti-foreign policy as such, but he was not in favour of opening the country to the West; he was a nationalist at heart, and he was not fond of the Chinese and the Japanese who opened their doors to the Western powers. He knew that Catholicism had grown and that many members of the yangban class (nobility class) had become converts to Catholicism.

When the Korean government was faced with Russian demands for trade in the northeastern region of Korea, some Catholic officials suggested to the Taewon-gun that French aid might be sought against the Russians. The Taewon-gun who encountered a serious problem related to Russian demands seems to have authorised the Korean Catholics to seek French aid in cooperation with French priests, who, however, failed to secure the assistance of the French government against the Russians.

The growing criticism of conservative Confucian scholars against the Taewon-gun's reform measures, and his tolerance of Catholicism, and failure of the Catholics to give him French assistance against the Russians, led to his persecution of the Catholics in February 1866. After that persecution, the French government made two attacks on Korea. After repeated attempts to establish a diplomatic treaty with Korea, Japan forced Korea to agree the Kanghwa Treaty in 1876. With this, Japan established her legation in Seoul and trading firm in Pusan. Through other agreements in mid-1883, Korea opened Wonsan and Inchon to the Japanese. This result was the first official opening of Korea. The conclusion of treaties with Japan under threats, the growing sense of dangers associated with Russian southward expansion, brought about the rise of advocates for reform among governmental officials.

The United States, on the other hand, having failed to settle the Korean issue in 1871, made various efforts to establish diplomatic and commercial relations with Korea. In 1882, Commodore Robert W. Shufeldt went to Korea, concluding the Treaty of Amity and Commerce between the United States and

Korea, and thus opened Korea to the West, and Lucius H. Foote arrived in Seoul in 1883 as the first American minister to Korea.

The American-Korean treaty was followed by others with other Western powers. In 1883, the Korean government signed the Treaty of Amity and Commerce with Britain and Germany; in 1884, with Italy and Russia, and in 1886 with France. With the increasing number of diplomats, merchants and others from foreign nations, new views, new interests, and new culture developed, although the number of critics deeply rooted in conservatism did not diminish. The power struggle between the group headed by Queen Min and those who advocated more extensive and faster changes and reforms created a critical political atmosphere in Seoul, which consequently generated two incidents; first the Imo Incident in 1882 and then the Kapshin Incident in 1884.

In July 1882, the soldiers of the old military units rioted in Seoul, bringing about a military insurrection known in Korean history as Imo Kullan or the 'Military Incident of the Year of Imo.'

Consequently, again in 1884, the conflict between the Progressives and their opponents increased in intensity, and the Progressives were losing their influence over the king. They felt a growing danger to their own personal safety and, in an attempt to establish a new reform government under King Kojong and to institute various measures similar to those of Japan, and to overthrow Chinese domination over Korea, they staged a palace coup in 1884, with the support of Japanese legation guards. This event is known in Korean history as Kapshin Chongbyon, or the 'Political Incident of the Year of Kapshin.' As a result, a reform government was established under the king, and the Progressives took over key government positions.

The process of Modernisation began soon after the signing of the Kanghwa treaty with Japan in 1876 and the structural reform by the Korean government, and additionally brought about the establishment of modern education, the development of Christianity, the emergence of modern commercial firms and journalism, the transition toward a modern military with up-dated training programmes, as well as the appearance of a new culture.

Educational modernisation began with the establishment of a small school named Dongmun School (alias the Interpreters' School or the English School) in 1883 under the supervision of the Foreign Office which was established under the advisement of von Mollendorff, who emphasised the need to train official interpreters for the Chinese and English.

## 2.3    The introduction of Christianity and its impacts on ELT

In Korea there are more than 13 million Christians, of whom 1 million are Catholic and 12 million Protestant. Since their inception, both the Catholic and the Protestant churches have contributed greatly to Korea's westernisation and learning. Besides the fact that Korea boasts the largest Protestant population in Asia, the Protestant Christian Church is generally recognised to have played an important role in Korean ELT (English Language Teaching). After the friendship pact between Korea and America had been signed, the arrival in Korea in 1884 of Dr. Horace N. Allen, the first resident and medical missionary of the Northern Presbyterian Church of the United States, marked the beginnings of the Korean Protestant movement. Even if evangelical work was not legally permitted, through his contact with the Yi court he was able to arrange for the appointment of other missionaries as government employees and thereby opened the way for the Protestant movement. He also introduced modern medicine in Korea by establishing a royal medical clinic named Kwanghyewon in 1885, which was the first modern medical hospital in the country.

A half century or so before Dr. Allen came to Korea, however, A.F. Gutzlaff, a German missionary, and Robert J. Thomas, a Scottish missionary, had made some efforts to introduce Protestantism into Korea, only to fail in accomplishing their dreams. Gutzlaff approached the west coast of Korea in the British vessel the Lord Amherst in 1834 and distributed copies of the Chinese Bible along the coast and went back to China. Then he came to Korea again in the following year with the Scottish missionary Thomas, this time in the American vessel the General Sherman which was later burned, and the crew including Thomas was killed by Korean garrisons in September 1886 near Pyongyang city.

In the 1870s, John Ross and John McIntyre, missionaries of the Protestant Church of Scotland residing in Manchuria, translated the Gospel of Luke of the Bible into Korean with the assistance of a Korean Christian called So Sangyun, later printed in Mukden, Manchuria, in 1882. The Korean translation of the entire New Testament was completed by John Ross and published in Mukden thanks to the financial support of the National Bible Society of Scotland in 1887 (Sym, 1980:31-34).

In April 1885, Dr. and Mrs. Horace G. Underwood of the Northern Presbyterian Church arrived; they were followed by the arrival of other missionaries: Dr. and Mrs. William B. Scranton, and Dr. Scranton's mother, Mary Scranton in May 1885, Dr. John W. Heron and the Reverend and Mrs. Henry G. Appenzeller of the Methodist Church of the United States in June 1885, and an American nurse named Annie Ellers in 1886.

While winning many converts, Christianity made significant contributions toward the modernisation of Korea, especially of the education, the culture, and way of thinking. The new concepts of equality, human rights and freedom, and the participation of both men and women or both common folks and yangban (nobility) in the same religious activities, the launching of group activities, and the establishment of modern schools all led to modernisation or westernisation and eventually enlightenment of the Korean people in several ways. Traditionally, women were discriminated from men, and common folks from nobility. Women, for example, were not allowed to be educated at schools, or to be appointed as governmental officials. They were regarded as housekeepers or even housemaids assisting their husbands, looking after their children at home. The concept of so-called 'predominance of man over woman' which has been diminishing in contemporary society dominated the then Korean society (Clark, 1961).

The most prominent impact of Christianity in Korean society, among others, may have been the dissemination of the idea of universal love and equality of all before God. This notion of the equality and universal community of the brethren of mankind was distinct from the predominant Confucian ideas of hierarchical order characterised by strict distinction by gender, status and family relations.

The Protestant missions introduced Christian hymns and other Western songs which created a strong impetus to modernise Korean ideas about music. The religious tracts published by Christian missions, together with their educational programmes, significantly reduced illiteracy.

The Christian hymnal (Ch'ansongga) was published in 1893, and the New Testament in Korean was published in 1900. Although the New Testament, translated into Korean by the Reverend John Ross of the Scottish Presbyterian mission in Manchuria was available earlier, improvements were made and a new version was published. The Reverend Ross and his brother-in-law, the Reverend John McIntyre, converted many Koreans in southwestern Manchuria to Protestantism beginning in 1882, but it was only in 1887 that the Reverend Ross actually visited Korea. The entire Bible, once translated into Korean and published in 1910, became an important tool in reducing illiteracy (Underwood, 1926). Meanwhile, the Koreans learned how to sing Western songs introduced by Western missionaries. Many Scottish songs such as Auld Lang Syne, and Comin' Thru the Rye became popular along with an Irish song, The Londonderry Air, often known as O Danny Boy. In fact, the tune of Auld Lang Syne later became the melody of the Korean National Patriotic Anthem written by Yun Ch'i-ho. The introduction of the organ and other Western musical instruments brought about a rapid development of modern music.

As a main means of proselytization, the foreign missionaries chose to establish schools, because the Korean people have a very strong zeal for education and respect of scholars.

The first mission institutions of modern education set up in Korea during this period was Baeje Hagdang (1885- present) and Ehwa Hagdang (1886-present), Kyeongshin Haggyo (school), Jeongshin Haggyo, Kwangsung Haggyo, Sungduck Haggyo, Sungsil Haggyo and Jungeui Haggyo. Among the institutions of higher learning established by missionaries during this period were the Yeonheui College and Sungsil College.

Among these schools, the foundation objective of Baeje Hagdang was to teach English. During this period, the missionary Appenzeller mentioned in a report that the Koreans' concern for English was

very strong and that Koreans thought knowing even a few English words was the short-cut to an opportunity to gain the position of high officials (Clark, 1961).

Within one year, Baeje succeeded in obtaining the recognition and assistance of the government, by which King Kojong awarded a special name board (or plate) called 'Baeje Hagdang'.

Ehwa Hagdang, founded in May 1886 by Mary F. Scranton, a missionary of Northern Methodist Church in the U.S.A., mainly taught English subjects without interpreters items such as 'the Lord's Prayer' and the English Hymn 'Jesus loves me'. Ehwa was also awarded a name-board by Queen Min. The medium of instruction in those early schools was English. In Kyeongshin School founded by the Missionary Underwood in 1886, English was taught to 25 pupils at that time.

Kim (1982) concludes that the early ELT implemented in Korea was characterised initially by three main factors;

1.      the needs of educating diplomats arising from contacts with Western culture and from diplomatic relations with foreign countries,

2.      zeal for the opening of the country and

3.      carrying out the Christian evangelism.

ELT at that time was also characterised by the fact that the instructors were all native speakers teaching English through English. The effects of the missionaries' teaching methods are doubted in that they learned English as their mother tongue but taught it as a foreign language. That is, the missionaries were trained as sermon-preachers or evangelists rather than as TEFL instructors who need special courses in teaching English as a foreign language (Kim 1982).

More recently, Protestantism in the Korean peninsula has been associated with modern civilisation and democracy. With the growing desire of the Korean people for a modern way of life, the number of denominations, their churches, and other institutions grew unusually rapidly in the history of the world Protestant Christian missions. In 1980, there were over a dozen major Protestant denominations with 21,243 churches and 7,180,627 Christians. A majority of Korean leaders were members of

Protestant churches. In the 1990s, one-fourth of the Korean people are Christians who are attending about 50,000 churches in the country. The Protestant churches, which made significant contributions to modern education for men and women (they established many co-educational institutions), continued to have an important impact on education including English language teaching as well as the further development of Korean culture.


## 2.4 Characteristics of Korean culture

Korean history which acts as witness to Korean cultural trends presents differing pictures of its cultural characteristics at different stages or periods. Koreans, although descendants of several Mongol tribal groups which migrated from the north (present-day Manchuria) in prehistoric times, were early fused into a separate, homogeneous race, with traits distinctive from both the Chinese and Japanese (Park, 1979).

Confucianism is one of the chief factors which have determined the traditional Korean way of life. Korean society, since the introduction of Confucian teachings from China at a very early date, was family-centred and family-dominated. If one word expresses the essence of the Confucian moral and social order, it is filial piety. The father-son relationship and filial piety were of utmost importance in all family relations on the one hand. The strong clan and regional loyalties engendered by Confucianism for many centuries, on the other hand, hampered the development of a sense of nationhood in modern political terms, aside from the strong sense of patriotism and racial solidarity possessed by Koreans throughout the ages. Although nowadays the situation has changed to a large extent, the importance of family relationships may still be seen in many of the existing customs observed to a greater or lesser degree by modern Koreans (Kim, 1977).

In addition, Confucianism in Korea produced some disadvantages, e.g. gap between generations, and genders. Koreans build many barriers in their minds which impede their ability to communicate their thoughts to others, whereas in Britain or America each individual personality tends to be more fully developed and recognized without strict age or gender classification. At any rate, Confucian

authoritarianism still permeates every aspect of life in Korea despite Western influence. In terms of attitudes toward age, therefore, for instance, the Koreans and the Westerners seem to take exactly opposite points of view. Thus, the older you are, the more you are respected in Korea, and the golden period in your life lies not in youth, but lies ahead in old age. Even the free expression of one's opinions and passions and big laughter especially before the elders or superiors are not polite behaviour in Korean society. In other words, human relationships are completely vertical in every walk of Korean life rather than horizontal. There is very little concept of equality in everyday interpersonal interaction (Kim, 1991).

In terms of discrimination of gender, in contrast to that of Western culture again, the status of women in the traditional Korean family system was equivalent to that of an outsider by her husband's relatives and was subordinate to men. The dominance of husband over wife was so strictly carried out that women were never self-assertive in domestic affairs. Since the end of the 19th century, however, the status and role of women has changed a great deal in the home, in society and in the sphere of employment. A modern Korean woman has still a lot of social disadvantages and discrimination compared with an American woman, but nowadays, there is an increasing desire among women to get jobs of their own. Park portrays the transforming shape of modern Korean society as follows:

`As the family unit shifts from a large size to an atomized husband-wife core, and as women gradually come to claim status and rights equal to men in the political, economic, social and cultural fields, marriage places increasingly more emphasis on bringing happiness to individuals based on affection and equality between husband and wife. In the process of mate selection and marriage, much more freedom is now given to young people. In their social-emotional interactions, however, Korean men and women are much more reserved than Americans. (Park, 1993:47)

In traditional Korean culture, it is hard to identify the modern orientation to individuality. The concept of the individual self was defined by one's relationship, first to the family and secondly to society. Koreans tend to regard family, community or nation as the core centre.

The point of view in 'success in life' is that the Korean often views the world in a spiritual sense rather than materialistically, and accordingly 'success' to him actually refers to the attainment of one's

goals. In this sense Koreans also strive for success but the goal is status within the society which reflects honour on the family.

Korean culture cannot be understood without reference to religion, since Koreans are a very religious people. The religious aspects of Korean culture show considerable diversity and variety, from Shamanism in the ancient prehistoric times to Buddhism which exercised its strongest influence during the Goryeo period (918-1392), Confucianism during the early Yi (alias Josun) Dynasty (1392-1500), Neo-Confucianism during the Josun Dynasty (1500-1911) and Christianity in contemporary times (1911-) (Kim, 1991; Han, 1970). In particular in the early Josun it was Confucian thought which formed the ideological basis for the establishment of the political order, but in the later Josun political tension arose as a product of factional conflict. This conflict consisted of political interests among different parties i.e. southern and northern (Namin and Bukin), elderly and young political groups (Noron and Soron).

In a sense, Korean culture has grown from two structural roots, that is to say, a combination of Confucian and Shamanistic cultures. Shamanism is the mystical experience that is characteristic of primitive religions, centred on the shaman. The classic world view of shamanism is found among the peoples of central and northern Asia. In their view, the universe is full of heavenly bodies peopled by spiritual beings. The most important function of the shaman in all cultures is healing of sickness. The belief that the shaman communicates with the spirits and heals sick people gives him authority. Accordingly, the shaman has economic, social and political power and authority (Kim 1991).

Also prevalent is a magical-sorcerous tendency in the everyday life, thoughts, belief of the Korean people and even in politics. Confucianism, whose main doctrine emphasises the hierarchical or vertical order of human relationships brought about a familistic culture where the individual is suppressed and merged into the collectivity. Buddhism has influenced the Korean mind with its this-worldly utilitarian prayer-oriented, and sorcerous beliefs and attitudes. Buddhism arose within the context of the Indian philosophical ideas prevalent during the lifetime of its founder. Historically, Buddhism developed

in close connection with the ruling classes of those areas to which it spread. Often Buddhists represent the conservative sector of society (Conze, 1962).

Christianity which was the latest arrival served to awaken and modernise Korea by bringing with it things Western through its missionaries (for more details, see Section 2.3: the Introduction of Christianity and its Impacts on ELT in Chapter 2 of the present research). With its appeal directed toward intellectuals and nationalist leaders, Christianity achieved and maintained a powerful influence. Today Protestant and Catholic Christians financially support a large proportion of Korea's institutions for higher education, medical care, and social service activities. In particular, under the Japanese colonial rule and during the Korean War, Christians did not hesitate to sacrifice their lives for the defence of their nation, which played an important role in deepening patriotism among the people.

Various Korean scholars have built up a picture of the national character of Korea on the basis of their research. It was considered essential to present a small selection of such accounts. This does not imply that the present writer agrees with these accounts which may indeed appear somewhat superficial and stereotyped. However, if they exist in people's minds, then aguably they may exercise some influence on their attitudes and perceptions, and as such are worth recording.

Ch'oe (1972) whose findings are referred to by Kim (1991) cites an instance of the merits of the Korean people such as:

> 'their optimism, love of purity, perseverance, tenacity, and valor, comprehensiveness, harmony, propensity to accumulation and compilation, and synthesizing power, love of order, civility, conciliation, decency, and cleanliness, but dislike of conflict, competition, stealing, and debauchery, whereas their short-comings include excessive formalism, retrogressive conservatism, a lack of cohesion, unity, or disposition to organize, the lack of precision, and the tendency to patch up easily, factionalism and flunkyism, solidarity, unifying force and the ability to exert concerted effort as a group as a whole, scarce public conscience and courage, and a very low level of preparedness and accountability.' (Ch'oe, 1972:32-33).

Ch'oe (1972) summarised the advantages and disadvantages of the typical Korean national character as follows:

1. The fundamental tendency of the Korean people is benevolence or humanity, especially Koreans show love and even respect to foreigners.

2. Koreans show very generous and respectful/deferential attitudes towards others, even their rivals or enemies.

3. Koreans are abundant in affection and emotion, valuing propriety or proper behaviours, obeying rules and maintaining order.

4. Koreans are, generally speaking, upright, clean, proud, cheerful and optimistic, even if they look blunt and serious or sometimes gloomy.

5. As weaknesses, Koreans seem to lack ability in reasoning and hard thinking, and to possess the spirit of brooding-over. This lack of thinking is likely to be derived from Korean culture which tends to promote hierarchical uniformity at the expense of individual imagination and creativeness. Accordingly, Koreans are conservative in their thinking and social processes rather than innovative or flexible.

Ham (1952) has also referred to the dual nature of the Korean character. The Koreans, he thinks, are rather lighthearted, nice and kind, but are not particularly disposed to be deeply involved in spiritual matters, or to reflect upon themselves, and hence are low in self-esteem both individually and collectively. In addition, Korean people are a peace-loving nation, and never rejecting outsiders.

Yun (1964, 1971) delineates the structure of the Korean character in psychological and social terms. He characterises Korean people's personality as a combination of both the resigned tendency caused by the monsoon and the aggressive militant attitude of a deserted people. Koreans are reluctant to express their feelings openly. The bad thing about Korean society is that it is divided by so many 'emotional groups' (e.g. relatives, alumni, close friends, religious groups, academic groups, geographical groups, etc.) that there are too many insurmountable barriers existing in the mind of the Korean people.

Several Korean scholars' presentations on the Korean people's character portrayed so far vary considerably according to their particular points of view. For instance, Ch'oe (1972) defines Korean

character as harmony, however, Yun (1971) mentions Korean society's division among many emotional groups. In a more individualistic society, the concept of `national characteristics' is likely to be treated with more reluctance and scepticism, but it might be fairer to portray national characteristics of Korea where social rather than individual norms apply. In a general sense, Korean people tend to be conservative, inflexible, serious, and deep-hearted.

Kim's (1967) empirical research on the values of Korean university students mainly compares ancient Confucianism moral values and the current ones. It concludes that university students do not want either to follow the Confucian tradition without reservation or to abandon it completely, that they do not seem to accept the Western version of individualism wholeheartedly. Today's Korean students and youngsters are just on the road to a change of their values arising from their country's economic growth. However, this change happens slowly because the leading generation in the society is still elderly people who are the parents and grandparents of the students.

Hong (1969) conducted a survey to investigate the views of Korean farmers, managers, professors and college students on social values, and found that authoritarianism was still dominant in interpersonal relations and in performance of tasks, that attitudes towards education and friendship relations were not past-oriented, the old values of preponderance of male over female and of 'elder first' should be modified to adapt to the modern situation, that the conception concerning occupation or profession was idealistic, that Korean people considered religious faith and teachings to be necessary for the formation of a healthy outlook on life and held a positive attitude to Christianity, in general. Among college students, independence rather than filial piety was regarded as more valuable, as are strong conviction and character building. Elite students believed modernisation was to be achieved through industrial development and the breakdown of tradition to some extent was inevitable.

## 2.5    Korea as a bridge between Chinese and Japanese characters

Lastly, Korean culture acts as a bridge between Chinese and Japanese culture. To people from the west, all three cultures may seem to be 'far eastern' or 'oriental' and relatively one and the same. In fact, however, there are important differences between them. In order to convey a sense of what is distinctive about Korean culture, so that in due course its influence on EFL may be better gauged, the present section attempts to pinpoint some key differences between these three major cultures of the 'far east'. As references, the following major sources have been adopted: Osgood, 1951; Hatada, 1983; Kuroda, 1983.

In an anthropological report, Osgood (1951) characterises the Korean people as being hospitable toward strangers, shamanistic, and religious. The Japanese people, according to Hatada (1983), a Japanese scholar, have the impression that Koreans residing in Japan are unclean, do not behave themselves, and possess no independent values. Kuroda (1983) argues that Korean culture is a high-mountain culture of nomadic people for whom social status has a high importance and who aspire to high positions or offices. Family background and connections of relatives or acquaintances are very important for their success in life. Such judgements of the Korean character by foreign observers, especially from the nearest neighbouring countries, serve as a reference for the further evolution/development of Korean national character.

In Japan of the Tokugawa period (1192-1333), the exclusionist, individualistic traits of the national character were emphasised as a means of maintaining Japan's seclusion, but in the period of the opening of the country which followed the Meiji Restoration (1889) the liberal, tolerant traits were in demand to facilitate the introduction of foreign culture, and attempts were made to cultivate the national character to fit in with the new policies (Kim, 1981).

Traditionally, the Japanese national character can be summarised in one word, 'sensibility'. The traditional sensibility of the Japanese is stamped with the mark of the natural, political, and social factors that gave it birth, and has been nourished by various international influences, so that it is in no sense

unsuited to Japan's needs in the modern world of today. Although the experience of the Japanese in

applying a cultural sensibility already quite highly developed to the acclimatisation of things Chinese can

be paralleled in the experience of the Chinese and Greeks with the cultures of India and Central Asia, in

Japan's case the native sensibility was not only maintained as a national tradition but also differed greatly

in quality from that of the continent. The Japanese and continental systems of government were so

fundamentally different that they created a complete difference of atmosphere between the political

sensibilities of the two sides (Hasegawa, 1966). In terms of civilisations of the three countries, the

traditional form of the Korean capital throughout the ages was the walled city whose development was

based on the impact of Chinese construction technology and layout on Korean walled sites. However,

ancient Japanese civilisation, unlike that of the Oriental mainland such as Korea and China, was not a

civilisation of the walled city. That Japanese civilisation is a civilisation of daily life can be deduced from

the particular type of sensibility which is manifest in Japanese cultural forms in all their aspects. The

principle underlying these cultural forms is the 'civilised' control of feeling, via organic human and social

forms of life, of all the instinctive, impulsive life requirements such as are sometimes referred to as the

'desire for survival', the 'desire for power', and so on. In practice today, the traditional refinement of

sensibility tends to be preserved as though in a museum, with no means of development as a living force in

society and the nation as a whole. In every period of Japanese history so far, Japan has succeeded in

using elements from other countries in order to create something at once new and in accord with the

traditional sensibility. In the Heian period, the prose romances were born under the influence of Chinese

script. In the time of the Ashikagas, the No was born under the influence of Zen. In the Tokugawa

period, again, Chinese literature was to assist at the birth of the characteristic literature of the Genroku era

and later, and the Chinese theatre at the birth of the Kabuki.

The Japanese gave their intellectual and spiritual outlook a very naturalistic, realistic, and in this

sense modern bent. Japanese architecture, for instance, exhibits three characteristics: modernisation,

plainness, and restraint (Hasegawa, 1966). As an intellectual theory, the same ideas existed in China,

which produced various writings on the subject that were of course passed on to Japan. In China, however, they did not take root in the daily lives of the people in the same way as in Japan. The taking-over of the ideas of Confucianism and Buddhism was a feature of Japanese literature from the earliest times, and in the middle ages in particular not only literature and history but the whole of art was coloured by it.

There are some Korean scholars who made comparisons between the Korean and the Japanese characters, among whom Kim (1981) and Kim (1991) emphasised the importance of the influence of ecology on human character. According to Kim's comparisons, Korea is a country with low mountains to which Koreans' slow actions are attributed, while Japan is a country with high mountains to which Japanese' rapid actions are attributed. Koreans have in their social organisation an extended family system, a horizontal culture, egalitarianism and an obstinate spirit, while Japanese have small family system, vertical culture, aristocracy and sharp and clear spirit.

Turning our attention to the characteristics of Chinese culture, the Chinese were those people who adhered to a certain distinct set of values and norms suited to their way of life. Naturalisation was possible only in the sense that a foreigner could adopt this set of values and norms and take up a new mode of life. Much of the system of thought and action of the Chinese people was based on Confucianism, that is to say, Confucianism alone distinguished the Chinese from the foreigners (who were called `barbarians'). Within Chinese society, the higher one's social level, the more one was permeated with Confucian ideas, and this hierarchy extended outwards to include the barbarians. The Confucian mandarin was described by the authoritative Chinese Repository, a monthly publication founded by an American medical missionary and diplomat, Dr Peter Parker, as intellectually a proud, self-sufficient fatalist.

The barbarians' goodwill in responding to China's benevolence was shown symbolically by their tribute mission (duty of regular payment to the Chinese king by weaker countries). Foreign delegations, for example, from Korea, Annam, and Liu-ch'iu, seeking trade concessions were invariably treated by the

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Chinese as if they were tribute missions. Culturally and economically, China regarded herself as far above the barbarian countries; there was no question of equality.

However, the swift progress of the West in the nineteenth century threw China and most other Oriental and African countries into sharp contrast. China had a predilection for stability; her great fear was of progress. The unchanging nature of China was observed by some Westerners, for instance, Victor de Laprade, Hegel, and Max Weber who was struck by the enduring stability of China at the turn of the twentieth century (Yun, 1964; Yun, 1971).

Despotism in China, as in the other Oriental countries, allowed freedom and power only to the ruler while depriving the governed masses of both freedom and the chance to express their opinions, and one man of superhuman mental activity managing the entire affairs of a mentally passive people.

The general picture viewed by several Westerners, Hudson Taylor, founder of the Chinese inland mission, and fellow missionary, J. Jones, and Pearl Buck who wrote books on the theme of China, assumes that the moral standards of the past had collapsed, but no new ideas had emerged to replace them. This was a China surviving in immorality. From the 1920s to the 1940s more and more favourable characters of Chinese people which are the virtues of industriousness, perseverance, fortitude, and contentment gained acknowledgement by Western businessmen and diplomats.

Although there are degrees of difference and their own uniqueness among the cultural characteristics of those neighbouring oriental countries, the foundational roots of them are from one, that is Confucianism. To narrow the focus of our discussions to those aspects of Korean culture rooted in Confucianism, Cha (1983) describes the Korean national character as follows. Korean people are sensitive to others' opinions and responses, dependent, emotionally warm and affectionate, generous to guests, tidy and upright, and have strong aspirations for education or schooling, meddling in others' privacy, strong religious disposition (this is from Shamanism rather than from Confucianism) and restrain emotions and desires in their behavioural tendencies.

Lastly, in terms of the original roots of the language families of those three nations, Korean and Japanese are from the Ural-Altaic language complex (Tungusic, Mongolian, and Turkic), isolated linguistic entities, not closely related to any other language groups.

Katzner (1977, 1995) asserts that the Korean alphabet invented in the years 1443-46 by King Sejong is the only true alphabet native to the Far East. In terms of linguistics, Korean is similar to Japanese, but not related to it.

> 'Korean writing differs from that of most other languages in that the letters of each syllable are grouped together into clusters' (p.221).

The origin of Chinese writings dates back as early as 1800 B.C., founded on charred bones. Each Chinese character represents a monosyllabic root word. In the 4th to 6th centuries the Japanese sent expeditions to Korea and eventually came to dominate this peninsular country, where Chinese culture had been transplanted. From Korea, the Japanese came to know Chinese writing and literature. Until the 19th century Japanese scholars read and wrote only Chinese, and since the 19th century a system had been devised to represent Japanese syllables by means of selected Chinese characters, simplified for easier writing, without regard to the meaning of the corresponding words in Chinese.

Japanese vocabulary borrowed some terms from Korea in early times. Korea is first mentioned historically in Chinese sources as early as the twelfth century B.C. Commercial and cultural relations with China were actively maintained through several centuries. From the 6th century onwards, Korea was invaded by Japan three times and was under its influence even when it was not under its actual rule.

Chinese was the first language of scholarship in Korea, as Latin was in Europe. Consequently, Korea, located between mainland China and island Japan, has experienced industrial and cultural developments similar to those of the two countries. Korean philosophical and technical vocabularies are rich with both native compounds and borrowed forms. Learned and specialised terminologies are frequently created out of Korean elements but based on Chinese compounds.

In term of Korean language or literature related to its culture, the thought patterns and mental

attitudes underlying Korean linguistic behavior present a considerable problem to cross-cultural

communication. According to Shin (1965) the Korean language lacks logic and 'predicate' (part of a

statement which says something about the subject) in its syntax, and is vague in distinguishing between

singular and plural. Shin maintains that the Korean language, but for its Chinese characters, has a limited

capacity to express abstract ideas and concepts, lacks hypothetical grammar ('hypothetic' is a label

sometimes applied to a verb form used typically or exclusively in conditional sentences) and is devoid of

relative pronouns. Shin maintains that these features of the language are said to have contributed to the

relative weakness of Koreans in logical reasoning, heavy reliance on intuition in the cognitive process,

laxity in exact measurement, shyness in expressing the self and a tendency towards self-contempt.

Yun (1964, 1971) also pointed out the unsuitability of the Korean language to express logical

concepts and substance, because of its lack of abstract conceptualisation and reasoning, and as a

consequence Koreans may lack the ability to perceive reality objectively as opposed to subjectively.

Bae Chul-wung (1994), an editor of the Kukje Daily Newspaper, mentioned in his editorial by

citing the research results of Language Research Centre of Department of American National Defense

that the most difficult language for English-native speakers to learn is Korean, since these two languages,

Korean and English, are the remotest and most heterogenic from each other in their linguistic structure or

syntax. Bae (op. cit.) claims that this result bears a possible implication that one of the most difficult

languages for Koreans to learn is the English language.

Considering the history of Korean literature in terms of literary genre, tragic factors remained

dominant from the Sinra Dynasty (668-935) to the Goryoe Dynasty (918-1392). With the turn of the Yi

Dynasty (1392-1910), however, comic factors began to dominate the literary genre. Kim (1975)

maintains that the main orientations of classical Korean literature contain a kind of anthropocentrism, this-

worldly secularism and a very strong ethical orientation which overrides the aesthetic value.

Anthropocentricism assumes that even the supernatural forces people heavily depend on for their own

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well-being do exist for humans. Other themes which are frequently found in literary works are the longing for a hermit-like life of seclusion, the wishful belief in miracles, the deep-felt sense of resentment and remorse and the emotion of love sublimated in separation.

## 2.6    English language teaching in the context of Korean culture

English teaching in Korea began formally with the establishment of the Dongmun School in 1883 and so has a history of over a century now. English Language Teaching is sporadically mentioned in the histories of schools and of churches or in historical literature of the flowering period of the country, but there is no fixed arrangement of its history. Some authors divide it into three periods;

1.    the late Yi period (1883-1910),

2.    the period of the Japanese colony and

3.    the post-liberation period.

Others such as Kim (1982) divide it into four periods;

1.    the period from opening of Korean ports to the Kabo Reform (1883-1894),

2.    the period from the Kabo Reform to Japanese annexation of Korea (1895-1910),

3.    the period of Japanese colony (1911-1945) and

4.    post-liberation period.

In the present thesis, the former division, which is more universally recognized by Korean historians (Kim, 1982), is adopted and added to by some analytical and descriptive explanation.

## 2.6.1   The Late Yi Dynasty Period (1883-1910)

The first period (the Late Yi Dynasty Period) covers the length of time from 1883 to 1910. During this period, English teaching was promoted by two different sources. One was the government which had just concluded a treaty of amity with the United States and Great Britain and had an urgent need for an institution to train diplomats, interpreters, and government officials. These treaties officially opened Korea's doors, and then Western civilisation slowly began to flow in this country. Treaty obligations with Western countries required Korea to have interpreters who would be able to bridge Korea and the other countries concerned. The above-mentioned first English language school with its name 'Dongmunhak' thus opened its doors at Je-dong, Seoul, in September 1883, chiefly for the purpose of training interpreters. Dongmun School was in fact the first modern educational institute in Korea (Underwood, 1926).

The Dongmun School had been in operation for three years only before a more formal school called the 'Royal English School'opened on Sept. 23, 1886. The Imperial sanction on the establishment of the Royal English School was given early in September 1884. Through the American missionary, H.H. Underwood, stationed in Seoul, three American teachers were invited.

The staff of the Royal English School consisted of four native speakers: three Americans - George W. Gilmore, Dalzell A. Bunker, and Homer B. Hulbert; and one British - T.E. Halifax. The school taught English under the subject name, 'Foreign Language'(FL) together with other subjects in the daily curriculum such as arithmetic, world history, philosophy, and science. 'Foreign Language' listed in the daily curriculum of the Royal English School was actually limited to English, which had more weight in the curriculum than any other subject.

It was in fact one year after the opening of Baeje High School (the first modern high school), founded by Rev. H.G. Appenzeller that the Royal English School opened its doors. The delay in its opening was largely caused by Ok-Kyun Kim's Coup d'etat on 7, Oct. (by Oriental lunar calendar), 1884.

The Royal English School, however, stopped operating in 1893, when W. du F. Hutchison, on taking over

the school changed its name to the 'English School'.

When the 'English School' started teaching English in February 1894, there was already in Seoul

a Japanese language school opened at the inducement of the Japanese minister in Seoul. Almost at the

same time, schools of other languages were opened sporadically. The government united these foreign

language schools into one according to Imperial Ordinance No. 88 on 10 May, 1895 naming it 'the

Government School of Foreign Language'. The Government School of Foreign Languages continued its

operation, intermediately changing its name in 1909 to 'Hansong Government Foreign Language School'

under a Japanese principal until 11. Nov. 1911, when the Japanese Government closed it in accordance

with their reformatory policy of education system.

Starting about one and a half decades before the annexation, the missionary-operated private

schools began to be established in Korea. These schools were indeed the pioneers of modern education.

Baeje, Ehwa, Kyeongshin, Jeongshin, and Baehwa schools, Sungsil and Sunggeui schools, and Holstein

School were the missionary private schools opened around this time. Non-missionary schools such as

Whimun, Chungang, Yangjong and Bosung schools were also opened.

Although Dongmun School, the Royal English School and the Government School of Foreign

Languages were short-lived as seen above, the missionary and non-missionary private schools founded

before the annexation have stayed up to this day, playing a part in the introduction of Western culture and

in the teaching of English. The missionary schools at that time were privately established by missionaries

from Western countries, and non-missionary schools were established mostly by Koreans.


## 2.6.2    The Period of the Japanese Colony

Before the Japanese occupation period (from 1911 to 1945), some publications appeared, linking

Korean and English: 'A Korean English Dictionary' by Rev. Gale in 1897, 'Corean Primer' by John Ross

in 1877, and 'Korean Speech with Grammar and Vocabulary' in 1882, on additional edition of 'Corean

Primer'. Underwood published 'An Introduction to the Korean Spoken Language' in Yokohama, Japan

in 1889 and 'A Concise Dictionary of the Korean Language in two parts' in 1890.

During the period as a Japanese Colony, English education was treated as a means of acquiring

culture and as an important process for the education of Japanese people in Korea as well as in Japan.

Foreign languages were a prerequisite to professional or higher education in Japan. Japanese high schools

accepted this kind of tradition and concentrated on teaching foreign languages for the entrance

examination of the Imperial University. English education in Korea developed almost in the same way as

that in Japan. Emphasis was put on the teaching of English grammar only for the entrance examinations,

and therefore, on rote memorisation of grammatical rules, rather than on the oral-aural skills of English.

Meanwhile, Keijo Imperial University had been established in Seoul in May 1924 according to

the Japanese Imperial University Decree No. 105. Decree No. 21 in May 1924 made stipulations

regarding the teaching of foreign languages at the General Preliminary Education Department, Keijo

Imperial University. According to the 1934 curriculum of the university, English had the following hour

allotments for students of humanities at General Education Department (See Table [2.1]).

[TABLE 2.1]

HOUR ALLOTMENTS OF ENGLISH IN HUMANITY DEPARTMENTS IN 1934

| Subject | Contents | Weekly Hours | | |
|---------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | | 1st year | 2nd year | 3rd year |
| English | Reading, Translation, Conversation, Grammar, Composition | 10 | 9 | 9 |

From Kim, 1982

As shown in Table [2.1], in the first year of Keijo Imperial University 10 hour-lessons in

English were given per week, and 9 hour-lessons in the second and third years respectively. Sub-

subjects taught in the English classes were 'reading', 'translation', 'conversation', 'grammar' and 'composition'.

The stronghold where the Koreans could continue advanced English studies, however, were some of the private higher institutions, namely, Yeonhi College (now Yeonsei University), Posung College (now Korea University), and Ehwa Women's College (now Ehwa Women's University). They were established by domestic educators or overseas missionaries for higher education of (mostly Korean) common young people, while Keijo Imperial University was mostly for the offspring of Japanese high officials.

### 2.6.3   The post-liberation period

The teaching of English after the liberation of 1945 was required much more than before in the military and economic fields. One important impetus to the teaching of English after liberation was the inflow of Americans, soldiers or civilians. The proclamation of Ministry of Education Decrees No.45 and No.46 marked the stabilising stage of Korean education which because of the hasty establishment of new democratic systems and the Korean War of 1950, opened the road of adjustment for Korean education as well as stabilising it. The characteristic points regarding English teaching at the Lower and Upper Secondary School may be summarised as follows.

The aim of English teaching is to have pupils realise that the country and community to which they belong are on an equal level with those whose languages are different from theirs, and to enhance national identity, cultivating the spirit of independence and self-respect as well as developing the spirit of international cooperation and justice.

They are to develop pupils' ability to distinguish between the Korean and English languages, to have pupils understand and internalise the difference of thoughts, emotions, manners, customs, practices, history, natural environments, and other cultural systems, and to enable pupils to

understand and produce essential English by having them familiarise themselves with simple patterns.

The basic policy for the operation of the English curriculum is to stimulate pupils' interests in the language, and to consider listening comprehension before speaking, reading before writing in selecting and organising teaching materials.

From the points stressed in the Ministry of Education Decrees, it is evident that the new theory of foreign language teaching developed through the structuralist approach (maintained by linguists like Bloomfield and Fries in the 1940s) came to be applied to the teaching of English in Korea.

By 1963, the so-called innovative period in teaching English in Korea, 'Pattern Practice' had become a catchphrase of Korean teachers of English, especially for junior classes at secondary schools. At the tertiary level, the study of phonology, morphology, immediate constituents and syntax based on the structural grammar prevailed.

On 15 February 1963, Ministry of Education Decree No.120 regarding curricula for the Lower Secondary School was proclaimed, with its own significance in having stressed once more the necessity of casting off the grammar-translation methods and the importance of the four basic skills of English study. Ministry of Education Decrees were proposed and drafted by modern language scholars/researchers from selected universities, on the basis of components of English education, learning psychology, and national value (Document from Education Ministry, 1994).

**[TABLE 2.2]**

**EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN KOREA**

| Ages | Institutions |
|---|---|
| 25- | Postgraduate school<br><br>(3-year Ph.D degree course)<br><br>(2-year master degree course) |
| 20-24 | Tertiary school<br><br>(4-year college/university)<br><br>(2-year junior college)<br><br>(English subject is taught for two or three years.)<br><br>(Compulsory army-service for all young people) |
| 17-19 | Upper secondary school (3 years)<br><br>(English subject is taught.) |
| 14-16 | Lower secondary school (3 years)<br><br>(English subject is taught.) |
| 8-13 | Primary school (6 years)<br><br>(English subject starts to be taught.) |

Generative-Transformational Grammar created by Noam Chomsky, the American linguistist, was introduced in 1966 by the first linguistic article entitled 'The Theoretical Study of Transformational Grammar' by Myongil Kei (1966). With this article on linguistics as a starter, the direction in the teaching of English now turned to the creative ability and intuition of a native speaker as well as to the physical surface patterns.

On 31 August, 1973, the Korean government revised curricula for the Lower and Upper Secondary School by the proclamation of Ministry of Education Decree No.325, which defined the direction of the teaching of English in a more concrete manner. Stress on the oral method, pattern practice, and especially on the aspect of language communication is clearly seen, even though at this stage it was still very weak and theoretical. However, no change is seen in the structure and content of the textbooks which remained mainly dependent upon the so-called Grammar-Translation Approach to ELT.

The period from 1974 when educational curriculum revision happened to 1981 witnessed the establishment of more specific and concrete teaching objectives for ELT, for which communication, pattern drill and oral teaching methods were stressed, focusing on the education of the so-called 'four skills'. However, the 1974 revision failed because of the excessive teaching of English (still focusing on grammar), which resulted from the too heavy influence of English on the university entrance examination.

Since 1981, another new curriculum-revision policy called 'complex curricula' has been implemented, in which four skills of language are taught in depth and in balance, and which is aimed at utilising English in real life, and making the learners understand foreign culture in order to improve our own culture.

As a stage of the present research, the Ministry of Education were asked by the current researcher questions such as:

1. Whether there are any policy documents on Korean ELT, relating to the past, present and future?

2. What elements are reflected for a present national policy for ELT?

3. Upon what foundation are these elements based? i.e. upon politics, economics, psychology, and linguistics?

4. What is the national policy of ELT as implemented at present?

5. Is there any evidence that the intended policies made by the policy-makers have been performed to the degree that they expected?

The following brief answers were received:

1)	Directions and content of curricula are decided according to educational curricula instituted and promulgated by the Minister of Education.

2)	ELT curricula, which are constituted of English educational, learning psychological, and people's value aspects, have been reformed and promulgated through six amendments, the first in 1954, the second in 1964, the third in 1974, the fourth in 1981, the fifth in 1987, and the sixth in 1992.

The Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) have contributed to the Korean ELT or FLT through mass media, i.e. Educational Broadcasting System, by adopting new teaching methods and so have indirectly instilled international ideas and messages on FLT into Koreans' thinking. KEDI have been making every attempt to give a variety of FLT lessons by employing different instructors who have their own typical teaching methods. Private language schools or institutes where native-speaking lecturers are employed also contribute to spreading new methods to those members of the Korean public who learn foreign languages.

However, the effectiveness of their teaching is doubtful, because Korean learners who have roots of Confucianism in their culture (as analysed in previous sections) and therefore, who are conservative and accustomed to keeping silence in the classroom, may show awkward attitudes towards these new methods and their foreign lecturers with different cultures. The task of implanting new teaching methods and concepts about FLT into Korean culture needs wide-ranging research, study and debate.

## 2.6.4 The objectives of English teaching in Korean educational institutions

By the time Korean students go to colleges or universities at the age of 19 or 20, they will have studied English for more than six years. In addition, they are exposed to English as one of the principal subjects for one or two years in their colleges/universities. The proficiency level they would reach after all these years of English study is on average far below their expectations as well as their teachers' expectations. To many of these students, English has hence become one of the most hated of the subjects in the school curriculum.

The main reason for the failure in ELT in the Korean educational context may be regarded as the fault of the system, and schools, not the fault of the students. All the way from their very first year in the secondary schools through their first or second year in the tertiary schools, English seems to be taught monotonously in the same way with no variation - mostly grammar and translation, in that order. Many teachers force on the students rote memorisation of the grammar without realising its possible roles in second- or foreign- language acquisition (Kim, 1969).

The students in the secondary schools spend a lot of time on learning grammar and translation rather than on communicative English. They are forced to learn grammar and translation for the college entrance examination. They spend more time on the description of English language itself, which, however, does not mean that they acquire competence. This sort of inefficiency in English learning/teaching is a kind of national loss in a broad sense. The industrialisation and modernisation of Korea has come to require the acquisition of listening and speaking competence in English as well as reading and writing. As a result, the lower secondary schools are compelled to change teaching methods by using communication-centred textbooks, and by putting strong emphasis on dialogue for classroom English. The development of the electronic industry has exposed secondary pupils to audio-visual programmes through cassette or tape recorders and TV. The zeal for communicative English acquisition in the lower secondary schools gradually withers in

the upper secondary schools because the content and activities of English in the upper secondary schools are centred on written rather than spoken English (the British Council, 1989).

The college entrance examination is one of the factors which obstructs the improvement of ELT in the secondary schools in Korea at present just as it did in the past. Since the college entrance examination mostly consists of grammar-translation centred questions, the secondary schools cannot help following the requirements of the examination, even though they wish to emphasise the teaching of communicative English. In the sense that the spoken language is operated by sound through ears and mouths, it is impossible for the spoken language test to be done by the pen-and-paper tests carried out so far.

These questions arise on English teaching in colleges: What are the colleges' reactions to the teaching of English offered in secondary schools? Is there any connection or linkage between college English and secondary English teaching? And is the present college English appropriate and satisfactory for the needs of students as well as for the times? How did the colleges establish the objectives of ELT, by the instructors or by the institutions or by students? What and how do they teach: the teaching methods and syllabus are being used? What ELT policies are being implemented at the levels of government, institutions, and learners? How strong is English learners' motivation to learn English and how positive are their attitudes towards learning English and English native speakers?

First of all, the objectives of ELT would give us an idea, even vaguely or quite clearly, about the actual outline of the direction in which the Korean ELT is taught at the levels of different educational institutions.

The objectives of English teaching in the secondary schools established according to the order of the Curriculum Amendment Decree for secondary schools promulgated by the Ministry of Education in 1981 are set out overleaf. Among six decrees, the fourth one promulgated in 1981 was

chosen for this study, because the government opened the door to study abroad of Korean students in 1982 immediately after this decree.

1)   **For the lower secondary (or junior high) schools.**

**(1) General Objective**

'It aims to help pupils contribute to Korean culture by comprehending the culture of English-speaking people by improving competence of English use.'

**(2) Specific Objectives**

'It aims to help pupils 1) cultivate competence to understand and use easy English on the topics around life and general topics; 2) establish the foundation on which the culture of English-speaking people can be understood.'

2)   **For the upper secondary (or senior high) schools**

**(1) General Objective**

'It aims to help pupils contribute to Korean culture by comprehending the culture of English-speaking people by improving competence of English use.'

**(2) Specific Objectives**

'It aims to help pupils a) cultivate competence to understand and use English on the topics around life and general topics; b) understand foreign culture broadly, which enables them to broaden their international viewpoints.' (KEDI, 1986: 51-2).

Discrepancy is clear between the suggestions of the general and specific aims; while the ultimate aim pursued by the general objective implies that the cultivation of foreign language is exploited as a means to the development of the learner's own culture, the specific aims pursue understanding and utilising of easy English, cultivating of linguistic competence of its use and founding the basis for the national culture of the target language.

For a brief comparison, the aims of foreign language learning built by the Scottish Education Department in Scotland to cope with the changing conditions are quoted as follows;

It aims to help pupils

1. develop the ability to communicate in the foreign language;

2. learn how language works;

3. learn how to learn;

4. learn about ways of life in other countries.

'This places priority on using the language in contexts which are as real as possible and on getting the learners to speak to each other, and not only to answer sporadic questions from the teacher.' (Modern Languages, Scottish Education Department, 1991:4).

Those Scottish objectives for learning foreign languages have something in common with those of Korean secondary schools (although their cultures are different from each other), in that they both pursue the dual purposes of development of communicative ability and understanding of other cultures. The objectives of teaching and learning English as a foreign language should therefore be applied to actual teaching fields (i.e. classrooms), and eventually inculcated in learners.

## 2.7 ELT currently implemented at Korean universities

Chae et al (1983) investigated the actual state of Korean college/university ELT. Sixty-nine departments replied from among 140 departments of colleges or universities throughout the country. Among the findings were:

1) The time, period, and allocation of college English lecturers

   (a) Teaching English for the first year students only:        36 colleges

   (b) Teaching English for both first and second year:          33 colleges

2) The number of colleges offering 'Language Lab' lessons:  58 colleges, i.e. 85.6% of the respondent colleges. The number of colleges which do not offer 'Language Lab' lessons: 11 colleges, which are 14.01%.

3) The colleges using workbooks or homework book:  23 colleges, i.e.  31.5%. Colleges not using:  44 colleges, i.e. 60.2%.

The analysis of the above-mentioned content is summarized in the following three tables ([2.3], [2.4] and [2.5])

In Table [2.3], language skills of 'comprehension' (speaking and listening comprehension) are totally neglected by most of the colleges, while 'reading' is most strongly emphasized. The same is also true in the statistics shown in tables [2.4], [2.5] where 'reading' enjoys the highest priority, but 'writing' and 'speaking' enjoy the lowest priority.

[TABLE 2.3]

**NUMBER OF COLLEGES OFFERING ELT PERIODS ACCORDING TO SKILLS**

| Period of ELT a week | Reading | Lab. | Comprehension | Composition | No. of Colleges | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | 1 | 1 | | | 8 | 12 |
| 2 | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | 2 | | | | 4 | 6 |
| 2 | | 2 | | | 5 | 7 |
| 2 | | 1 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 3 | 2 | 1 | | | 11 | 16 |
| 3 | 3 | | | | 8 | 12 |
| 3 | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 3 | 1 | 2 | | | 5 | 7 |
| 3 | 2 | | 1 | | 1 | 1 |
| 4 | 2 | 2 | | | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | | 2 | | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 4 | | . 4 | | | 3 | 4 |
| 4 | 3 | 1 | | | 2 | 3 |
| 5 | 4 | 1 | | | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | 3 | 1 | | | 2 | 3 |
| 5 | 1 | 2 | | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| 5 | 3 | 2 | | | 2 | 3 |
| 6 | 3 | 3 | | | 1 | 1 |
| 6 | 2 | 2 | | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 6 | 5 | | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 7 - | 1 | 3 | 3 | | 1 | 1 |

From Chae et al, 1983

TABLE 2.4]
**PERCENTAGE OF TIME ALLOCATION OF COLLEGE ELT TO THE FOUR SKILLS OF LANGUAGE:**

| SKILLS | TIME ALLOCATION | % |
|---|---|---|
| Reading | 60 | 51 |
| Hearing | 38 | 32 |
| Writing | 5 | 4 |
| Speaking | 15 | 13 |
| | 118 periods were taught per week at 69 universities. | |

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**[TABLE 2.5]**

**TIME ALLOCATION OF COLLEGE ELT TO THE FOUR SKILLS ACCORDING TO THE YEARS**

| SKILLS | YEARS | 2 PERIODS | 3 PERIODS | 4 PERIODS | 5 PERIODS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reading | 1st year | 18 | 23 | 17 | 1 |
| | 2nd year | 7 | 10 | 4 | |
| Lab. | 1st year | 29 | 20 | | |
| | 2nd year | 5 | 3 | 1 | |
| Composition | 1st year | 1 | | 1 | |
| | 2nd year | 2 | | | |
| Speaking | 1st year | 2 | 1 | | |
| | 2nd year | | | | |

The following important points about college ELT arise from tables [2.3], [2.4] and [2.5]:

About 60 percent of the responding colleges offer 2-3 English lesson periods per week, which is not enough for satisfactory language-training. These four skills of language education cannot be properly taught with such a short time and weak intensity. Most of the respondent colleges provide reading-oriented English courses. One or two periods of language laboratory per week are offered at 50% of the responding colleges, but it is very hard to expect the intensive listening training through only 1-2 hour lessons per week. 'Writing' among the four functions of language is nearly neglected; only 4 colleges of 69 respondents give 'composition' lessons. 'Speaking' is also neglected: 11 colleges offer courses on 'speaking'. It could be a major problem to teach 'speaking' lessons to a great number of students, since there are about 70-100 students in one class. Based on the analysis of Table [2.5], it was discovered that most colleges concentrate on lectures on 'reading', but offer only 1-2 'language lab. or speaking' lessons.

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[TABLE 2.6]

PERCENTAGE OF CONTENTS ACCORDING TO COLLEGE ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS

| Contents | A*<br>(37) | B<br>(59) | C<br>(53) | D<br>(33) | E<br>(27) | F<br>(19) | G<br>(32) | H<br>(31) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Literature<br>(%) | 23<br>(62) | 25<br>(42) | 28<br>(53) | 13<br>(39) | 32<br>(81) | 10<br>(53) | 14<br>(44) | 16<br>(52) |
| Politics<br>(%) | 4<br>(11) | 4<br>(11) | | 9<br>(27) | 2<br>(7) | 2<br>(7) | 2<br>(7) | 2<br>(7) |
| History<br>(%) | 1<br>(3) | | | 2<br>(6) | 1<br>(4) | 1<br>(5) | | 2<br>(6) |
| Philosophy<br>(%) | 1<br>(3) | 3<br>(5) | 3<br>(6) | | 1<br>(4) | 3<br>(16) | 3<br>(9) | 2<br>(6) |
| Culture<br>(%) | 2<br>(5) | 3<br>(5) | 9<br>(7) | 3<br>(9) | | | | 2<br>(6) |
| Science<br>(%) | 3<br>(8) | 1<br>(2) | 5<br>(9) | 2<br>(6) | | 1<br>(5) | 6<br>(19) | 3<br>(10) |
| Liberal Arts<br>(%) | | 18<br>(14) | 3<br>(6) | | | | | |
| Education<br>(%) | | 4<br>(7) | 3<br>(6) | 4<br>(12) | 1<br>(4) | 2<br>(11) | 7<br>(22) | 4<br>(13) |

* 'A' to 'H' represent different textbooks for college English.

Next, it is important to think of what and how to teach for such a short teaching-time allocation. Above all, the content of the English textbooks should be analysed and reviewed. Chae (1984) found that most colleges used textbooks which were compiled on the basis of 'reading-centred' skill, completely neglecting writing, listening and speaking (see Table [2.6]). Chae points out that the communicative English applicable to actual life should be included in college English textbooks. Here, the term 'communicative' can be replaced by 'practical' which can be used as the medium of actual communication in real-life fields, such as in supermarkets, post offices, airports, restaurants, parties, conferences, and hospitals, of English speaking countries. In other words, the term contains the meanings of communicative competence (knowledge and skill for communication)

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and actual communication (the realisation of such knowledge and skill) discussed by Canale and Swain (1980). The learners' desire for and interest in English is growing as the country's trade with foreign nations has become more active, and people's contact with foreigners is more frequent than ever.

Chae (1984) distributed questionnaires to 1,500 students of Gyung-buk National University to ascertain their attitudes towards college English textbooks with which they were taught English. 82 % of the respondents said that they were not given enough opportunities to practise 'writing' and 'speaking', 61 % wanted to learn communicative English, and the majority of them were not satisfied with the teaching methods of general college English education.

Students wanted to participate actively in all sorts of classroom activities rather than just to sit and listen to their teachers' instructions passively (students were bored with it), which indicates that they prefer a student-centred lecture to an instructor-centred one.

Those who had completed the college English course expressed their opinions that 77 percent of them wanted to get more intensive speaking lessons than they had received, and 99 percent asked for communication-centred English lessons. The other requirements students asked for in relation to more relevant English teaching were mainly concerned with practical English, and few students took a serious view of the cultural or liberal arts of English. The students wished to be taught English for the following aims:

1. for the improvement of English conversation (59%)

2. for the improvement of listening competence (20%)

3. for the improvement of composition competence (20%)

4. for practical English (10%)

5. for education of current English (10%)

6. for training of English typing (7%)

7. for trading (business) English (1 student),

8. for the development of vocabulary (1 student).

In the above-mentioned investigation, Chae et al (1983) identified certain problems with college English:

1.    Time allocation to college English was not enough. 87.25% of the responding colleges offer only 2-3 periods of English teaching per week.

2.    Most colleges offered 'reading' oriented English lectures.

3.    Among the four skills of language teaching, the listening class was usually performed in the language lab., but the speaking class was rarely done in the lab. Only 5.4% of the colleges taught 'writing'.

4.    None of the colleges employed native speakers for education in college English.

Kim (1986) also found that the present college English courses allocate a very small amount of time and concern to listening and speaking practice, and that they regard reading English books related to students' majoring subjects as the main objective of ELT. Therefore, it is natural that the textbooks of college English should have been compiled according to this objective, which in turn has affected the decision on how to teach. It was therefore suggested that the content of the textbooks which influence the lesson to a great extent should be developed in accordance with students' needs, uses, levels of learners' proficiency, English lesson periods, teaching methods and their major.

The textbooks used at every college are usually designed in accordance with the actual situation in each certain college. Hence, college English textbooks seem to have some problems as follows.

First of all, they put too much weight on literary works since the department of English Language & Literature of each college is in charge of the syllabus design of the college English. Moreover, some of the literary works are those written by Joyce, Gardner, Faulkner, which are too difficult for students with a poor level of English to follow. Then some of the works are written by

19th-century British or American authors such as O. Henry, Edgar Allan Poe, and the 18th century-author, Jane Austin. These literary works written in old-fashioned expressions of English do not give much interest to the students with a relatively low level of English proficiency.

Secondly, the academic topics, especially scientific fields, are very much neglected in their college English books offered in the first year. More than half of the students belong to the natural science departments and accordingly most of the textbooks in their major courses offered in the second or third years are science-centred. Although it varies from institution to institution, students are offered English instruction related to their subjects, from their second year to fourth year.

Thirdly, practical and communicative English is almost excluded from the syllabus.

The frequency of American and British literary works figuring in 'College English' textbooks is indicated below in Table [2.7].

[TABLE 2.7]

**FREQUENCY OF THE SHORT STORIES AND ESSAYS FEATURING IN COLLEGE ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS**

| TITLES OF WORKS OR ESSAYS | NUMBER OF TEXTBOOKS WHERE EACH WORK APPEARS | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Luncheon | 10 | |
| 2. Automation | 6 | |
| 3. Why a Classic is a Classic | 6 | |
| 4. The College Students' Goal | 6 | |
| 5. Friendship | | 6 |
| 6. The meaning of Life | 6 | |
| 7. Indian Camp | 6 | |
| 8. I Believe | | 6 |
| 9. University Days | 5 | |
| 10. Bet | 5 | |
| 11. The Colors That Animal Can See | 5 | |
| 12. The Use of Force | 5 | |
| 13. The Strawberry Season | 5 | |
| 14. Reading | | 5 |
| 15. A Day's Wait | 5 | |
| 16. Albert Einstein | 5 | |
| 17. Advice to a Young Man | 4 | |
| 18. Books Abide as Life-long Companions | 4 | |
| 19. Discovering Strange Defenders | 4 | |
| 20. David Swan | 4 | |
| 21. If You Don't Mind My Saying So | 4 | |
| 22. In the Open Code | 4 | |
| 23. Letters to a Young Scientist | 4 | |
| 24. My Oedipus Complex | 4 | |
| 25. Attending Colleges | 4 | |
| 26. The Lady or the Tiger | 4 | |
| 27. The Road to Happiness | 4 | |
| 28. Warm River | 4 | |
| 29. Where Love is There God is also | 4 | |
| 30. Hopes and Expectations for the Y | 4 | |
| 31. Generations | 4 | |
| 32. A Secret for Two | 3 | |
| 33. A Test of True Love | 3 | |
| 34. A Miserable Christmas | 3 | |
| 35. Computers, Communication and Cognition | 3 | |
| 36. Conversations Without Words | 3 | |
| 37. I Have a Dream | 3 | |
| 38. I never Went to a College | 3 | |
| 39. Some Conclusion about Man | 3 | |
| 40. To Talk of Hollowed Things | 3 | |
| 41. The Cop and the Anthem | 3 | |
| 42. The Yellow Horse | 3 | |
| 43. The Next Eighty Years | 3 | |
| 44. What is the Use of Poetry | 3 | |
| 45. When to Say 'I am sorry'. | 3 | |
| 46. What Every Freshman Should Know | 3 | |
| 47. Understanding of Culture | 3 | |

Kim, 1986

Below are given tables ([2.8] & [2.9]) of the contents of two textbooks of so-called 'College

English for Freshmen', published respectively in 1985 and 1993. Changes are very evident between

these two versions in terms of variety of the titles selected. The version published in 1993 contains

much more variety, especially putting emphasis on cultural aspects, compared to the 1985 version.

Most of the 1993 version consists of new entries (short stories and essays) which do not appear in

the list of Table[ 2.7] and the 1985 version.

[TABLE 2.8]
CONTENTS OF ONE OF THE COLLEGE ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS PUBLISHED IN 1985

| TITLE | AUTHORS | PAGES |
|---|---|---|
| 1. A Midnight Visitor | | 5 |
| 2. Advice to a Young Man | Ernest Hemingway | 10 |
| 3. A Day's Wait | Ernest Hemingway | 18 |
| 4. Three Days to See | Helen Keller | 25 |
| 5. Pictures through the Air | | 35 |
| 6. Freedom of Speech and Press | Carl L. Becker | 44 |
| 7. A Case of Suspicion | Ed Wallace | 54 |
| 8. The Open Window | Saki | 61 |
| 9. The Best Advice I Ever Had | Vijaya Lakshimi Pandit | 69 |
| 10. The Man Who Couldn't Talk to Women | | 77 |
| 11. The Discovery of Penicillin | Daniel Stepen Halacy | 84 |
| 12. Where Love Is, There God Is Also | Leo Tolstoy | 94 |
| 13. Why Lincoln Grew a Beard | Hertha Pauli | 105 |
| 14. David Swan | Nathaniel Hawthorne | 114 |
| 15. Joe Dixon's Writing Stick | | 124 |
| 16. When to Say "I am Sorry" | Norman Vincent Peale | 133 |
| 17. Our Better Sides | Fred C. Kelly | 141 |
| 18. A Word for Autumn | Alan A. Milne | 146 |
| 19. The Luncheon | W.S. Maugham | 152 |
| 20. Doctor | Joseph Auslander | 162 |
| 21. It Happened on the Subway | | 171 |
| 22. The Colors that Animals Can See | H. Munro Fox | 179 |
| 23. A Retrieved Reformation | O Henry . | 190 |
| 24. A Test of True Love | S.I. Kiser | 208 |
| 25. How to Read Body Language | | 214 |
| 26. Knowledge Is Power-Not Wisdom | Robert A. Millikan | 223 |
| 27. The Wisdom of Tears | M.M. Hunt | 227 |
| 28. Hopes and Expectations for Young Generation | Arnold Toynbee | 236 |

Kim, 1986

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[TABLE 2.9]
CONTENTS OF ONE OF THE COLLEGE ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS PUBLISHED IN
1993

| TITLES | AUTHORS | PAGES |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Beauty | Susan Sontag | 1 |
| 2. Advice to a Young Man | Ernest Hemingway | 7 |
| 3. Grandmother's Victory | Maya Angelou | 15 |
| 4. Maya Angelou | Gayle Pollard Terry | 25 |
| 5. Conservatives and Liberals | Ralph Waldo Emerson | 37 |
| 6. Desperation Writing | Peter Elbow | 43 |
| 7. The Death of the Moth | Virginia Woolf | 49 |
| 8. Canadian Culture | Margaret Atwood | 55 |
| 9. My Wood | E. M. Forster | 63 |
| 10. Salvation | Langston Hughs | 69 |
| 11. Society and Intelligence | | 73 |
| 12. On the Philosophy of Hats | Alfred G. Gardiner | 77 |
| 13. Viewing vs. Reading | Maie Winn | 83 |
| 14. The Luncheon | W. Somerset Maugham | 97 |
| 15. On Going Home | Joan Didion | 105 |
| 16. The Gift of Understanding | Paul Villiard | 111 |
| 17. The Cosmic Prison | I oren Eiseley | 117 |
| 18. David Swan | Nathaniel Hawthorne | 123 |
| 19. The Myth of Sisyphus | Albert Camus | 131 |
| 20. Language | | 139 |
| 21. On Shaking Hands | A.G. Gardiner | 155 |
| 22. Tomorrow's Values | Alvin Toffler | 161 |
| 23. The Richer, The Poorer | Dorothy West | 165 |
| 24. What Every Yale Freshman Should Know | Edmund S. Morgan | 173 |
| 25. On Growing Old Gracefully | Lin Yutang | 183 |
| 26. David | Obi Chiejena | 195 |
| 27. A Fly's Eye View | Yvonne Bursn | 201 |
| 28. A Bridge to Unite | Anne Trotman | 209 |
| 29. Is Love an Art? | Erich Fromm | 219 |
| 30. Brothers to the Last | (Trans.) U.K. Choi | 227 |
| 31. Bridegroom Fox and Godfather | (Trans.) U.K. Choi | 235 |
| 32. Son or Father-in-Law | (Trans.) U.K. Choi | 245 |
| 33. King Billy is a Gentleman | Hilary Mantel | 251 |

Choi, 1993

The next problem is that the degree of difficulty of the textbooks is too high for the students.

This is because there is no close connection between the content of college English and that of

secondary school English. Kim (1986) found that most Korean students thought that their colleges

put too much emphasis on translating sentences and understanding the content, with analyzing the

syntax, and students were not satisfied with their instructors' lectures. Accordingly, the colleges should take this fact more into account when they design syllabi.

Kim (1986) concludes that the success or failure of college ELT depends upon many different kinds of factors: 1) student's preparedness for the lessons, 2) effective lectures by instructors (lecture variable), and 3) appropriate assistance system (or organization) supporting the teaching activities.

In particular, the students' preparedness (or readiness) for the lessons includes their basic English ability acquired at secondary school, zeal or attitudes for English (learning), effective habits and methods of studying English. The lecture variable includes teaching plans, teaching methods, textbook-selection, handing out and checking assignments, and evaluating methods. The assistance system includes class-size, policy for college English education, financial aid and facilities for education.

The above-mentioned investigators intended to establish whether college English education meets those factors at each college. In particular, they tried to find answers to the following questions:

1.      'Is the students' preparation satisfactory for the successful learning of college English?'

2.      'Is the college instructors' teaching effective?'

3.      'Is the assistance system of the college's supporting ELT appropriate?'

The result of the investigation showed that 1) many students lacked basic competence in English, that is to say, 24% of 407 students confessed that their basic English was not enough, and 71% of 52 instructors responded that many of their students needed more basic competence in English before they learnt college English, and 2) there were a variety of levels of students' English competence. 63% of the lecturers considered the gap among students' English competence to be too wide. 3) Students showed that of the four skills they had most confidence in 'reading' and the least confidence in 'writing' and 'speaking'. This may be a fair reflection of the amount of time devoted

to each skill. This may also be a fair reflection of the fact that production skills (speaking and writing) tend to develop more slowly than receptive skills (listening and reading).

The students' motivation, attitudes and zeal for studying English were generally high. 56% of them showed sufficient determination to improve their English to a satisfying level during college, 95% recognised their needs for English to get jobs and for further study after they finished their college English course.

The result of the investigation of the students' English learning showed that students regarded it negatively rather than positively. That is, 53% of them did not prepare for their lessons, 70% did not ask any questions when reading essays in the class, 50% were afraid of speaking to native speakers, 74% of them did not listen to the radio or watch TV for their English broadcasts, or read English periodicals (newspapers, journals, etc.). However, 80% of the students had good habits of looking up words in the dictionaries when they read English books.

The instructors' teaching plan/schedule (which tended to be used as the main teaching manual for ELT lessons) seemed to be neglected. 86% of the instructors responded that they made their teaching schedule just for the schedule's sake, roughly according to the so-called 'process sheet'.

Concerning the appropriateness of the college English textbooks, various problems were identified by the investigation: Some of the respondents thought that the quantity of their textbooks was satisfactory (47% of the students, 58% of lecturers), while others it too much (47% of students, 42% of lecturers). The degree of difficulty of the textbooks was perceived as too high for the competence of the students (42% of the lectures). 39% of the students found the contents of their textbooks interesting, in contrast 20% of them found them boring.

The teaching methods the college English instructors adopted for their ELT were considered monotonous. The instructors usually adopted the cramming technique (46 percent), and 48 percent of the students were not happy about the teaching methods. Only 19 percent were satisfied with it.

One of the major problems in college English education was that a considerable number of students (34%) did not consider the ELT class interesting and 36 % of them thought that it did not stimulate their interest in English study. 39 % of them responded that their English competence did not improve as much as they had expected through the 'college English course', which means college English did not contribute much to the students' English acquisition.

Class size in college English was another problem, consisting of 55.70 students on average, 72.30 in the maximum and 44.25 in the minimum (Kim, 1986).

There appear to be various opinions on the purpose of teaching English in Korean universities and colleges. Song (1975) stated that the purpose of teaching the students at colleges was to focus on the reading approach, paying attention to cultural points rather than practical ones. Song also found that many lecturers considered that the contents of the textbooks should be easy and the editors and makers of the textbooks should take more account of problems of sequencing and of the system of rules that underlies the language, while Kim (1986) disputes this statement and claims that the contents of college English are mainly composed of relatively easy and interest-centred literary works and entertaining essays. Han (1984) found out that only 26.7 % of the first year and 23.3 % of the second year students had an interest in English classes. In other words, the content of English did not interest the students and, therefore, failed to stimulate them to read, or encourage them to continue studying English in the senior years. Concerning the function of general English, students thought that to acquire the 'speaking' skill was the most important objective, which was different from many instructors who usually thought that the 'reading'and grammatical analysis of syntax were the most important.

In the purpose of teaching English in colleges and universities, students had different views from their professors. More than 55% of the students wanted to pay more attention to practical aspects than cultural ones. In view of this, we might change our present topics of essays and short stories into practical ones and we should lead our classes in the style of communication. In

sequencing, both the first and second year students wanted the lessons to be arranged with interesting topics above all.

Han (1984) found that the objective of individual study at home was perceived as helping in the reading of major subjects, entering graduate schools and getting jobs. Kim (1986) also found that considering English to be a tool or instrument for the better studying of the students' major subjects and for more effective reading of subject literature, whatever subject they may choose, the objective of learning English at colleges and universities should be to help the study of their major subjects. He also made suggestions for the development of college English textbooks on the basis of the data gathered by his research as follows:

1. Textbooks (including language Lab. textbooks) should be composed of interesting topics. The topics in the textbooks used at present do not fully attract learners, nor give them impetus to learn the language.

2. Students' views should be taken into consideration in ELT lessons. Instructors or teachers in Korean ELT try to make every single decision in choosing or compiling textbooks and in performing their lessons.

3. Each lesson should contain dialogues focusing on practical skills of English. As stated in previous sections, most of the college English textbooks put much weight on literary or written rather than practical expressions.

4. The development of vocabulary which students lack should be taken into consideration. In selecting textbooks and giving lessons, instructors seldom pay attention to the level of learners' vocabularies. In other words, they do not give any examinations to check students' vocabularies.

5. The sizes or volume of the English textbooks should be taken into consideration. In most cases, the entire contents of textbooks cannot be taught in a given time period, usually two

semesters (one year). On the other hand, the mode of binding of textbooks should be taken into account by authors and publishers.

6. Each lesson should be completed with exercises. Instructors should offer a confirmation-test or quiz in every lesson.

All of these suggestions should be matched to the situation of each school. Making a better textbook will require a great deal of preparation on the part of the authors.

With all the problems suggested so far about Korean college ELT under the present Korean educational context, colleges seem to be trying to improve levels of students' English competence and performance as well as to meet their needs. We can also infer that Korean college English is inconsistent. In other words, it does not appear to have any clear aims or objectives established by the colleges, teaching staff or by the learners. Most of the colleges use and follow the old-fashioned, traditional, so-called structural syllabus, and the English-language textbooks used at Korean colleges usually follow a structural or situational syllabus design.

## 2.8 Conclusion

In the present section, Korean culture, ELT in Korea and the relations between these two have been illuminated.

First of all, Korean culture is characterized by conservativeness, Japanese by sensitivity and realism, and Chinese by stability and perseverance. Korean people have hierarchical and vertical attitudes toward the superior and elderly people, and they are not so flexible in their way of thinking and their manner of life as the Japanese might be. Modernisation in Korea was relatively slow compared to those two neighbouring countries. The opening of the country to other countries was made as late as in 1876. The first English language teaching institute (called Dongmun School) was established in 1883 mainly to train official interpreters, rather than to teach English to the common

folk. Koreans are affectionate, humanistic, respectful, generous and obedient to others, but nonetheless, they are not very sensitive to other cultures and new ideas from outside.

Secondly, the present state and problems of ELT in Korean higher educational institutions may be summed up as follows:

1.  The medium of instruction of higher education is Korean, not English. Quite a few universities begin to offer lessons in some subjects through the medium of English, as of 1997.

2.  English is an elective subject to the 2nd, 3rd and 4th year students rather than compulsory.

3.  An American-type credit system operates and a set number of credits in English are usually prescribed in order to graduate.

4.  A certain level of reading and translation comprehension is attained but communicative skills are neglected. Although great emphasis has been focused on grammatical English, i.e. 'reading' and 'writing' skills, this factor alone has not been sufficient to enhance and promote English language communication. Therefore, it becomes necessary for the college to concentrate more on 'listening' and 'speaking' skills.

5.  Texts used at present are compiled by the teaching staff, including American and British literature-oriented contents, regardless of the students' needs or major subjects. Many students consider the ELT courses offered at their own colleges to be of no use to them at all.

6.  ESP (English for Specific Purposes) material is rarely found and used in Korean ELT programmes. The majority of the teaching staff do not seem to be very interested in ESP.

7.  Audio-visual materials are not used freely, though most institutions install language lab. apparatus and copies of a cassette-based course, often TOEFL oriented. Some colleges take advantage of copies of BBC video cassettes for their ELT programmes.

8.  Classes are too large - seventy to one hundred in one class on average. In such a huge class environment, even the most highly trained lecturers would find it challenging to manage effective learning.

9.  The proficiency level of English staff varies considerably, and may be relatively low, particularly in the communicative skills. Besides, few foreign staff are employed in Korean universities; working conditions in Korean universities do not seem to be attractive for foreign ELT staff, so that many of those native-speaking instructors working in Korean colleges are not qualified for ELT. Students ask their colleges to invite more native-speaking quality staff, but colleges are reluctant to employ them because of the cost, high salary, with accommodation and cars.

The Korean ELT, which seems to be struggling with dilemmas as illuminated above, is in a vital period of transition and therefore, needs to be more open to researchers' findings and suggestions.

In respect of teaching approaches, the structural or situational approach mainly pursues teaching tailored to pre-selected patterns or items for a certain context of situation. In the Notional-Functional approach, as clarified in Chapter Three, the language to be learned is defined by the objects of communication rather than by grammatical or structural criteria. This approach begins with asking questions such as; 'what are the notions that a learner will expect to be able to express through the target language?' In making a notional-functional syllabus, language learners' needs should be found in the very first stage, that is to say, what social and other constraints there are on the utterances. Through this, the range of structures, vocabulary, styles and idioms that are required can be identified (Currie, 1975).

The application of Functional-Notional Syllabus Design to the ELT in Korean universities is to be considered, in order to solve such dilemmas arising from inappropriate teaching approaches, policies, level of teachers' language competence and teaching environment (e.g. the size of classes).

The perceived needs of the learners should be identified so that more concrete teaching objectives, more effective methods, and better syllabus design may be developed by taking these into account. In addition, procedures or measures should also be taken to elevate the level of teachers' language competence and to reduce the size of classes equipped with proper teaching aids and facilities. Once learners' needs are identified, classes can be reorganized in smaller groups and teachers can be placed to help meet those needs.

Finally, ELT in Korea has been greatly influenced by its cultural characteristic, 'conservativeness', in several aspects; 1) ELT taught through the medium of the Korean language, rather than English (to keep national identity), 2) adherence to conventional ELT methods, and reluctant acceptance of new teaching methods, 3) lack of native speaking instructors in ELT institutes (partly because of economic problems), 4) late opening of the door to study abroad which was implemented for the first time in 1982, 5) limited concern by government and institutes to meet learners' needs and motivations for ELT, which are important variables in second- or foreign-language learning.

With these problems of ELT arising from the Korean cultural context indicated in the present chapter, the next chapter aims to clarify the concept and definitions of needs, motivation and attitudes as a prerequisite to the empirical investigation, since these three are important factors affecting the acquisition of second/foreign languages.

# CHAPTER THREE

# NEEDS, ATTITUDES, INTEREST,
## ANXIETY AND MOTIVATION

This chapter aims to present a theoretical framework for the key characteristics of individuals which influence their learning of a second or foreign language, and to illuminate these characteristics in relation to the investigation of the current research.

The definitions of key concepts influencing learners' learning of foreign languages, 'needs', 'attitudes', 'interest', 'anxiety', and 'motivation' will be clarified in terms of general psychology and then in more specific terms of foreign language learning. The present chapter will function as the basic theoretical literature from which research questions and hypotheses are derived.

## 3.1 Introduction

According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1992), predominant attributes influencing individual learners' achievement and proficiency in a foreign language tend to be grouped into three categories as follows: 1) Cognitive Variables which involve different aspects of cognition such as intelligence, language aptitude, language learning strategies, previous language training and experience, 2) Affective Variables which involve individuals' reactions to any situation such as attitudes and motivation, language anxiety, feelings of self-confidence about the language, personality attributes and learning styles, and 3) a miscellaneous set of variables which would involve age, or socio-cultural experiences.

In the socio-educational model of second language acquisition Gardner (1985) argues that the nature of cultural beliefs in a certain community will determine the extent to which cognitive and affective variables will influence language learning. Socio-cultural milieu as a starting point has an effect on both cognitive and affective variables, which in turn influence language acquisition contexts (formal

and informal), and which finally influence language learning outcomes. In the model, the individual difference variables are regarded as achieving their effect through their interaction with both formal and informal language acquisition contexts. Formal context refers to those situations such as a formal classroom, while informal context refers to situations outside classroom or school environments.

Gardner also argues in his model that cognitive variables facilitate learning by making for the smooth transmission of learned material, and that affective variables play their role by influencing the individuals' reaction to the learning environment. It is therefore proposed that both cognitive and affective variables would be directly involved in the formal context of learning a language. To put the point more specifically, cognitive variables directly influence the formal context but indirectly affect the informal context. On the other hand, affective variables directly influence both the formal and informal context, because learners can voluntarily participate or not in informal language acquisition situations. Learners who are motivated would take part in informal acquisition situations. In Gardner's model, the affective variable most clearly related to subsequent attainment is motivation. This in turn is influenced by attitudes, including perception of need and of interest, and by anxiety. Language attitudes, needs and interest are estimated as having a causal influence on motivation, and anxiety is judged as having a negative causal influence on motivation.

The affective variables (attitudes, interest, anxiety and motivation), including `Need' (and Perception of Need) in this, are chosen for the current research, because the affective variables seem to play a direct function in individual learners' reaction to the learning environment. It is assumed that it would be of potential benefit to ELT in Korea to establish how affective variables influence Korean learners of English in their own cultural situation, and so how Korean learners react to their learning environment.

Almost all of the research sources quoted in the present discussion are western, i.e. European, Canadian or USA, since there is very little research literature from Korea. The main purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to establish the theoretical foundation for specifying EFL learners' needs,

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attitudes and anxiety, and motivation, and finally to find possible connections between the international research literature and the current research study in Korea. In the following discussion, the issues of needs, attitudes, interest, anxiety and motivation are to be dealt with from general theories to FL theories.

## 3.2        Needs

### 3.2.1        Needs in general psychology

This section approaches the concepts of needs in relation to motivation in terms of general psychology. Needs, along with attitudes and interests, are one of the concepts which are involved in a broad concept of motivation.

Fontana (1995) states that satisfactory school learning may not be possible without sufficient motivation to learn.

As a simple answer to the question, 'Why do people do what they do?', Strauss (1992) argues that people behave to reduce their needs. A need is a requirement that must be met for optimal adjustment to the environment. Needs for survival, such as hunger and thirst, are called primary needs (Gibson, 1980). Motivation which has been investigated in the aspect of primary needs is treated as a *drive*, an internal stimulus which becomes painful if not satisfied. A different approach to the investigation of motivation can be conducted with reference to *goals* (D'Andrade, 1992). In short, the concepts of needs are likely to be narrowed into two components: a *drive* and a *goal*.

Needs are, accordingly, conceptualized in the following sub-section in the light of those two components, focusing on Murray's lists and Maslow's hierarchies of needs.

### 3.2.2        Concepts of needs

The definition of a need is clarified by several scholars in different ways. The concept of a need is defined as 'a biological or psychological requirement or a state of deprivation that motivates a person to act toward a fixed goal' (Darley et al, 1991:340). This definition of need bears the meaning that

people are motivated by the tensions the needs create to move towards goals that could satisfy the needs. Further definitions are specified by several psychologists as follows.

Hull (cited in Klausmeier, 1985) defines need as a state of the organism that requires some kind of action to reduce or satisfy it. Hull introduced the motivational concept, drive, and claimed that drive is based on tissue deficit that results in states such as hunger and thirst.

Young (1961) also regards need as equivalent to drive, motive or motivation. Needs are not easily perceived by the individual learner who may lack knowledge of what is necessary to attain one's objectives.

Mackinnon (1965) gave a brief and dynamic definition of needs, asserting that a need is a tension within an organism which tends to organise the field of the organism with respect to certain incentives or goals and to incite activity directed toward their attainment.

Cameron and Margaret (1951) have defined need as a condition of unstable or disturbed equilibrium in an organism's behaviour, appearing typically as increased or protracted activity and tension. These definitions illustrate the view that need is a tension, force, or push. Landy (cited in Oxford et al, 1994) registers two types of need theories based on needs that create tension until gratified: 1) hierarchies of basic needs and 2) need-achievement. With reference to those definitions of needs, two scholars' approaches deserve our more detailed consideration: Murray's and Maslow's theories of needs.

## Murray's construct of needs

Murray (1938), favouring the goal-striving approach, defined need as a construct that stands for one's perception and behaviour in the attempt to change an unsatisfying situation. Needs were seen as forces that serve to motivate behaviour, and so a need is a tension that leads the organism to move in the direction of a goal. The goal state is an event capable of releasing the felt tension. A need is, according to Murray, mobilized by an effective pressure (external determinant of behaviour), and the two forces combine to form a pattern of behaviour, or theme. A need may become established by the frequent

occurrence of a specific pressure. Therefore, a need develops and motivates behaviour only if an individual is exposed to a certain pressure.

Murray's view seems to suggest that behaviour is usually an attempt to avoid or release unpleasant tensions. Early events are seen as especially important because, once a need is created, it tends to perpetuate itself. Murray also suggests that once an individual learns how to reduce his needs, his behaviour within that context is likely to become habitual. It is thus possible to modify personality or behaviour patterns at any age to some extent, so that teachers and schools potentially can have some effect upon students' motivation.

An extensive category system of needs constructed by Murray was used for personality assessment in a research by Murray (cited in D'Andrate, 1992:24-6).

# TABLE 3.1: MURRAY'S LIST OF NEEDS-CATEGORY

| Category of Needs | Description |
|---|---|
| Needs Abasement | To obey external irresistible forces. |
| Needs Aggression | To attack others |
| Needs Autonomy | To get freedom. |
| Needs Achievement | To actualize one's desire or dream. |
| Needs Acquisition | To earn or grasp something. |
| Needs Affiliation | To win others' affection or love. |
| Needs Cognizance | To pursue knowledge. |
| Needs Contrarience | To be unique. |
| Needs Control | To control others. |
| Needs Defendance | To defend oneself |
| Needs Dominance | To influence others' behaviour |
| Needs Exhibition | To impress others. |
| Needs Harmavoidance | To escape from dangers. |
| Needs Infavoidance | To avoid humiliation. |
| Needs Nurturance | To help others in need. |
| Needs Order | To organize things. |
| Needs Play | To have fun. |
| Needs Rejection | To despise inferior others. |
| Needs Retention | To be frugal. |
| Needs Sentience | To seek sensuous impression. |
| Needs Sex | To seek an erotic relationship. |
| Needs Sympathy | To be loved by friendly others. |

**Maslow's construct of needs**

Maslow (1954, 1970) most conspicuously suggests an organisational principle for a system of needs. He has developed an integrated system of needs arranged in hierarchical order based on the relative importance of the satisfaction of the needs. In other words, higher-order needs do not develop until lower-order needs are minimally satisfied.

However, Maslow did not assume that each need must be completely satisfied in order for the next higher need to function. Rather he believed that each basic need gradually arises as its predecessor is relatively fulfilled (Gibson, 1980).

To exemplify more concretely the definition of basic human needs, Maslow (1970) lists the hierarchies of basic needs, as described briefly in the Table [3.2].

**TABLE 3.2  A HIERARCHY OF NEEDS: MASLOW**

| SELF-ACTUALISATION NEEDS |
| --- |
| (creative self-expression, attempts to satisfy ones curiosity) |

| AESTHETIC NEEDS |
| --- |
| (goodness, beauty, truth, justice) |

| COGNITIVE/UNDERSTANDING NEEDS |
| --- |
| (knowledge, symmetry) |

| SELF-ESTEEM/ESTEEM NEEDS |
| --- |
| (competence, approval, recognition, mastery experience, confidence in ones ability) |

| BELONGINGNESS/LOVE NEEDS |
| --- |
| (affiliation, acceptance, affection) |

| SAFETY/SECURITY NEEDS |
| --- |
| (security, psychological safety, freedom from anxiety) |

| PHYSIOLOGICAL/SURVIVAL NEEDS |
| --- |
| (food  drink  sleep) |

1. Physiological/survival needs:  The needs that are usually taken as the starting point for motivation theory are the so-called physiological drives. Two recent lines of research make it necessary to revise our customary notions about needs: first, the development of the concept of homeostasis, and second, the finding that appetites (preferential choices among foods) are a fairly efficient indication of actual needs or lack in the body. Homeostasis refers to the body's automatic efforts to maintain a constant, normal state of the bloodstream. Cannon (1929) has described this process for 1) the water content of the blood, 2) salt

content, 3) sugar content, 4) protein content, 5) fat content, 6) calcium content, 7) oxygen content, 8) constant hydrogen-iron level (acid-base balance), and 9) constant temperature of the blood.

Obviously this list could be extended to include other minerals, hormones, vitamins, etc. In a human being that was missing everything in life in an extreme fashion, it is most likely that the major motivation would be the physiological needs rather than any others. A person who is lacking food, safety, love, and esteem would most probably hunger for food more strongly than for anything else.

In cases where all needs are unsatisfied, and the organism is then dominated by physiological needs, all other needs may become simply nonexistent or be pushed into the background. Another peculiar characteristic of the human organism when it is dominated by a certain need is that the whole philosophy of the future tends also to change. For a chronically and extremely hungry person, Utopia can be defined simply as a place where there is plenty of food. As soon as one is replete, other (and higher) needs emerge and these, rather than physiological hungers, dominate the organism. And when these in turn are satisfied, again new (and still higher) needs emerge, and so on. One main implication of this classification is that gratification becomes as important a concept as deprivation in motivation theory, for it releases the organism from the domination of a relatively more physiological need, permitting thereby the emergence of other more social goals.

2. Safety/security needs: When physiological needs are relatively well gratified, there then emerges a new set of needs, which we may categorise roughly as safety needs (e.g. security; stability; dependency; protection; freedom from fear, from anxiety and chaos; need for structure, order, law, limits; strength in the protector; and so on). It may be generalised and stated that most children and, less obviously, most adults in our society generally prefer a safe, orderly, predictable, lawful, organised world, which they can count on, in which unexpected, unmanageable, chaotic, or other dangerous things do not happen, and in any case, they have powerful parents or protectors who shield them from harm.

Other broader aspects of the attempt to seek safety and stability in the world are seen in the very common preference for familiar rather than unfamiliar things, or for the known rather than the unknown.

3. Belongingness/love needs: When both the physiological and the safety needs are fairly well gratified, there will emerge needs for love and affection and belongingness, and the whole cycle will repeat itself with this new centre. Now people will feel keenly, as never before, the absence of friends, or relatives, or children. They will hunger for affectionate relations with people in general, namely, for a place in their group or family, and they will strive with great intensity to achieve this goal. They will want to attain such a place more than anything else in the world and may even forget that once, when they were hungry, they sneered at love as unreal or unnecessary or unimportant. Now they will feel sharply the pangs of loneliness, of ostracism, of rejection, of friendlessness, of ruthlessness. Such a need is called 'the belongingness and love need'.

4. Self-esteem/esteem needs: All people in our society (with a few pathological exceptions) have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem, and for the esteem of others. These needs may therefore be classified into two subsidiary sets. These are, first, the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and competence, for confidence in the face of the world, and for independence and freedom. Second, we have what we may call the desire for reputation or prestige (defining it as respect or esteem from other people), status, fame and glory, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, dignity, or appreciation. This is called 'the esteem needs'.

5. Cognitive/understanding needs: Curiosity, exploration, and the desire to acquire further knowledge are apparent in some people, which Maslow called 'need to know and understand'.

6. Aesthetic needs: Aesthetic needs are present in some individuals only and are inferred from the person's desire for beauty.

7. Self-actualisation needs: Even if all these needs are satisfied, we may still often (if not always) expect that a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop, unless a person's individuality is provided for. Musicians must make music, artists must paint, poets must write, if they are to be ultimately at peace with themselves. They must be what people can be. They must be true to their own nature. This need may be called 'the need for self-actualisation'.

There are certain conditions that are immediate prerequisites for the satisfaction of basic need. Such conditions as freedom to speak, freedom to do what one wishes so long as no harm is done to others, freedom to express oneself, freedom to depend on oneself, justice, fairness, honesty, orderliness in the group are examples of such preconditions for basic need satisfactions. Thwarting these freedoms will be reacted to with a threat or emergency response. These conditions are not ends in themselves but they are almost so since they are so closely related to the basic needs, which are apparently the only ends in themselves. These conditions are defended because without them the basic satisfactions are quite impossible, or at least, severely endangered (Maslow, 1954, 1970).

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## Interim implications

The implications of this hierarchy of needs classified by Murray and Maslow are relevant to many educational fields including second or foreign language teaching programmes. For instance, some questions arising from these hierarchical theories of needs are such as: 'Are we concerned with our students' basic needs in Korean culture and society, for instance security or safety problems in the context of threat from North Korea's nuclear weapons?' 'Are they well fed and sheltered?' 'Do they feel secure and welcome in the culture of the town and the school?' 'Are they respected as individuals, so that they may respect themselves?' 'Are they treated equally by their teachers?' 'Are they encouraged to become the type of people valued by their own Korean culture, or is the school in a well-meaning but insensitive way trying to turn them into pale imitations of an ideal from a dominant but alien culture?'

## Interim summary

After reviewing theories concerning needs in general psychology, and with the implications of needs related to the Korean cultural and educational context, an integrated construct of needs in foreign language learning and teaching derives as follows.

Slight differences (motive as a drive and motive as a goal) can be identified in definitions of needs made by Maslow and the others. Maslow's definition is unique in that human beings' basic needs are classified by several hierarchies to be gratified step by step. However, they share a common definition, which is a tension or force, a drive or motive towards a goal.

In conclusion, a need, therefore, is defined as a requirement of something for something (a goal or an aim to be achieved), discrepancy, a want or preference, and a deficit. In a simple comparison, needs seem to be states of deficiency or lack within an organism, and motivations are the tendencies to react that are aroused by needs.

Owing to this integrated definition of needs, the discussion in the following section will focus on the needs for foreign language and needs analysis in foreign language learning and teaching.

**3.2.3        Needs for a Foreign Language**

**3.2.3.1        Introduction**

In this section, an attempt is made to formulate a theoretical framework of 'needs for foreign language learning': needs within individuals, perceived by learners and teachers; needs within society, perceived by the Ministry of Education in Korea and by syllabus-design theorists in the international context.

Many educationists over many years (e.g. Giles et al, 1942) have taken the concept of need as the main guide to curriculum construction. It might be suggested that the curriculum be formed out of learners' felt or perceived needs, which is in practice much the same thing as to suggest that the curriculum be based on learners' interests. Not surprisingly, therefore, needs and interests are regularly coupled together and treated as synonyms, or near synonyms in educational curriculum and syllabus design.

**3.2.3.2        Functional-notional approach**

The type of syllabus most obviously relevant to needs in foreign language curriculum planning is the one based on functions and notions. A landmark in the history of foreign language (FL) teaching approaches is represented by the functional-notional approach developed by several bodies, but particularly through various efforts of the Council of Europe, beginning in the 1970s.

The advantage of the functional-notional approach to learning a foreign language is that it emphasises the fact that the learners are at the very core of the teaching programme. The learner's actual and foreseeable academic, social, and vocational needs will underlie the programme's linguistic and cultural content. Since the learner is the most important consideration, his needs should take precedence in organising the textbooks and teaching materials (Finnocchiaro et al, 1983).

Johnson (1982), however, draws attention to the danger of the application or adoption of a functional-notional approach to general foreign-language courses. He argues that grammatical competence is a part of communicative competence, and students should exploit the language structurally as well as exercise it functionally in real contexts. Item-grouping according to the functions of a language is grammatically dissimilar, and therefore, Johnson argues, the choice of a functional organisation seems to imply a degree of structural 'disorganisation'. Accordingly it is difficult to impose any kind of structural grading on a functional syllabus. Johnson (1982::94) offers three alternatives in foreign language teaching: 1) a grammatical approach at the lower levels followed by a functional approach for more advanced students; 2) presentation of language as a system of communication through a functional syllabus; 3) a mixture of structural and functional approaches at the elementary level.

The precise level of suitability of the functional-notional approach is likely to vary from culture to culture, since no single approach can provide for all the multi-dimensional needs of language-learning groups. Although the functional-notional approach may in many ways be suitable for European cultures and languages, it may possibly be less so for Korean or Japanese culture and languages. The main reason for less compatibility with the Korean culture than with the western European culture is presumably because in western Europe they are more attentive to individual needs, hence to the importance of learner-centred approaches and of functional-notional syllabuses as an expression of them (comparison of those two cultural characteristics was argued in Chapter 2).

However, in the Korean ELT context where grammatical and structural approaches appear to have been the major teaching methods at schools, but where many language materials labelled 'functional' are shown in bookshops, there is undoubtedly a case for introducing this approach to schools. Since no evidence is available concerning the application of a functional-notional approach to Korean ELT, one of the Johnsons' three alternatives or all of them at a time can be employed on a small scale and gradually on a large one.

One of the fundamental principles underlying learner-centred FL programmes is that FL

learning and teaching programmes should be sensitive to learners' needs and so needs analysis is an

essential requirement in the search for FL learning goals (Brindley, 1994:63).


### 3.2.3.3 Needs Analysis in Foreign Language Teaching

There seems no full consensus on a definition of needs in the context of second/foreign language learning

(Brindley, 1989/1994; West, 1994). As Richterich states:


> The very concept of language needs has never been clearly defined
> and remains at best ambiguous.' (Richterich, 1983:2).


Brindley (op cit) and Widdowson (1979) identified 'the main source of this ambiguity as

the distinction or even contradiction between various concepts of need: necessities or demands (also called

objective, product-oriented or perceived needs), learners' wants, (subjective, or felt needs) and the methods

of bridging the gap between these two (process-oriented needs).' (Widdowson, 1979. Cited in West,

1994:3). The term 'need' is often seen open to several interpretations (Richterich, 1983; Porcher, 1983;

Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, cited in West, 1994:9-11).


**Classifications of needs analysis**

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) classify six different forms of needs which may be seen

to reflect different standpoints and to raise different patterns of needs analysis.

First of all, *necessities* are 'the type of need determined by the demands of the target

situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation'

(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:55, cited in West, op cit). The needs-analysis approach identifying these

necessities is called *target-situation analysis* (TSA) which helps to establish the learners' language

requirements in the occupational or academic situation. TSA procedure is designed to determine how

much English was used and to provide a justification for TESP (Teaching English for Specific Purposes) courses but it did not give a clear picture of what the language was used for.

Secondly, *deficiency analysis* (DA) has been developed to take account of learners' present needs or wants as well as requirements of the target situation.

The third type of needs is wants: 'what the learners want or feel they need' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987:57, cited in West, op cit). These needs are called *subjective needs* which are difficult to be generalized, and so are unforeseeable and indefinable.

The fourth approach is called *strategy analysis* focusing on the specification of methodology of learning a language rather than analysis of what to teach.

Fifth, West (op cit) maintains that argument on practicalities and constraints in implementing needs-based language courses was provoked after the failure of Munby's model ('Communication Needs Processor' which will be discussed in the latter part of this sub-section) to take account of matters of logistics and pedagogy, eventually ended up with creating *the means analysis* or *ecological approach* in which course designers should consider how plans can be implemented in the local situation.

Lastly, *language audits* in which data about the current state of language needs in the sector is provided and which develop an integrated policy or strategy have become important as a response to changing economic and political circumstances. Accordingly, the first step in designing programmes and materials of language teaching should be to identify the cultural context of the programme, including patterns of language use in the society.

## Fundamental questions in needs analysis

To conduct those six analyses of needs effectively, some fundamental questions have to be answered. Needs analysis of a learner is based on information about the learner. The central question

of concern to the syllabus designer is: 'For what purpose or purposes is the learner learning the language?' There are many other subsidiary questions, indeed it is possible to collect a wide range of information.

Language teachers or researchers have to begin by studying seriously who our language learners really are. What age are they? Are they learning a foreign or a second language (in the now generally accepted meaning of those terms)? Are they learning this language for everyday intercourse, for job requirements, for personal enrichment and broadening of their educational experience, for reasons of ethnic curiosity or attachment, in order to understand and interact with a coexistent community, to fulfil school or college requirements, as a tool for study purposes (particularly through listening or reading materials), as an additional skill to enhance a professional career, just for curiosity or love of language, because of a personal relationship, because they want to travel (for pleasure or business), as a necessity for research? Each of these indicates a somewhat different orientation to the learning task. How can we continue to think in terms of one approach and one prototype set of courses in the curriculum? How then do we proceed? A questionnaire on students' perceived needs is a good start, but it cannot supply all the answers, since the questionnaire constructor begins with certain assumptions that determine the questions the students will address. Even a section for free response may not provide sufficient information, because not all students have a clear idea which they can articulate of what they would like the language course to provide.

In a practical sense, the first task in conducting a needs analysis is to decide on just what data need to be collected, when they should be collected, by whom, through what means and for what purpose or purposes. Some information can be collected before a class starts. Concerning the time to implement needs analysis, needs analysis should be carried out before, at the start and during the training course. Needs analysis performed in advance of the course is called 'off-line' analysis where the course designer has sufficient time to prepare a syllabus and materials needed. The analysis done during the course is called `on-line' or `first-day' needs analysis where trainees set to start their course. One of the main weaknesses of this analysis is that the trainer has little time to prepare a detailed course outline in

response to any needs identified at that point. The needs analysis taking place during the course is from the realisation that learners' needs, or, at least, their perception of their needs, will change or will become clearer as the course proceeds.

Accordingly, research should be started with a questionnaire on students' perceived needs and therefore needs analysis, which needs to be supplemented by teacher observation and attentive listening to students and community (Rivers 1983:137).

The methods to carry out needs analysis vary from research to research, ranging from major 'scientific' surveys to informal tools put together by an individual teacher for and with his class. Jordan (cited in West, 1994:7-8) lists ten methods of collecting data for needs analysis:

1. pre-course placement/diagnostic tests,

2. entry tests on arrival,

3. self-placement/diagnostic tests,

4. observation of classes,

5. surveys based on questionnaires,

6. structured interviews,

7. leaner diaries,

8. case studies,

9. final evaluation/feedback and

10. previous research.

### Munby's Communicative Needs Processor (CNP)

To highlight learners' needs and to apply analysis of those needs to the syllabus designs of language learning and teaching, Munby (1978, 1991) proposed a Communication Needs Processor (CNP) which captured much attention for a while as the most comprehensive approach to needs analysis. Munby's Communication Needs Processor assumes that learners with particular needs will have been pre-

identified or pre-specified by agents or processes outside the syllabus-design model itself. CNP is a particular model of language needs analysis which enables the course designer to produce a detailed profile of what the learner needs to be able to do in English in the occupation or studies for which he is being trained, and is also the most sophisticated application of needs analysis to language syllabus design.

Information about the learner, his/her age, nationality, gender, mother-tongue, is fed into the CNP which consists of a number of categories. After these categories have been worked through, one ends up with a profile of needs. The categories included in CNP are all concerned with the 'end-product' idea of learning. In other words, they deal with the student in his or her job, or profession, or subject. The following, in brief, are the relevant categories (Munby, ibid.: pp. 34-9).

1.      Participant: The data offers a minimum amount of potentially relevant information about the learner's identity and language. The data relating to identity tells us the participant's age, gender, nationality, and place of residence. That is to say, the question like 'Who are the learners?' should be asked.

2.      Purposive domain: This data establishes the type of target language, specifying the educational and occupational purpose for which the target language is required; Occupational/academic framework in general, study or job description in detail. Questions like 'Which study or occupational area will they need English for?' should be asked.

3.      Setting: Setting is concerned with the physical and psychological setting in which the target languages are required for use: the time and the place where the language is to be used. Questions like 'Where and when will they need to use the target language?' should be asked.

4.        Interaction: Learner has to know the interlocutor with whom he is going to communicate in the target language; for example, the status, age group and social relationship, and academic/educational level of him. Question like 'With whom?' should be asked.

5.        Instrumentality Constraints on the information relating to the medium, mode, and channel of communication; spoken or written language, formal or informal language, direct or indirect use of the language.

6.        Dialect: The learner may need to get accustomed to the dialect where he is expected to visit or stay, or to the accent. For example, American or British English, Scottish or Irish accent.

7.        Target level: This is the level of linguistic proficiency that will be required for the communication in a specific subject or field.

8.        Communicative event: This is concerned with what the participant has to do, either productively or receptively. It first identifies communicative events that result from the interaction of relevant inputs deriving from the prior identification of the participant's purposive domain, physical setting, role-set, and instrumentality requirements. What the learner will have to do in English or which communicative activities he/she will participate in are to be identified here.

9.        Communicative key: Communicative key is concerned with how one does the activities compromising an event; the manner in which communication needs to be carried out. 'In what tone the communication is carried out, i.e. in formal, in informal, or with authority or bias?' is asked.

The concepts of Munby's CNP are tailored mainly for the communicative needs of learners of a target foreign language. The framework of CNP is not flexible and wide enough to accommodate the culture and people of the target language. In this point of view, Munby's CNP scheme fits well into Gardner's instrumental motivation (which will be clarified in a subsequent section on

'Motivation') which is based on the advantages that can accrue if a language is known, e.g., academic achievement, occupational promotion, capacity to do one's job well, and ability to read useful material in the target language. Therefore, the CNP scheme seems to favour Gardner's instrumental rather than integrative mode.

The approach to syllabus design promoted by Munby has led, in some instances, to syllabuses with a narrow focus such as 'English for Motor Mechanics' and 'English for Biological Science'. The assumption behind the development of some such syllabuses is that there are certain aspects of language which are peculiar to the contexts in which it is used and the purposes for which it is used. For example, it is assumed that there are certain structures, functions, topics, vocabulary items, conceptual meanings and so on that are peculiar to the world of the motor mechanic and which are not found in 'general' English.

It is also assumed that different areas of use will require different communication skills from the learner, and that these need to be specifically taught for the area of use in question. If some needs analysis has been carried out to establish the purposes and needs of a given group of learners or of an educational system, a necessary second step is to translate them into instructional goals.

## Limitations of Munby's CNP

However, some limitations of Munby's CNP were indicated by several scholars. White (1988) points out two criticisms of Munby's CNP model. The first is that the Munby model does not address itself to the political, economic, administrative and personnel factors which inevitably influence planning and outcomes. The second criticism is the tendency of the Munby model to encourage needs analysis in the study or office instead of on the shop floor, as is clear from the examples which Munby himself provides. Whereas the Richterich approach to needs analysis encourages surveying the user community, Munby's model seems to encourage a 'hands-off' approach whereby the needs analysis, using the CNP, is analysis by remote control (White, 1988:89).

Richterich's (1980) approach to the definition of learning needs was based on an analysis of acts of communication in terms of language situations (defined by agents, the persons involved, and categories of time and place) and operations comprising the functions which the act of communication has to fulfil, the objects to which it relates and the means used to produce it. The categories developed can then be closely matched to a parallel analysis of learning needs.

The weaknesses of Munby's CNP have been further indicated by Coffey (1980), Frankel (1983) and McDonough (1984) as being inflexible, complex, time-consuming, and not leaner-centred. Munby's CNP has been criticized as a stumbling-block rather than a jumping board in the development of the needs analysis.

In consequence, simpler but more effective approaches or techniques for needs analysis than those listed above so far may provide second and foreign language teachers, syllabus designers, policy-makers, and the others concerned with most and best from needs analysis.

In the following sub-section, an attempt will be made to clarify the theoretical foundation of 'perception of needs' as it applies to identifying FL learners' needs.

### 3.2.4  Perception of Needs

The question in terms of perception of needs is 'who should decide what the language needs are?' (West, 1994). There may be three or four principal parties concerned with this issue: learner-perceived needs, teacher-perceived needs, society-perceived needs and policy-maker-perceived needs.

In the preceding sub-section (3.2.3.3) the concepts of needs were assumed to consist of necessities or demands (also called objective, product-oriented or perceived needs), learners' wants, (subjective, or felt needs) and the methods of bridging the gap between these two (process-oriented needs).

Establishing what the learners need to know involves determining what the learners' subjectively felt needs, teachers' perceived needs for their students' FL, schools' and society's demands are in learning the language, and then looking at the sorts of communicative behaviour which speakers of the

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target language engage in to achieve these needs and demands. So the questions in terms of those different needs for FL arise as to how these different types of need may be determined, and also how differences between them (e.g., between learners' felt needs for themselves and teachers' perceived needs for learners) may be reconciled.

The process of establishing what a given group of learners' need to know, whether by intuitive means or by collecting and evaluating information of some kind, must surely go on long before language teachers ever step into their classrooms. It is carried out when the writer of a language textbook sets out to write the book, when the programme administration sets up the programme and the courses in it, when the curriculum committee decides on course goals and course content and chooses the textbooks. On the other hand, perception of need may be related to level of proficiency and to opportunities. Greater proficiency may offer greater opportunity to use the language more widely, which gives wider perception of needs. Therefore, we may begin foreign language learning with one kind of perception of need, but as we acquire proficiency in the language this may open our lenses and allow us to perceive new and different needs.

### 3.2.5     _     An Integrated construct of needs in FL

After reviewing research and theories concerning needs in second/foreign language learning and teaching, the following conclusion can be reached:

When needs for FL are in consideration, the analyses of needs listed below contribute to the investigation of learners' need, derived from Section 3.2.3.3:

1. *target-situation analysis*, e.g., the learners' language requirements in the occupational or academic situation,

2. *deficiency analysis*, e.g., learners' present needs or wants as well as requirements of the target situation,

3. *subjective needs*, e.g., what the learners want or feel they need,

4. *strategy analysis*, e.g., the specification of methodology of learning a language,

5. *means analysis* or *ecological approach*, e.g., implementation of courses designed by course designers, in the local situation,

6. *language audits*, e.g., provision of data about the current state of language needs in the sector; development of an integrated policy or strategy as a response to changing economic and political circumstances,

7. *participant*, e.g., the data about the learner's identity: age, gender, nationality, and place of residence,

8. *target level*, e.g., the participant's target level of command of FL.

The aim of the application of those analytical procedures to the present research is to enable learners to establish their own aims and goals in FL learning, and on the other hand, to enable teachers, society and the government to identify their learners' objectives in language courses before selecting courses or materials.

### 3.2.6    Implications and conclusion for the present research

The general argument of this section is that accurate information on an individual learner provides foreign language teachers with useful ideas on what to teach and how to teach. Therefore, the attention of foreign language teachers should be paid to know their learners' identity and needs for foreign language before they start to teach. So, data to be collected for needs analysis will probably include biographical information such as language proficiency, age, educational background and so on. They can be collected either by teachers or by educational researchers or psychologists through various research techniques, e.g. questionnaire and interview.

For the present research, data on the perceived needs in the learning of English by learners (at Korean university level), by instructors, and by the community will be collected and analysed. Their ages, gender, educational and parental backgrounds, universities, and religions will be provided as

subsidiary data. The extent to which present needs are met and what kinds of measurements should be taken to meet deficiencies in needs will be investigated. The main goal to be achieved with the study of a foreign language (English in this research) will also be inquired into, because that is the central question of concern to the syllabus designer.

Statements to investigate English for learners' future aspirations are statements 37 to 40 of the students' questionnaire. These statements are different from questions about instrumental or integrative motivations in that they inquire about learners' needs of EFL for elitism and self-actualisation.

In conclusion, research-based information on individual learners, their goals in life and their perceptions of need will contribute to an improved understanding of methods of teaching and learning, syllabus design and policy-making for ELT.

## 3.3        Attitudes in Foreign Language Learning

### 3.3.1        Definition of Attitudes in Psychology

This section aims to review fundamental literature on the definition of attitudes, interest and anxiety to see how these factors influence motivation in FLL, and to draw some research issues from them.    _

Psychologists (Fontana, 1995; Klausmeier, 1985) define attitudes as the relatively persistent (but changing) orientations that individuals develop towards the various objects and issues they meet during their lives. Attitudes, therefore, contain elements of value and belief, and determine the direction of many activities.

Gardner defines attitude as 'everything from a mental and neural state of readiness to an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object' (Gardner, 1985, cited in Dodick, 1996:580).

According to Klausmeier (ibid.), attitudes are based on two components: 1) affective (emotional) and 2) cognitive (informational). The affective component of attitudes corresponds to feeling and emotion that one experiences in relation to an object, person, event or idea, e.g. something is pleasing

or disgusting; it is liked or disliked. If a person has a favourable attitude towards something, he/she approaches it. On the contrary, unfavourable attitudes leads to avoidance. The cognitive component of attitudes corresponds to the way in which a person makes a mental representation of an entity, e.g., one may possess a biased or stereotyped attitude towards German or towards French food.

Lemon (1973) calls attitude one of the most ubiquitous of all the terms used in social science. According to Lemon (ibid.), attitude refers to some aspects of an individual's response to an object or class of objects. Attitude can be described as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object.

Hereck (1986) lists several psychological functions of attitudes: 1) instrumental (prompted by our desire to see things arranged to suit our needs etc.), 2) knowledge-based (governed by our need to make sense of the world and of our lives), 3) value-expressive (associated with our moral beliefs and our self-concepts), and 4) socially adjustive (generated by our desire to feel a part of the social or political community).

Characteristics of attitudes vary from individual to individual: in some individuals, attitudes are acquired first, become solid and endure, while in others, attitudes change. They vary in their importance to differently organised segments of society, such as the community, state, and nation.

In the ensuing sub-sections, the definition of attitudes is elucidated in more profound and specific aspect in terms of second/foreign language learning.


### 3.3.2 Definition of attitudes in FLL

**Types of attitudes**

Gardner and Lambert (1959) suggested two significant kinds of attitudes: 1) attitudes to the people who speak the target language, 2) attitudes to the practical use to which the learner assumes he or she can put the language being learned. Stern (1983) classified these Gardner's attitudes into three types: 1) attitudes towards the community and people who speak the L2 (e.g., 'group-specific attitudes'); 2) attitudes

towards learning the language concerned; and 3) attitudes towards languages and language learning in general. Particular attention will be given to Gardner's two types of attitudes to see how they influence motivation in S/FLL.

## Attitudes and motivation

Within the literature of foreign language acquisition, the concepts of attitudes and motivation in second/foreign language learning are not always clearly distinguished.

However, Gardner and Lambert (1959) treat attitude and motivation as one complex of factors related to second language achievement. Spolsky (1969) states that subjects exhibit a particular type of motivation solely on the basis of their scores on a test measuring their attitudes towards speakers of the target language. According to Gardner (1979), the motivation to learn a second language has been conceptualised as a combination of a positive attitude (desire) to learn the language and effort expended in that direction. Accordingly, as mentioned in the beginning section of the present chapter, Gardner et al (1993) assumes that attitudes serve as a causally influencing factor on motivation so that motivation may be maintained and eventually transformed into action.

## Attitudes of integrativeness vs. instrumentality

The effects of attitudes on motivation and proficiency have been investigated in a large number of studies, notably those by Gardner and Lambert (1972). These researchers have related their findings to two basic kinds of motivation, which they call integrative and instrumental motivation (which will be more elaborated in Section 3.4 'motivation'). A learner with integrative motivation has a genuine interest in the second language community, and a learner with instrumental motivation is more interested in how the second language can be a useful instrument towards furthering other goals, such as gaining a necessary qualification or improving employment prospects. Gardner suggests that the effects of the two kinds of attitude are different:

'whereas the first set of attitudes is fairly consistently related to achievement, the second shows a more variable set of relationships' (Gardner, 1985:39).

From studies summarized in Gardner (1985), the measures most relevant to French proficiency are attitudes towards and interest in learning French as second language in Canada; the least relevant are evaluation of the French teacher and attitudes towards French Canadians. Proficiency is defined by Richards et al (1992) as the degree of skill with which a person can use a language, such as how well a person can read, write, speak, or understand language.

Gardner (1985) concludes that:

'it seems clear that attitude measures accounting for a significant and meaningful proportion of the variables are more relevant than others' (op.cit.;50).

Attitudes do not have a direct influence on learning, but they lead to motivation which does:

'Motivation in the present context refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language' (op.cit.:10).

Several researches undertaken by Gardner et al (1977, 1979) show that while greater motivation and better attitudes lead to better learning, learning another group's language does not necessarily improve one's attitudes to the group. Therefore, a student's motivation is causally influenced by two kinds of attitudes as discussed above: the first (integrativeness) is attitude towards the community and people and the second (instrumentality) is attitudes toward the language learning situation as a whole, including the teacher and the course itself.

**Perception of learners' attitudes**

Gardner and Lambert (1972) performed a survey focusing on the role of attitudes and motivation in second language learning. They stated that attitude itself was to be measured by asking a subject to evaluate an object:

'from an operational point of view, an individual's attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent' (op.cit.:9).

In practical terms, then, an attitude is a construct derived from a subject's answers to a number of questions about an object. Its establishment is subject to questions about the validity of the instrument used and the honesty of the subject's answers to the questions.

### 3.3.3 An integrated construct of attitudes in FLL

After reviewing the theoretical and empirical literature concerning attitudes in second/foreign language learning, the following conclusion suggests itself.

There seems to be no general agreement about what precisely attitudes and motivation consist of, nor of the relationship between the two. Gardner and Lambert are the main researchers who tried to connect motivation and attitudes in second language learning. The results of their findings demonstrate that attitude influences a subject's motivation to some extent. Namely, motivation is supported by attitudes and other motivational reinforcements (e.g. needs, desire, interest, experience of success).

The integrative and instrumental dichotomy as elaborated by Gardner and Lambert has been dominant and unchallenged for many years, but some of their limitations will be pointed out, and learners' additive motivations for FLL will be suggested by other researchers in the 'motivation' section of the present chapter.

Our next concerns are interest and anxiety in FLL, because the learners' level of interest and anxiety is of particular importance among the affective factors of learning second/foreign language.

### 3.3.4 Definition of interest

The term 'interest' or 'an interest' which is generally used as synonymous with a concern, a value, a dominant direction of thought and action, an occupation that is persistently important.

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The etymology of the word 'interest' namely, *inter* and *esse*, to *be between*, suggests that no gulf exists between material to be learned, lesson material, and the concrete mind of the pupil. The doctrine of interest in education is a sort of shorthand expression for a number of different motives, which focus on the recognition of the necessity of discovering points of genuine and intimate contact between the subject matter of instruction and the vital experience of pupils, an experience that exists and operates independently of attempts to master the subject matter.

Somewhat unlike 'attitude'(which is the predisposition or tendency to react specifically towards an object, situation, or value, usually accompanied by feelings and emotions), and 'motivation', (broadly considered, the process of arousing, sustaining, and regulating activity), 'interest' is defined (see Ahmed, below) as a subjective-objective attitude, concern, or condition involving a percept or an idea in attention and a combination of intellectual and feeling consciousness, based upon native curiosity, conditioned by experience.

Ahmed (1989) maintains that the concept of 'interest' has much in common with those of 'attitude' and 'motivation' in the sense of the 'inclination' and 'towards the appealing activities' characteristics. Referring to Evans (1965:92), Ahmed states:

> Attitude is the broader term, and an attitude represents a general orientation of the individual. Interest, on the other hand, is more specific and is directed towards a particular object or activity.(Ahmed, 1989:288)

In fact, displayed interest plays the role of a guide by which attitude is oriented. In other words, attitude indicates an orientation towards a particular object. Attitude towards its people, in a foreign language education, for example, can be generalised to the people, and to their culture on the whole. However, the fact that a person has a positive attitude towards English speaking people does not mean that one's attitudes are negative towards other foreign language-speakers.

Interest is more specific than attitude. It is usually 'interest in something' that is more attracting in comparison to other things. In consequence, interest in English as a foreign language means more inducement to the English subject and less or none to others. This is so because interest is the effect

of a person's likes and dislikes to a variety of activities. Interest is only one of the components of motivation, and plays the role of a motivational aid. Interest works a factor that would determine the intensity and strength of learners' and instructors' motivation to learn and teach English as a foreign language.

### 3.3.5        Anxiety

### 3.3.5.1        Definition of anxiety

Anxiety is defined (Western, 1996) as an experience of general uneasiness, a sense of foreboding, a feeling of tension arising from failure to complete a task satisfactorily, from unsuccessful past experiences or from discord with teachers' teaching. Anxiety is a normal feeling useful as an internal alarm bell that warns of potential danger. However, severe anxiety in education is an example of arousal that is too high for optimal learning. Anxiety can, therefore, be the cause or the result of poor performance at schools; it can interfere with attention to, learning of, and retrieval of information.

Fontana (1995) makes the following claim about the influence of anxiety on learning:

'From general classroom experience the teacher soon discovers that a moderate degree of anxiety can be a useful aid to learning, but that too much can have an inhibiting effect with it. Precisely what degree of anxiety motivates and what degree inhibits varies from learner to learner and from task to task. One of the most potent sources of anxiety in learners is the fear of failure.'(Fontana, 1995:148)

Yerkes and Dodson (1908), who produced so-called 'Yerkes-Dodson law', were the first who found a negative influence of anxiety in success at schools. Yerkes-Dodson law states:

'Moderate levels of anxiety act as motivators and improve performance, whereas high levels lead to inhibition and a deterioration in performance.' (cited in Fontana, 1995:197).

Since Yerkes and Dodson, many researchers have found that anxiety obstructs success in learning task (Covington & Omelich, 1987; Tobias, 1985; Hill & Wigfield, 1984; Paulman & Kennelly, 1984).

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## 3.3.5.2      Conception of anxieties in foreign language performance

Anxiety can affect students' learning of a foreign language by interfering with their communication tasks in the classroom (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). To the extent that learners feel anxious or insecure, there may be psychological barriers to communication.

Anxiety is likely to occur as a result of the nature of a situation, unsuccessful past experiences in language learning, and learner's personal factors. Gass et al (1994) argue that anxiety occupies an intermediate state between motivation and personality. Motivation is clearly related to anxiety in that if a learner is not at all anxious he/she is unlikely to be motivated to make any effort. High motivation with little subjective hope of achievement increases anxiety.

Anxiety in foreign-language learning can negatively affect a learner's attitude toward a target language. Samimy and Rardin (1994) found that anxiety was the main factor influencing lack of success among five affective factors relevant to community language learning.

Anxiety and motivation with other affective variables influence second language achievement in schools (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992, 1993a; Skehan, 1989, 1991).

Three types of anxiety have been identified as related to language learning: 1) trait anxiety, 2) state anxiety and 3) situation specific anxiety (Compton, 1997). Trait anxiety is felt when a person becomes anxious in any number of different circumstances (Spielberger, as cited in MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). State anxiety is felt as a fear that occurs at a singular moment in time, e.g. before taking a test. Situation specific anxiety has a construct like that of trait anxiety, but restricted to a specific context. Subjects are tested for their anxiety in a limited situation such as taking a test or speaking in public.

Some researches conducted by Swain and Burnaby show negative correlations between anxiety and language proficiency (cited in Scovel, 1978). Another research shows that high anxiety students have poor language skills even though their performance on native language and FL aptitude tests was within the average range (Ganschow et al, 1995).

**3.3.6        Implications and conclusion for the present research**

An individual learner's attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs about the referent (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The role of attitudes, anxiety and motivation is very influential in second or foreign language learning. Although attitudes do not have a direct influence on learning, they influence motivation: the combination of effort and desire to achieve the goal of learning and favourable attitudes towards learning the language.

Two kinds of attitudes, which are based on integrative and instrumental motivations, predominate over researches of the area. However, Oxford and Shearin (1994) suggest that those two motivational theories cannot include all possible kinds of foreign language motivation. Johnstone (1989) adds academic motivation to those two (which will be discussed in the section on 'motivation').

Favourable attitudes and high motivation affect positively the learning of a foreign language. However, the mode (favourable/positive and unfavourable/negative) of attitudes and the intensity of motivation vary with the groups, culture and environment to which a learner belongs. Attitudes are directly related to motivation, and motivation in turn is directly related to foreign language learning.   .

The present research is mainly concerned to obtain evidence relevant to: 1) attitudes and anxiety toward English and its native speakers, 2) perception of ELT and its instructors in the Korean context, 3) perception of national ELT policy, 4) degree of interest in English, 5) attitudes towards English skills, 6) difficulty of English, 7) cultural conflict in English acquisition, and 8) perception of English textbooks.

The statements of students' attitudes toward English native speakers used in the present research (with the actual questionnaire item - numbers also given) are:

1. student's structured questionnaire: statements 33-35

2. student's semi-structured questionnaire: 1-2

3. graduate's structured questionnaire: 1-2, 32-33

The statements of attitudes and anxiety toward English used in the present research are:

1. student's structured questionnaire : 25-29, 32, 36-41

2. graduate's structured questionnaire: 29, 35, 38

Statements of attitudes toward ELT offered at institutions are:

1. student's structured questionnaire : 69, 71-77

2. student's semi-structured questionnaire: 5-7

3. instructor's structured questionnaire: 66-70

4. graduate's structured questionnaire: 14

Statements of attitudes toward ELT instructors teaching at institutions are statements 80

to 86 in the student's structured questionnaire.

1. student's structured questionnaire : 80-86

2. student's semi-structured questionnaire: 8-9

3. graduate's structured questionnaire: 16

The statements of interest used in the current research are:

1. student's structured questionnaire : 46-47

2. student's semi-structured questionnaire: 28-30

3. instructor's structured questionnaire: 44-50

4. graduate's structured questionnaire: 44-50

In conclusion, the principal concern of the present research concentrates on student's attitudes towards English, English-speaking people, learning environment, instructors and their teaching methods, and national policy, and on student's anxiety and interest in learning English and instructor's interest in their teaching English.

**3.4** **Motivation**

**3.4.1** **Definition of motivation**

In the context of the classroom, 'motivation' refers to such characteristics of student behaviour as interest, alertness, attention, concentration, and persistence. These are motivational qualities of immediate interest to the teacher. According to psychological research and theory (Cofer & Appley, 1965), the term 'motivation' refers to energy released by deprivation or the appearance of an arousing stimulus. The term 'motives' related to the term 'needs', refers to all forces, internal or external, involved in the investigation, direction, and termination of behaviour (Lefrancois, 1980).

More precisely, the characteristics of motives have been summarized as follows: (Plutchik, 1980) 1) Motives are aroused by gradually changing internal states of the organism. 2) The basic condition for the arousal of a motive is the absence of something (emotions are typically aroused by the presence of something). 3) There are certain objects towards which motives 'naturally' tend to direct the organism (e.g., food, water, sex, mate). 4) Most motives tend to have a rhythmic character, showing more or less regular peaks and troughs of intensity.

A motive is an initiator of motivated behaviour and the action towards achieving the goal, arising out of desires and needs. When a person is motivated specifically, he/she is attempting to satisfy some perceived desire or needs. Needs are aroused or activated either by internal changes within the individual or by stimulus events in the environment. Once the internal change has taken place, the energy basis for goal-seeking behaviour is available.

**3.4.2** **Historical overview**

The word motivation comes from a Latin term signifying 'a moving cause', itself derived from motus ('moved'). Not until the 20th century, however, did 'motivation' seem to enter the vocabulary of philosophy and psychology to a significant extent.

In the one hundred years since the beginning of scientific psychology, motivation has received a great deal of attention. Around the turn of the century, instinct was a preferred explanation of motivation. At that time, 'instinct' was a rather vague concept, referring simply to tendencies a person is allegedly born with.

According to the hedonistic principle, human actions are governed by a calculus or combination of pleasure and pain. Although hedonism in this sense is a motivational factor, the full advent of motivational ideas among psychologists was not to come until the latter part of the 19th century. The origin of the concept of motivation was attributed to three individuals McDougall (1871-1938), Freud (1856-1939), and Woodworth (1869-1962). McDougall (1908) identified his point of view as hormic psychology, the term hormic being derived from the Greek word horme ('impulse' or 'striving'). He defined instincts as being the prime movers of conduct, stating that without them the organism would be inert. Purpose, goals, and striving he saw as the hallmarks of human conduct. He wrote that the instincts in human beings determine not only perception of and attention to relevant objects but also generate emotional excitement when such objects are perceived and produce impulses to act toward the objects in some way.

McDougall (1908) made a list of basic instincts from which all other tendencies and emotions could be derived as follows: flight (fear), repulsion (disgust), curiosity (wonder), pugnacity (anger), self-abasement (subjection), self-assertion (elation), parental-care (tenderness), reproduction, gregariousness, acquisition, and construction. The first seven of those instincts were said always to be accompanied by a characteristic emotion, indicated in parentheses. McDougall believed that the last four instincts did not arouse specific and well-defined emotions.

Like McDougall, Freud emphasised the irrational, impulse-driven aspects of human conduct and proposed that it rests on an instinctive basis. Freud was most especially concerned with the unconscious character of these motivational factors and suggested the existence of fewer specific instincts than did McDougall.

Woodworth, who brought the term 'drive' into the psychological lexicon, regarded instincts as useful concepts but distinguished two features in the preparatory and consummatory behaviour. One of these features he called the mechanism, the other the drive. Thus Woodworth distinguished between 'mechanisms' and 'drive' as two important components of action. His neutral term 'drive' served in lieu of the more controversial term 'instinct'.

### 3.4.3    Theories of motivation

Although there are a number of theoretical views of motivation, it seems fair to say that not one of them can be considered as fully adequate for an understanding of motivation in general. In a number of respects these theories are directly comparable. To some extent, the adequacy and comparability of the theories are difficult to judge in that they tend to define the problem and function of motivation differently, especially since their origins lie in attempts to cope with differing sets of phenomena.

Motivation is defined as a state within an organism that leads to goal-directed behaviour and is the concept we use when we describe the forces acting on or within an organism to initiate and direct behaviour. The concept of motivation is also used to explain differences in the intensity of behaviour.

Motivation is also characterised by the following features : 1) energy arousal; 2) direction of effort toward a particular goal; 3) selective attention to relevant stimuli (with decreased sensitivity to irrelevant ones); 4) organisation of response units into an integrated pattern or sequence; and 5) persistence of this activity until the initiating conditions are changed (Zimbardo, 1980).

### 3.4.4    General psychological approaches to motivation

Two general approaches to motivation, 'Need achievement theory' and 'Attribution theory', are considered as follows.

## Need achievement theory

In 1938 the US psychologist Murray (his 'Theory of Need' has already been discussed in section 3.2.2) identified motives as needs for achievement, affiliation, power, dependence, and succor. By the 1970s achievement motivation had been explored more fully than any of the others had been. McClelland et al (1953) suggested that different levels of the need to achieve are the result of previous learning experiences. 'Achievers' are those people who, on the basis of previous learning experiences, perceive new learning situations and problems as outside their present capabilities, but attainable with some effort. They are people who expect the world to contain reasonable challenges, and respond to such challenges. In contrast, low achievers are people whose previous learning experiences are discouraging and unsuccessful.

However, 'Need achievement' has been criticised within psychology in that it has not been found to improve the prediction of academic success, suggesting that the drive to achieve must be at a fairly generalised level. There have also been claims that achievement in learning situations may be dependent on the subject involved, with different motivational patterns appropriate to different disciplines (Jones et al. 1973), and also that different patterns of motivation may be gender-related (Mehrabian 1968). The 'Need Achievement' construct has not been used extensively in language learning studies, but when it has, it has not produced high levels of correlation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

## Attribution theory

Psychologists (e.g. Brown et al 1968, Greene 1985) have, in recent years turned their attention to attribution theory. Perhaps the best statement about attribution theory and research as it applies to education comes from Weiner (1972, 1980) who begins with the assumption that people attribute their success and failures to internal or external causes. Attribution theory assumes that the search for understanding (information seeking) is a mainspring of human motivation. This search for understanding involves asking 'why' questions including, of course, those such as 'Why did I get a lower

score than Martia?' or 'Why won't Jenny have lunch with me?' lead to attributional responses - attributing causes to successful or unsuccessful outcomes.

In school settings, the perceived causes of success or failure have been variously categorised (e.g. Elig & Frieze, 1975; Frieze 1976). Similarly teachers explain student performance using a variety of attributions (e.g. Cooper & Burger, 1980).

Such theories view as fundamental the way people attribute causes to events, and suggest that people vary in the way they do this. Four basic causes of achievement are postulated: ability and task difficulty (internal factors); effort, and luck (external factors). In principle people may attribute causes to any of these four factors. In practice people may be systematic in what they view to be important causally. Some people are more disposed to an 'effort' interpretation, others more to an 'ability' explanation. Some people are more wide-ranging while others judge causes only in relation to specific situations.

The tendency to attribute success and failure to either internal or external causes seems to be a relatively predictable and stable personality characteristic. However, it is less apparent in children under nine years old, who have not yet differentiated between such factors as ability and effort (Lefrancois, 1991). Children under nine years old equate effort with intelligence. At the age of 11, the child considers ability as a separate factor that contributes to success (Nicholls, 1978).

Individuals with a higher need for achievement tend to attribute their performances to internal factors, thus accepting personal responsibility for their success and failures. Those with a lower need for achievement are more likely to attribute their performances to external factors over which they have no control. Therefore, what is important for foreign language learning are those causative factors to which proficiency in the foreign language is ascribed.

Some aspects of attribution theory are relatively stable, and some are unstable. One's perception of one's general ability tends to be stable over time and one's perception of the difficulty of a given task is reasonably stable. However, the amount of effort we put out at a particular time varies, but

effort is within our control. Similarly, ability is an aspect of internal control that the subject carries with him, whereas the task and its difficulty are set by the experimenter or the teacher and are external to the subject.

If the internal factors of ability (language aptitude) and the inherent difficulty of foreign language learning are thought to be dominant, then the persistence of some learners will be likely to be lower. If, on the other hand, the external factor of effort is psychologically prominent, persistence and motivation may be higher since the learner may see himself or herself as having a potential impact on learning progress. Whatever the individual's post-learning experiences may be, the main measurement problem here is the need to assess learner beliefs about the causes of learning success. Therefore, motivation from a cognitive point of view is heavily dependent on what the person thinks about the task.

The implications for educational practice of motivational theory and research may be inferred from the above as being: 1) Learners are differently motivated. What works with one student may not work with another. 2) Students are more likely to work without extensive supervision if they see themselves as responsible for their own behaviour. 3) Competitive learning situations compared to cooperative learning situations increase self-punitive reactions to failure and greater self-esteem after success. 4) Efforts to make children feel that they are the origins of their own behaviour and not simply pawns pushed by external forces can be fruitful. 5) getting rid of anxiety in the classroom may make students feel more at ease but is likely to improve academic performance. 6) For humanitarian reasons teachers should try to enhance the way students see themselves. 7) Curiosity in the classroom requires the presence of novel stimuli. 8) Educators should consider the incentive system that operates in their sphere of influence (classroom, department, school).

3.4.5        Specific motivation for language learning

3.4.5.1      The instrumental and integrative motivations

Some S/FL learners progress faster than others because they are more motivated. 'What sort of motivations do learners (especially in the Korean cultural context) have and why?' These questions would be reasonably answered in the present research.

As briefly discussed in a previous section in this chapter, two representative types of motivation (introduced by Gardner and Lambert, 1972) have enjoyed popularity among researchers during the last two decades: 1) integrative and 2) instrumental motivation.

The integrative motivation is employed when a learner wishes to identify with the culture of the target language group, to identify himself/herself with and become a part of that society. Learners with integrative motivation would be inclined to read literature of the target culture, visit the target country on holidays, try to make friends with people of the target countries.

The instrumental motivation refers to motivation to acquire a language as means for attaining instrumental goals: promoting a career, selling goods to target country, and studying in the target country.

Maslow's levels of physiological and safety needs may be considered to overlap to some extent with Gardner's instrumental motivation, and his needs for belongingness to link with Gardner's integrative motivation. However, Oxford and Shearin (1994) argue that in the second/foreign language setting, needs are not related to physiological safety, although they often relate to emotional and psychological security. They maintain that second/foreign language learner's needs focus on the second level in the hierarchy and, when those needs are met, would relate to the third, fourth and the last levels in the hierarchy.

## 3.4.5.2    Prominence of integrative and instrumental motivation

Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1965, 1972) found integrative motivation to be a stronger predictor of achievement in French as second language than instrumental motivation for the development of communicative skills in the Canadian situation. Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Gliksman (1976) authenticated the prominence of integrative motivation in Canada and established that integrative motivation was a better predictor of French proficiency than was instrumental motivation.

Spolsky (1969) using groups of overseas students attending American universities found that students with integrative motivation were more successful in their English proficiency than those with instrumental motivation. Another American researcher in this area (Oller et al, 1988), however, established that Chinese-speaking ESL students in America had instrumental motivation for studying English.

The effects of integrative motivation appears weaker than instrumental motivation in situations where second or foreign languages are urgently required, for instance, English in Philippines (Gardner et al 1970), and English in India (Kachru, 1977). Lukmani (1972) found that female Marathi speakers in Bombay were more subject to instrumental than to integrative motivation.

Vijchulata et al (1985) investigated approx. 1,000 Malay students' motivation, relevant to their needs, for learning English in Universiti Pertanian Malaysia (UPM). Their main findings were:

1.      Malay students were integratively and instrumentally motivated in learning English. Generally speaking, they appeared to be slightly more integratively than instrumentally motivated.

2.      Those who majored in veterinary medicine and animal science were more instrumentally motivated than student of the other subjects.

3.      Students with a higher level of proficiency of English were more intensely motivated than those with a lower level.

4.      Malay students, especially with a higher level of proficiency, showed a strong desire for learning English.

5.      However, there was not any significant correlation between students' motivational intensity and their English grades, nor between their desire for English and their grades.

6.      On the whole, students rated themselves as below average in their various English skills.

These findings were not consistent with those of Gardner and colleagues. The learners' motivation to learn a new language, as Gardner and Lambert (1972) maintain, is determined by their attitudes towards the other culture/ethnic group and by their orientation towards learning that language. Malay people had more positive attitudes towards English speaking people and culture than Filipinos had. This difference may come from a difference in social needs for English between these two countries.

An investigation of Iraqi pupils' attitudes and motivation was performed by Ahmed (1989) who found that Iraqi pupils at the preparatory level were instrumentally rather than integratively oriented in learning the English language. Some key extracts, especially relevant to the current research, are summarised as follows:

1.      Iraqi pupils at preparatory level were instrumentally rather than integratively motivated to learn English.

2.      Pupils were encouraged differently according to their parents' level of educational attainment. Educated parents encouraged their children more than uneducated ones did.

3.      Pupils had positively perceived their teachers of English.

4.      Pupils had shown interest in learning English as a subject by itself.

5.      The majority of English teachers had expressed positive attitudes towards teaching English.

6.      Teachers had shown no differences in their attitudes towards teaching English, according to gender and years of experience.

7.        Teachers were fairly satisfied with their teaching jobs. Both teachers and pupils had shown negative reaction to tests.

8.        Teachers had perceived their pupils negatively.

Benson (1991) carried out a survey on attitudes and motivation towards English of 311 freshmen in a Japanese private university, with the purpose of establishing the nature of the primary motivation for the students to study English and the functions of English the students saw themselves as requiring. According to his investigation, many first-year students had not yet decided on their needs or uses of English in the future, and so they just learned English because it was a compulsory subject at their university. This conceptual ambiguity of the needs of Japanese students resulted in a rejection of instrumental motivation to learn English, even though some of them thought that English was useful for modern, international, urban, scientific and democratic purposes. Accordingly, the Japanese students give us the impression that they do not regard English as an essential tool for their lives in their social context. Of the four language skills, they were shown to have most confidence in reading, while they showed little confidence in their ability to handle listening and speaking. This finding seems similar to the evidence for English language learning in the Korean context quoted in Chapter 2. American English was the preferred model, though many showed interest in speaking English with a Japanese accent, which might be derived from the Japanese historical relationship with the U.S.

Barton (1982) investigated the relationship between motivation and success in the learning of foreign/second language on adult Chinese learning ESL and Hispanics at Pennsylvania State University. The results from Barton's research showed that there was no significant relationship between attitudes towards English native speakers (Americans in his case) and scores in English examinations in the case of Chinese students. This finding rejected the common assumption that a positive attitude towards target language is positively correlated with success in learning to speak that language.

Dodick (1996) conducted research on attitudes and motivation of high school foreign-language students in America through observation and interviewing three grade nine level 1 French

classes, and found it difficult to distinguish students' integrative motivation from instrumental motivation among learners at this level of maturity.

The research studies discussed this far, as condensed in Table [3.3], show significant differences in motivation between students in different learning contexts. Students from Western countries tend to be more integratively oriented than students from Asia, and so the type of motivation seems to be closely related to the context or background of the learners.

**TABLE 3.3 COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE STUDIES ON INSTRUMENTAL AND INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION**

| Researcher | Sample tested | Language tested | Findings |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Gardner and Lambert (1959,1965,1972) | English-speaking students in America and Canada. | French | High correlation between proficiency and integrative motivation. |
| 2. Spolsky (1969) | Groups of overseas students in American universities. | English | Integrative motivation and high scores in English. |
| 3. Oller et al (1977) | Chinese-speaking students in America | English | Instrumental motivation. |
| 4. Gardner et al (1970) | Philippines | English | Instrumental motivation |
| 5. Kachru (1977) | India | English | Instrumental motivation. |
| 6. Lukmani (1972) | Marathi-speaking high school pupils. | English | Proficiency significantly related to instrumental motivation. |
| 7. Vijchulata & Lee (1985) | University students in Malaysia. | English | Slightly integrative motivation. (Vet. students are instrumentally oriented.) |
| 8. Ahmed (1989) | Preparatory-level pupils learning English in Iraq. | English | Instrumental motivation. |
| 9. Benson (1991) | University students learning English in Japan. | English | Very slightly instrumental motivation. |
| 10. Dodick (1996) | High school students in America | French | A mixture of integrative and instrumental motivation |

(Elaborated from Ahmed, 1989)

### 3.4.5.3　　　New views for motivation research in FLL

According to Skehan (1989), motivation can, in principle, have several sources. One such source might be the learning activity itself (the Intrinsic Hypothesis). In such cases the stimulus for motivation would be the inherent interest of learning, because classrooms or learning situations might be attractive in themselves. Alternatively motivation might be influenced by the success experienced by the learners (the Resultative Hypothesis). Motivation would be a consequence rather than a cause of success. The individual may also 'bring' to the learning situation a certain quantity of motivation as a 'given', leading to the interesting question of why individual is motivated to the degree that he or she is (the Internal Cause Hypothesis). Finally there may be external influences and incentives, such as rewards contingent upon the learner succeeding or sanctions which influence performance (the Carrot and Stick Hypothesis).

In addition to Gardner's two types of motivation, other scholars have added further types, e.g. 'academic' motivation:

> 'This [academic motivation] does not imply a direct intention to be able to communicate spontaneously in the foreign language but rather to understand what it is, how it works and what it is used for. Powering this motivation may be a desire to gain insight into general processes of human language, cognition, communication, culture, civilisation or history.' (Johnstone, 1989:121)

Students who study language or literature (either L1 or L2), psychology, sociology, and missiology (studies for Christian missionary), may experience academic motivation. As far as South Korea is concerned, the number of Bible translator-missionaries who are to have sufficient knowledge of linguistics and to translate the Bible into tribal languages where the Bible in their own mother tongues does not exist is increasing nowadays.

Limitations of Gardner's motivations identified by recent researchers (e.g., Gass and Selinker, 1994) are that the results of Gardner's investigations are local to the Canadian situation rather than being globally fitting, and that Canada is not a typical milieu for social psychological factors related to the second/foreign language learning. Oxford and Shearin (1994) state that Gardner's motivation

theory might not include all possible kinds of second/foreign language-learning motivation. Ely (1986a,b, cited in Oxford and Shearin, 1994)) found three motivational clusters, the first two corresponding to integrative and instrumental motivation, and the third clearly centred on the need to fulfill a language requirement. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggest that motivation to learn a language has both internal and external features. The structure of motivation includes four internal, attitudinal factors: 1) interest in the second/foreign language based on existing attitudes, experience, and background knowledge on the learner's part; 2) relevance which involves the perception that personal needs such as achievement, affiliation, and power are being met by learning the second/foreign language; 3) expectancy of success or failure: and 4) outcomes (i.e., the extrinsic rewards felt by the learner). External, behavioural characteristics include the fact that the learner; 1) decides to choose, pay attention to, and engage in second/foreign language learning; 2) persists in it over an extended period of time and returns to it after interruptions; and 3) maintains a high activity level.

Oxford and Shearin (ibid.:17-21) assert that more research should be conducted in terms of various branches of psychology (e.g., general, industrial, educational, and cognitive developmental psychology) rather than social psychology only, as source of motivation theory in second/foreign language, and that accordingly there might be broader classes of motivation theories for the expansion of motivational research range as below.

1. *Need theories* which refer to motivations based on needs that create tension until satisfied, including job satisfaction, and need-achievement (fear of failure & fear of success), Maslow's hierarchies of needs. In terms of second/foreign language learning, learners' needs would correspond to Maslow's hierarchy, and learners would particularly focus on the psychological aspects of the second level in the Maslow's hierarchies, and when those needs are satisfied, would ascend to the third, fourth and final (self-actualisation) levels in the hierarchy;

2. *Instrumentality (expectancy-value) theories* which emphasise cognition and the individual's expectation of receiving a valued reward;

3. *Equity theories* which are related to a mathematical ratio of inputs (intellectual ability, personality traits, experience, psychomotor skills, seniority) to outcomes (grades, performance ratings, money, promotions, praise);

4. *Reinforcement theories* which attribute individual behaviour to the association of stimulus, response, and reward;

5. *Intrinsic/extrinsic motivations* which divide individual's behaviour into two motivations: intrinsic (without need for reward) and extrinsic (with need for reward or for accordance of penalty);

6. *Proximal goal-setting theories* which suggest that learners' behaviours are closely related to their accepted goals to achieve through the learning;

7. *Attribution theory* which refers to how causal ascriptions of past failures and successes influence future goal-expectancy;

8. *Learned helplessness* which refers to the belief that failure cannot be avoided, which develops as learners repeatedly experience feelings of failure;

9. *Self-efficacy* which refers to learner's judgement of his/her ability to perform a specific action;

10. *Self-confidence* which refers to the belief that he/she has the ability to achieve the goals and to yield fruitful results.

Domyei (1994:279-282) classifies three levels of FLL motivation in the purpose of conceptualising a general framework of FLL motivation as briefed below:

1. *Language Level*: Motivation related to various aspects of the FL, e.g., the culture(s) it bears, community where it is spoken, potential usefulness of proficiency in it. This level corresponds to the Gardner's integrative and instrumental sub-systems.

Table [3.4] presents an overview of the key ideas of the leading contemporary researchers in the field.

**TABLE 3.4 COMPARISON OF MOTIVATIONAL COMPONENTS BY PROPONENTS**

| Concepts | Gardner | Gass | Oxford | Dornyei |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| integrative | * | * | * | * |
| instrumental | * | * | * | * |
| need theory | | | * | * |
| goal setting | * | | * | * |
| equity | | | * | |
| reinforcement | | | * | * |
| attribution | | | * | * |
| learned helplessness | | | | * |
| self-efficacy | | | | |
| self-confid. | | | | * |
| course-specific | | | | * |
| teacher-specific | | | | * |
| group-specific | | | | * |

## 3.4.5.4 Integrated construct of motivation

After reviewing the most relevant research literature in respect of motivation in second and foreign language learning, an integrated construct of motivation is extracted by the present researcher as set out in this final section.

Motivation is associated with components such as interest in a second/foreign language, desire to learn the second/foreign language, attitudes towards learning the second/foreign language, attitudes towards the learning situation, desire to interact with the second/foreign language community, and attitudes towards the second/foreign language community. These components may change as students grow older. Although motivations for learning a second/foreign language come from learners' cultural background and beliefs, it is assumed that social, economic changes and environmental changes of second/foreign language classrooms can influence the learners' motivations for second/foreign language.

Learners' academic motivation for linguistic structure and applied linguistics (language teaching) would be reasonably explicit in the Korean cultural context (see section 3.4.5.3)

Of the various theoretical frameworks that encompass the key constructs of motivation for learning a foreign language, Dornyei's system seems to the present writer to be particularly appropriate. As already stated, this envisages three levels: language level, learner level and learning situation level. Reference will be made to this framework when the conclusions and implications of the present research are presented and discussed.

Thanks to Dornyei and others, there has been growing interest in motivation for language learning as a topic of interest to current doctoral researchers in the UK, including Ho who in her as yet unpublished doctoral thesis (University of Durham) sets out the following scheme:

Need + Goal =                        Orientation

Need + Goal + Desire          =   Attitude

Need + Goal + Desire + Drive/Effort     =   Motivation

This scheme is generally consistent with the understandings of these three key constructs

as elaborated in the present chapter and presents them in a neat, hierarchical order.

So far as motivation is concerned, the main constructs influencing the present research

will be: integrative, instrumental and (to a lesser extent) academic. This will permit eventual comparisons

to be made with previous research. These three constructs have been incorporated into the instruments for

data-collection as follows:


Statements of *integrative motivation* are:

1. student's structured questionnaire: 1-3, 5, 10, 13, 17

2. graduate's structured questionnaire: 3, 5, 10, 13, 19, 23


Statements of *instrumental motivation* are:

1. student's structured questionnaire: 4, 6-9, 11-2, 14, 16

2. graduate's structured questionnaire: 4, 6-9, 11-12, 14-8


Statements of *academic motivation* are:

1. student's structured questionnaire: 23 and 60.

2. graduate's structured questionnaire: 22

In conclusion, the principal concern of the present research focuses on who the learners

are, what sort of perceived needs as a final goal in learning of English as a foreign language they have, the

circumstances in which they will be using English in the future, whether the learners of English in the

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Korean context are instrumentally or integratively or academically motivated, their attitudes towards English, its native speaking people and their culture, and their attitudes towards present teaching learning conditions. Answers to such questions must be made before program objectives can be established and before choice of syllabus, method, or teaching materials can be made. Such information provides the basis for language curriculum development. Curriculum development requires needs analysis, development of goals and objectives, selection of teaching and learning activities, and evaluation of the outcomes of the language programme.

In the following chapter, the design of the present research will be depicted as a preparation phase for the appropriate accomplishment of an empirical research.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# RESEARCH DESIGN

# AND

# APPROACH

In the present chapter, research questions and hypotheses are drawn based on the theoretical framework reviewed in the preceding chapters. A research design involving sampling and methods of procedures for data-collection, is elaborated. In particular, the planning and conducting of the pilot study, and the construction of the questionnaires modified from preliminary study, are introduced, prior to the implementation of the empirical research.

## 4.1    Research questions

Those factors influencing the process of foreign/second language acquisition such as needs, motivation, interests, attitudes, cultures, and social requirements, are not easily identified.

The aims of the current research are concerned with the identification of the present state of Korean ELT as it is and of learners' role in it, the learner's perceptions of their needs, motivations and attitudes towards the learning of English, of its people and cultures within a particular cultural context named 'Korea'. Needs, motivations and attitudes are not seen as static, but as developing and changing. Thus the identification of them should be carried out on a continuous basis.

The research aims may now be formulated through the following research questions under two broad headings: Part A is related to Korean ELT policy and its implementation, Part B to the learners' conception and perception of it.

A. How is ELT conceptualized and implemented at national level, at institutional level in Pusan City, and at the level of individual students?

   1. What are the key components of national policy for ELT in Korea? What reasons are given for this policy? To what extent does it reflect societal, institutional and individual needs? In what ways has it changed in recent times?

   2. To what extent do the various institutions have an explicit policy for ELT? And on what is this policy based? To what extent does it reflect national and individual considerations?

   3. To what extent are policy at national, institutional and individual levels in harmony with each other concerning the present and the future? To what extent are there differences? What do these differences appear to arise from?

B. What constructs do students use when thinking about their ELT/ELL? Purpose? Needs? Attitudes? Anxiety? Interests? Motivation?

   1. What are the perceived needs in the learning of English by learners (college/university students in this study), and by instructors, in the cultural and social context of Pusan city in South Korea?

   2. Do social factors in the Pusan context affect their needs? If yes, what are they?

   3. What is the primary motivation for the students to study English? Are they instrumentally, integratively, or academically motivated?

   4. Do social factors in the Korean context affect their motivation? If yes, what are they? and in what way?

   5. What are the students' attitudes towards the English language, its native speakers and the culture of those countries which use English as their mother tongue?

6.       Do social factors in the Korean context affect their attitudes? If yes, what are they?

## 4.2  Research design

### 4.2.1  Sample

**The participants and location**

The subjects for the present research sample were $1^{st}$-year, $4^{th}$-year students and their English instructors/professors randomly chosen from twelve 4-year tertiary-level educational institutions (both private and national) located in Pusan city. Pusan, the biggest trading and industrial port and the second-largest city of some 5 million population, located in the southern part of the country, has witnessed a continuous increase in population as a result of manufacturing shipping factories which have been attracting people from rural areas who seek better occupational and educational environments for their children and for themselves. Accordingly, it is quite a natural phenomenon that the city holds a number of colleges and universities as well as many more 2-year junior colleges to accommodate the increasing number of students year by year.

Pusan city which is chosen as the place for conducting the empirical research of the present study has attracted much attention from the other parts of the country. Since the Korean war period (1950-1951), when Pusan city was used as a temporary capital city, large numbers of refugees have come down to Pusan from every part of the country, especially refugees from North Korea swarmed to settle down there. As Pusan is located in the southern part of the country, it served as the safest shelter for North Korean refugees from North Korean communist attackers.

Pusan, which was renamed as 'Pusan Metropolitan City' in 1995, is the second to Seoul, and the biggest trading port in the country both in population and land. It has also been developed as a location for major industrial complexes, e.g.: Changwon industrial complex, Sasang industrial complex, Ulsan-Onsan industrial complex, Gori atomic power plant, several fishery factories, trading companies and ship-building companies (in Ulsan and Ockpo).

The social context in Pusan seems to be attractive enough for rural dwellers seeking jobs and better education for their offspring. A variety of people with different backgrounds such as education, family, careers, religion, values, needs, and culture assemble in Pusan.

In terms of education, for example, there are various types of institutions offering specific and specialised subjects even from secondary-level to tertiary-level institutions: technological and commercial schools, art, foreign language and science institutions at secondary level; fishery, maritime, theological institutions at tertiary level.

In terms of religion, Buddhism, Catholicism, Confucianism, Protestantism, and other religions have their deep roots in this city, with especially Shamanism and Buddhism strongly and widely spread.

The characteristic feature of Pusan people (or Pusaners) is judged by people outside as quite strong and noisy when they talk, but as warmed-hearted on the other side. Nowadays, however, because of the above-mentioned social context in Pusan, the people from other areas outnumber the original Pusaners. In brief, Pusan has come to be a more heterogeneous place representing most aspects of Korean culture.

Under the contemporary Korean educational system, which is in many senses similar to that of the United States, the difference between college and university lies in the number of students attending the institutions. For example, a university consists of more than four colleges authorised by the Ministry of Education. However, because in 1994 the government abolished the conditions for different titling, irrespective of the size or the number of the students, many 4-year tertiary level colleges altered their names to universities (see Table [4.1]). There are fourteen colleges and universities in Pusan city listed in table [4.1].

[Table 4.1]

The tertiary level educational institutions in Pusan City, South Korea (listed in alphabetical order).

| (1) | Dong-A University |
|------|-------------------|
| (2) | Dong-Eui University |
| (3) | Dongseo Technological University |
| (4) | Gyung-Seung University |
| (5) | In-Je University |
| (6) | Korea Maritime University |
| (7) | Koshin Christian University |
| (8) | Pugyung University 1 |
| (9) | Pugyung University 2 |
| (10) | Pusan National University |
| (11) | Pusan National University of Education |
| (12) | Pusan Presbyterian Theological College |
| (13) | Pusan University of Foreign Studies |
| (14) | Pusan Women's University |

First ranked in alphabetical order, Dong-A University, which is operated privately, is the oldest and biggest general university in the city next to Pusan National University. Since its opening in 1947, it has expanded its range of departments both in social science and natural sciences, with a relatively good name especially in the departments of Politics, Law and Agriculture, and the recently-opened medical centre with the Department of Medicine. At present, it consists of 4 graduate schools and 11 colleges with 65 departments.

Dong-Eui University is a general university with several colleges in the field of natural science and social science and graduate schools, and uniquely in Pusan district, having a Korean herbal medicine department and its medical centre.

Dongseo Technological University is very newly established, mainly for contributing to the supply of educated and advanced engineers needed for the development of technology in the city and the area around.

Gyung-Seong University is also a general big university grown up from a women's music college established in the 60s, covering all fields of study. It enjoys a fairly good reputation in the arts, eg. music and painting.

In-Je University was established by a large hospital group to build up a strong medical role in the city. Recently the university has changed their original policy, expanding from a medical school into a general university.

Korea Maritime University is nationally established to pursue academic study in shipping and ship-building. It has been active in the development of the Korean maritime industry and the academic improvement of maritime studies, both domestic and international, for over 50 years. Since it was reorganised as a university with three independent colleges and a faculty of liberal arts and sciences on the 1st of March, 1992, it has been making efforts to internationalise itself, activate its management and promote its academic atmosphere. The idea of establishing this sort of typical university in Pusan seemed to derive from the fact that Pusan is the largest port in the country, contributing to the development of the city as well as the improvement of the country's international trade. Recently they opened several other departments including ocean law, administration, trade and even some of natural science.

Kosin Christian University is the unique and prestigious Christian general university, dedicated to being a true Christian institution of Higher Education for training a well-equipped Christian elite who exalt the sovereignty and glory of God and expand the kingdom of God in this world by the cultivation and education of scholars who are versed on the Reformed faith and ideology. It was started as a purely evangelical college and seminary by the Kosin Presbyterian Denomination. Accordingly, Kosin Christian University has a high-quality department in theology (4-year B.A. course) and theological seminary (3-year M.Div. course). It also has one of the biggest hospitals of its own in Pusan. Recently it has been extending its academic doors toward general study fields in natural science as well as in social science. The University has two campuses, one situated on the island of Yongdo and the other in Songdo. Included in the institutions operated by the University is the Koshin Medical Centre.

The Pugyung University 1 whose former name was the National Fishery University has a long

history, separated from the Fishery Department of Pusan National University, with its own uniqueness,

and recently was merged with Pusan National Technological University into one large general university.

This university aims at the training of elites in the field of fishery. However it is currently being converted

into a common general university. This is a strong tendency in Korean colleges and universities.

Pugyung University 2 began as an Open University offering only evening lectures until a few

years ago. Now however, it offers daytime lectures also, covering many academic and social scientific

fields, and recently was merged with National Fishery University into one large general university.

Pusan National University, founded in May 1946 as Pusan National College, is the most

prestigious national university in the Pusan area, and one of the best and largest institutions of Higher

Education in the country, with the longest history and biggest size, holding 12 colleges and 87

departments and 4 professional post-graduate schools. The University established numerous research

centres: e.g. a Language Research Institutes, the Institute of Chinese Studies, the Japanese Studies Centre

and the Social Survey Research Centre. The University currently has a sister College relationship with

several institutions abroad.

Pusan Presbyterian Theological College was very similar to Kosin University in its inception, in

that it was established by a Christian denomination called Chongsin (General Assembly) Presbyterian

Denomination, teaching only the Bible and evangelical theology and aiming to train the pastors who will

serve in the churches after graduation. The College has four high-quality departments: Theology, Pastoral

Ministry, Christian Education, and Women's Ministry.

Pusan National University of Education was established in 1946, aiming to train primary school

teachers.

Pusan University of Foreign Studies (PUFS) established with the objectives of cultivating

students of leading character and culture based on the belief of Christianity and democratic ideology, is an

institution with six colleges, two post-graduate schools and about 30 academic departments, including

English, Japanese, French, German, Spanish, Russian and Arabic. Though most general universities in Korea teach those foreign languages in their own ways, PUFS puts the strongest emphasis on teaching communicative aspects of the language rather than written or literary aspects.

Lastly, Pusan Women's University is the unique women's tertiary-level educational institution in Pusan, covering various academic fields and has a comparatively long history, established in 1969 with the opening of departments of Home Management, Nursery, Korean Literature, English Literature and Tourism guide. The University evolved into a general women's university, holding 4 colleges and 29 departments.

Because of the problem of accessibility, nine of the above-listed institutions were used for purposes of the 'student's questionnaire': Dong-a, Gyung-seung, Korea Maritime, Kosin Christian, Pusan National, Pusan Presbyterian Theological, Pugyung 2, Pusan Teachers', Pusan University of Foreign Studies.

[Table 4.2]

Characteristic features of universities in Pusan City

| NO. | NAME OF INSTITUTIONS | KEY FEATURES |
|-----|----------------------|--------------|
| 1 | Dong-A University | Law, Politics |
| 2 | Dong-Eui University * | Herbal Medicine |
| 3 | Dongseo University * | Technology |
| 4 | Gyung-Seung University | Art |
| 5 | In-Je University * | Medical |
| 6 | Korea Maritime University | Maritime |
| 7 | Kosin University | Theology, Medical |
| 8 | Pugyung University 1 * | Fishery |
| 9 | Pugyung University 2 | Technology |
| 10 | Pusan National University | General |
| 11 | Pusan Presbyterian Theological College | Theology |
| 12 | Pusan National Univ of Ed. | Teacher Education |
| 13 | Pusan University of F. S. | Foreign languages |
| 14 | Pusan Women's University * | General/Women |

* denotes the institutions that are not included in the current research.

### 4.2.1.1 Student-sample variables

Variables are of two different sorts: independent and dependent. According to Seliger et al (1989) a single variable which may be called the predictor will predict what will happen to a second single variable to which it is related in some way. The predictor variable is called the independent variable, while the variable about which predictions are made is called the dependent variable.

An independent variable is a factor which the researcher manipulates in order to see what effect any changes will have. Dependent variables, the central variables, are the means by which any changes are measured, and variables about which predictions are made.

First of all, dependent variables in the present research include:

1. Learners' needs for learning English

2. Learners' motivation for learning English

3. Learners' attitudes toward English and its native speakers and national, institutional ELT policy

4. Learners' perceptions of their instructors and textbooks

5. Instructors' attitudes toward English

6. Instructors' perception of their learners' level of English proficiency

7. Learners' reasons for learning English


Secondary, independent variables for this research consist of learners' variables as follows:

1. Institution

2. Academic majoring subjects

3. Gender

4. Age

5. Year-group

6. Religion

7. Proficiency level as established in the entry examination

Subject institutions, even if all of them are located in the same city, broadly divided into two main groups, national and private institutions, have their own unique environmental characteristics, for instance, teaching methods, facilities, class size, and academic ethos which might be a causal factor on changes in learner's attitudes towards and perception of their English instructors institutional ELT policy. National institutions are financially supported by the government and private institutions are self-supporting.

Academic subjects are also broadly divided into two main groups, that is, the social science group (humanistic faculty) and the natural science group (technological faculty). Students in those two groups may conceivably show sharp contrasts with each other in their needs and motivation for English study, because these two groups are categorised at their secondary schools according to their future paths in life.

Males and females under the strong influence of Confucian culture in Korea, where females' social participation is relatively limited, may show some differences in their needs, motivation and attitudes. Learners' age-groups are measured with 4 scales, 19-22 (first year group), 23-25 (fourth year group), 30-35 (before military duty), 30-35 (after military duty), since their needs, motivation and attitudes are assumed to change according to their age and their military experience at age of above 20 which is compulsory for all young people in Korea.

The current research is intended to measure the attitude changes over a four-year period of time through cross-sectional rather than longitudinal research. Cross-sectional research measures different age-groups at the same time, rather than following one particular group longitudinally as it proceeds from one age-group to the next. In particular, first-year and fourth-year groups are to be compared, since learner's attitudes and needs are flexible and adaptable from beginning period of their college life to the end of it.

Different types of religion, categorized as Buddhism, Catholic Christianity, Confucianism, Protestant Christianity, and other, give learners different sorts of influence on their learning of English: Buddhism and Confucianism are very traditional (or national), while Protestant Christianity and Catholic Christianity are less traditional (and more international). Protestant Christians in modern Korean society show a tendency to be more conservative in ethic and moral values than believers in any other religion. On the other hand, many Christians have a strong enthusiasm for overseas missions for which a fluent command of English is essential.

Students' attitudes towards English may be assumed to be influenced by their proficiency level in English obtained in the college entrance examination.

## 4.2.1.2 Instructor-sample variables

Instructor variables, also as independent variables, include the following elements:

1. instructor's institution

2. teaching careers or periods

3. studying or staying period in English-speaking countries, e.g. Britain or America

4. majoring subject at postgraduate level, e.g. literature, linguistics, English education

5. instructors' institutional environments and policy

Instructors' institutional environments, e.g. national or private institution, whose policy, facilities and financial support for ELT are varied from institution to institution may influence their teaching methods and their job-satisfaction.

Instructors' period of experience in teaching English may give different insights in teaching methods and in the selection of textbooks and teaching aids. The English-proficiency level of instructors with experience of studying or staying in (English-speaking) foreign countries should be higher than those without such experience. This might be assumed to lead to more self-confidence in the instructors themselves and perhaps in their students also.

Instructors' different majoring academic subjects may affect their teaching in various ways. For example, instructors who major in literature at postgraduate level may tend to teach literary rather than spoken content.

### 4.2.1.3 Graduates sample variables

Graduates were used as supplementary subjects to university students to establish what the needs of English in Korean (Pusan) society are and whether there are any changes in the concepts of English study between graduates and 4th-year undergraduates. Structured questionnaires were used as an instrument of data collection, and the content of these had much in common with those used for the undergraduates.

1.      Independent variables:

        a. Age, Career

        b. Company (working field), Present position

        c. Experience of visiting English-speaking countries

        d. Institution of undergraduate course

        e. Extent of use of English for job

        f. Skill(s) of English used most frequently for job

2.      Dependent variables;

        a. Attitudes towards English, people and culture

        b. Needs of English study

        c. Motivation for English study

A final independent variable that might conceivably influence respondents' needs, attitudes and motivation was parents' educational achievement. In the present research there were three levels for this: 'primary graduate', 'secondary graduate', and 'tertiary graduate'. Learners may have different needs and motivation for English.

The following figure (4-1) shows the independent variables that are assumed to affect the concepts of students, instructors and graduates selected samples:

[Figure 4-1]

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Distribution of variables within the students and instructors samples selected for the main study

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SampleVariables

1. Students       1.Institution

          a. Dong-a

          b. Gyung-seong

          c. Korean Maritime

          d. Kosin Christian

          e. Pusan National

          f. Pugyung 2

          g. Pusan Presbyterian

          h. Teachers'

          i. Foreign Studies


          2. Branch of Studying

          a. Social Sciences

          b. Natural Sciences


          3. Gender

          a. Male

          b. Female

**4. Age**

a. 19-20 (1st year group)

b. 22-25 (4th year group)

c. 30-35 (4th year, before military duty group)

d. 30-35 (4th year, after military duty group)


**5. Proficiency as established in Entry Exam.**

a. Elementary

b. Intermediate

c. Advanced

d. Highly Advanced


**6. Future hope to learn English**

a. Job in Korea

b. Job abroad

c. Entertainment

d. No specific plan yet


**7. Religion**

a. Christianity

b. Buddhism

c. Confucianism

d. Catholic


**8. Parents' Educational Level**

a. High

b. Medium

c. Low

**2. Instructors**

**1. Institution**

a. National

b. Private

**2. Teaching Career**

a. Short

b. Medium

c. Long

**3. Foreign Study/Stay**

a. None

b. Shorter than 1 year

c. 1-2 years

d. 3-5 years

e. Longer than 6 years

**4. Major Subjects**

a. Literature

b. Linguistics

c. English Education

**3. Graduates**

**1. Age**

a. Young

b. Middle

c. Old


**2. Company**

a. Industrial ('Blue Collar')

b. Office ('White Collar')


**3. Experience of visiting English speaking countries**


**4. Institution of undergraduate course**

---------------------------------------------------------

**4.2.1.4 Combination of sample variables**


As exemplified below, there might be several ways or methods of combining the independent variables to

get the most useful results.


-

[Figure 4-2]

**Combination formula of variables**

---------------------------------------------------------

A. Students' variables:

1. Institutions: 1 v 2 v 3 v 4 v 5 v 6 v 7 v 8 v 9

2. Years: year 1 v year 4 [1$^{st}$-year group (19 years old and above) of each institution; 4$^{th}$-year group (22

   years old and above) of each institution]

3. Age: 19/20 v 22/25, 25 v 30/35 (before military duty v after military duty)

4. Group based on the level of English proficiency at entrance examination: highly advanced v

advanced v intermediate v elementary achievement students

5. Gender: male v female

6. Religion: Christianity v Buddhism v Confucianism v Catholic v Others

7. Family background: parents' educational level high (tertiary graduate) v medium (secondary graduate) v low (below primary graduate)

8. Academic subject: Social Science v Natural science

9. Future Hope: job in Korea v job abroad v entertainment v no specific plan yet

**B. Teachers' (or course designers') variables:**

1. Gender : M v F

2. Teaching career : short v medium v long

3. Foreign stay : none v shorter than 1 year v 1-2 years v 3-5 years

4. Major subjects : literature v linguistics v English education

**C. Lecturers and syllabus designers of the English education department of each institution**

-

**D. Administrators/policy-makers of the Ministry of Education**

**E. Graduates' variables**

1. Gender: M v F

2. Occupation: Industry ('Blue Collar') v Office ('White Collar')

3. Age: 20s v 30s v 40s v above 50s

4. Academic subjects at tertiary level: Social Science v Natural science.

5. Undergraduate Institutions

6. Visiting experience of English speaking countries

### 4.2.1.5 Hypotheses

From the relationship between the fundamental theories clarified in Chapters 1 through 3 and the variables listed in the present chapter, a small set of provisional hypotheses are derived.

As elaborated in Chapter 2, Korean culture and tradition, which were originally formed by the beliefs of Shamanism and then strongly influenced by Buddhism during the Goryeo period and Confucianism during the Yi Dynasty, have been losing their typical attributes (e.g. closed mind or hermit-spirit, conservativeness) by the introduction of new religions (e.g. Christianity) and concepts (e.g. internationalization or globalization) in the modern age. On the road to greater economic development, Korea has recently been opening her door wide to other countries, which encourages young people to acquire foreign languages. Accordingly, most of the university students and graduates have needs and motivation for English for their better future, and so they have more open-minded and positive attitudes towards the English language, its native speakers and their culture.

Secondly, since in the Korean social context under the strong influence of Confucianism, education and scholars are highly valued, professors or lecturers at tertiary level are considered to be very satisfied with their profession of teaching English.

Accordingly, provisional hypotheses for the present research are listed as follows:

1. Korean students at the tertiary level are motivated to learn English as a foreign language.

2. There are no differences in the motivation of Korean students at the tertiary level to learn English as a foreign language according to the types of institutions, academic subjects, years, gender, age, parents' educational attainment, needs for English, and religion.

3. Korean students at tertiary level show no differences in being instrumentally or integratively or academically motivated to learn English as a foreign language according to the types of institutions, years, gender, age, parents' educational attainment, needs for English, and religions.

4. There are no differences in the motivation of Korean college/university students at tertiary level to learn English as a foreign language according to father's education and mother's education.

5. Korean college/university students at tertiary level have positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language.

6. There are no differences in the attitudes of Korean college/university students at tertiary level towards learning English as a foreign language according to university, academic subjects. gender, age, year group, and religion.

7. There is no relationship between students' marks in English in the University (Entrance) Academic Ability Test and their attitudes and motivation to learn the language.

8. Korean instructors/professors of English at the tertiary level have positive attitudes towards teaching English as a foreign language.

9. There are no differences in the attitudes of Korean instructors at the tertiary level towards teaching English according to instructors' institution, teaching career, length of overseas study and major subjects.

10. Korean instructors of English at the tertiary level are motivated to teach the language.

1. Korean students at the tertiary level are motivated to learn English as a foreign language.

2. There are no differences in the motivation of Korean students at the tertiary level to learn English as a foreign language according to the types of institutions, academic subjects, years, gender, age, parents' educational attainment, needs for English, and religion.

3. Korean students at tertiary level show no differences in being instrumentally or integratively or academically motivated to learn English as a foreign language according to the types of institutions, years, gender, age, parents' educational attainment, needs for English, and religions.

4. There are no differences in the motivation of Korean college/university students at tertiary level to learn English as a foreign language according to father's education and mother's education.

5. Korean college/university students at tertiary level have positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language.

6. There are no differences in the attitudes of Korean college/university students at tertiary level towards learning English as a foreign language according to university, academic subjects. gender, age, year group, and religion.

7. There is no relationship between students' marks in English in the University (Entrance) Academic Ability Test and their attitudes and motivation to learn the language.

8. Korean instructors/professors of English at the tertiary level have positive attitudes towards teaching English as a foreign language.

9. There are no differences in the attitudes of Korean instructors at the tertiary level towards teaching English according to instructors' institution, teaching career, length of overseas study and major subjects.

10. Korean instructors of English at the tertiary level are motivated to teach the language.

11. There are no differences in the motivation of Korean instructors at the tertiary level to teach English as a foreign language according to institution, teaching career, length of oversees study and major subjects.

12. There are no differences in the way Korean instructors of English are satisfied with the profession of teaching in general and that of teaching English in particular according to institution, teaching career, length of overseas study and major subject.

13. Korean graduates from the tertiary level have positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language.

14. There are no differences in the attitudes of Korean college graduates towards learning English as a foreign language according to proficiency of present English, visit experience of English speaking countries, British or American acquaintances and the nationality of English instructors at schools.

15. Korean college graduates are motivated to learn English as a foreign language.

16. There are no differences in the motivation of Korean graduates to learn English as a foreign language according to graduates' age, working career, institutions, grades in English at University, overseas visit, and having foreign acquaintances and nationality of Instructors.

What should be noted in the above-listed hypotheses is that 6 of them are 'directional', but 10 of them are 'null hypotheses'. Namely, directional hypotheses make a prediction about the direction of the possible outcome of the research. However, since it is difficult to prove a directional hypothesis conclusively, the research hypothesis is usually stated in the form of a null hypothesis. The null hypothesis is stated so that its falsification or rejection will lead to acceptance of one of the research hypotheses (Seliger et al, 1989).

### 4.2.1.6 Sample size

Small samples in a research investigation tend to magnify the effects of individual variation, thus presenting a possible distortion. There can be no absolute rule regarding the optimum size of the sample,

but the problem can be overcome to a large extent by increasing the size of the sample population so that it may be more representative of the target population as a whole.

For the present research there is no fixed number of subjects, with no fixed number of institutions. Questionnaires are distributed to all accessible institutions, and mailed to all of the lecturers of English/Education Departments of each institution in Pusan city.

### 4.2.1.7 The method of sample-selection

In cases where the samples are large and the population relatively homogeneous (as in the current research), purely random sampling is much easier to do than others because there is no need to define strata (Brown, 1988).

To achieve representativeness within the general population, a random sampling method is used in which subjects for research are selected at random from a much larger pool of potential subjects, and in addition the random assignment of the students will be selected on the basis of convenience and availability, because all are products of the same Korean educational system (even if there may be slight divergences across different institutions), and as such study English for six years prior to entry. For instance, the present researcher's acquaintances and associates as well as colleagues, who are teaching or working at sample institutions, were used as distributors of the questionnaires to their $1^{st}$-year and $4^{th}$-year students, randomly, with no criteria or rules of selection. In particular, one close colleague travelled from institution to institution, distributing the questionnaires both to his colleagues and his own students.

### 4.2.2  Instruments for data collection

There are different ways to elicit information concerning learners' needs for a second/foreign language. The procedure of collecting data related to the current research will depend partly upon accessibility to subjects. In other words, methods of collecting data will be more or less efficient according to whether the researcher has direct or indirect access to a learner's place of work or department

of study. In this respect, the main instruments for collecting information for the present research will be questionnaire and interview as follows:

1. Students' Structured Questionnaire

2. Students' Semi-structured Questionnaire

3. Students' Interview Questions

4. Instructors' Structured Questionnaire

5. Instructors' Interview Questions

6. Graduates' Questionnaire

In 'Needs Analysis' research, questionnaires are used mostly to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed, such as needs, attitudes, motivation and self-concepts. In the best-known set of studies on attitudes and motivation in second language learning, Gardner and Lambert (1972) over a period of several years developed and validated a large number of different questionnaires with accompanying scales that have been adopted or adapted by researchers in this domain in several countries.

However, Oller and Perkins (1978) and Oller (1981) point to flaws stating that, by using such questionnaire formats, the investigator has no real way of knowing what the learner was thinking when he or she completed the questionnaire. In a self-report format, the learners may select statements which, according to their own values, are self-flattering.

Alternatively, they may select statements which they believe the questioner would like them to select, regardless of what their personal views are. If we do not know what kind of values the learners are using in their choice of statements, we may be measuring something other than attitude or motivation with regard to the second/foreign language.

Despite the above-mentioned weaknesses, questionnaires possess certain advantages:

1.      Questionnaires can have access to large groups of subjects at the same time.

2.      The administration of data collected by structured questionnaires tends to be convenient and time-efficient.

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3.      Subjects have an opportunity to express franker opinions than in interviews, when the questionnaires guarantee anonymity of the subjects.

4.      Standardization can be achieved both because the same questionnaire is given to all subjects and because the data can be processed through PC statistical software.

The present research will mainly employ questionnaires to get quantitative information on motivation and attitudes towards learning a foreign language. Structured questionnaires which will be used as a main instrument of data-collection for the present research are considered for present purposes to be more efficient than open ones, because each question is precisely specified and the range of possible answers is given on the questionnaire as 'precodes', and can also be scored by computer and therefore accurate statistics can be obtained that are needed for the measurement of information. Unstructured questionnaires which include open questions to which the subjects are expected to respond in a descriptive manner may have a lower degree of explicitness. Structured questionnaires on the other hand which may require subjects to mark responses, to check agreements or disagreements, or to select among a number of alternatives have a high degree of explicitness (Seliger et al, 1989).


Accordingly, questionnaires which will be used for acquiring the responses to the present research questions should be clear, concise, unambiguous and uniformly workable. Hoinville et al (1978, 1980) suggest four main design considerations for a good questionnaire suitable for the study's aims and the nature of its samples:

1.      the questions of questionnaire must be easy to understand and to answer accurately and clearly;

2.      the questionnaire must be easy for the researchers to administer;

3.      the pre-coded answers on the questionnaire can be easily edited and transferred on to a computer programme;

4.      the questionnaire should be interesting enough to attract the respondents' full attention.

Cohen et al (1989) state that the postal questionnaire is one of the best forms of research in an educational enquiry. Especially, when interviews are difficult and time-consuming, a postal questionnaire would have several advantages over an interview. Cohen et al (ibid.) compared the merits/demerits of questionnaire and interviewing as follows: the number of respondents can be extensively reached by postal questionnaire, while it is limited by interviews. Clerks can be employed to collect data through postal questionnaire, while in interviews the researcher or well-trained interviewers are needed to do so. However, in a postal questionnaire, opportunities for asking are limited, while they are extensive in interview. Rate of return in postal questionnaire tends to be poor, while it is good in interviews (Cohen et al, ibid.)

Face-to-face interviews will therefore also be very helpful to obtain direct information regarding the learners. The purpose of the interview is to obtain information by actually talking with the subject. Interviews are personalised and therefore permit a level of in-depth information-gathering, free response, and flexibility that cannot be obtained by other procedures. The interviewer can probe for information and obtain data that often have not been expected. Usually a team of trained interviewers needs to be used to carry out fieldwork. The success of the interviewing will depend as much on the performance of this team as on the design of the interview schedule. However, disadvantages of the interview are that interviews can be time-consuming, costly, and often difficult to administer. Interviewees' answers can be distorted by faulty memory, by embarrassment about sensitive subjects, or by a tendency to exaggerate where self-esteem is involved or to be evasive where self-criticism is involved, or by personal characteristics of the interviewers or by the way the interviewers conduct the interview.

Interviews however can be particularly useful for collecting data on more covert variables by probing: encouraging the interviewee to give more detailed answers, or to clarify or amplify the answers. Probing is a key interviewing skill, particularly with open-ended questions, when respondents are asked to express their views in their own words, and the interviewer has to record them in full. Probing, however,

if carried out poorly, can lead either to loss of information or to the collection of biased information, therefore requiring skills in its handling.

Interviews may be open or semi-open, structured or semi-structured: open interviews provide the interviewee with broad freedom of expression and elaboration and often resemble informal talks. They allow one question to induce another without a pre-planned agenda of what will be asked. In semi-open interviews there are specific core questions determined in advance from which the interviewer branches off to explore in-depth information, probing according to the way the interview proceeds, and allowing elaboration, within limits of the content, sequence and wording which are entirely in the hands of the interviewer.

A structured interview is one in which the content and procedures are organised in advance. No elaboration is allowed in either the questions or the answers. This type of interview is usually employed when uniform and specific information is needed and when it is necessary to interview a large number of subjects. In administering semi-structured and structured interviews, the interviewer will use an interview schedule which lists the questions to be asked or the topics to be discussed, and provides space to record the information procedures during the interview.

In the present research, open or semi-open interview with questionnaire will be desirable so that the samples may rather feel free to express their opinions in relation to the needs of, motivation for and attitudes towards learning English without concealment.

For the present research, a structured questionnaire will be used mainly to identify 'Part B of the previous-stated research question', as follows:

1.  For what purposes do college students and their society need English.

2.  To what extent their needs of English are satisfied at present.

3.  What kind(s) of measures should be undertaken to meet their needs more effectively than now.

4.  What their motivations are for learning English.

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5.      To what extent Korean culture affects their learning of English, perceived needs, motivations, attitudes, and interests.

6.      What their attitudes towards English and its native speakers are.

7.      Their general views on their instructors' teaching and ELT national policy.

8.      Their preference with regard to the cultures of Korea and English speaking countries.

9.      English instructors' views on their own ELT job, textbooks, the culture of English speaking countries, perception of their students' level of proficiency, and national or institutional ELT policy.

Semi-open interview will also be used to collect more profound information on 'Parts A and B of the research question', as follows:

1.      The learner's views on the cultural differences they feel in English study.

2.      Their perception of needs for English study and why.

3.      Attitudes towards English and English-speaking people, and why.

4.      Their perceptions of teaching methods and textbooks used in their institutions.

5.      Their degree of satisfaction with the present college entrance examination in Korea.

6.  _  Their preference with regard to staying or getting a job in English-speaking countries.

7.      What the advantages or disadvantages of English study are to them as Koreans.

8.      The perceptions of Korean ELT policy.

## 4.2.2.1 The pilot study

If the consistency, accuracy, reliability and validity of the research can decide the success or failure of the research, it is important to gauge the quality of the procedure before it is administered in the actual research so that it may be still possible to insert changes and revisions if necessary. Accordingly, it was decided to develop and implement a pilot version of the data-gathering procedures before embarking

on the main study. This piloting phase gave the researcher opportunities to examine different data-collection procedures in order to avoid problems during the administration of the main research.

The type of information collected in the piloting is of two types:

1.    the time required to administer the instrument, and the clarity of the instruction,

2.    the reliability and validity of the instrument.


## Rating scales of questions

Often, items that aim to elicit opinions do so by means of a rating scale. At its simplest the scale may have only two possible answers - Yes/No or Agree/Disagree. This type of two-point scale and three-point scale questions were adopted in part for 'the Graduate Questionnaire' (See Appendix 6), but not any for the students' and instructors' questionnaires. More commonly, a four-point or five-point scale is used, which may take several forms. Some 'Yes-No' questions asked in 'the Graduate Questionnaire' for the present research are those which do not require information, but inquire simply 'whether or not'. For example, 'Have you got British or American acquaintances?' or 'Have you got any authorised English test scores or certificates?'

The analysis of data obtained from the above-mentioned procedures can be analysed mainly with the aid of rating scales which define different levels of agreement on five point scales, 1 being equivalent to 'strongly disagree' 5 equivalent to 'strongly agree', as in the Likert scale (Likert,1932) which asks individuals to respond to a series of statements by indicating whether they 'strongly agree' (SA), 'agree' (A), 'are undecided' (N), 'disagree' (D), and 'strongly disagree'(SD) with each statement. 'Strongly agree' may be assigned a weight of 5 points, while 'strongly disagree' may get a score of 1. In the questionnaires of the current research, favorable and positive statements and attitudes are reflected in high scores and negative or unfavorable ones in low scores.

Some researchers favour asking for marks out of ten, since it is an easy and familiar task to most respondents, but no uniform view has emerged on the best number of points to include in scales. Since

not all questions lead themselves to a simple yes/no or agree/disagree answer, some researchers prefer a 3-point scale or a 5-point scale: others prefer seven-point scales on the grounds that they offer more finely differentiated responses. In practice, however, five-point scales are probably the easiest to understand and generally sufficient for most purposes and relatively convenient to handle in analysis.

**Preliminary study**

For the current research, a five-point Likert-type scale was used in the structured questionnaire. Preliminary questions were formulated under sixteen categories. These were piloted with 150 students mainly from the Faculty of Natural Sciences in the present researcher's English class of Kosin Christian University (KCU) and a preliminary version of the questionnaire was developed and revised into a new one, with redundant and identical items eliminated. This new questionnaire (as a main version) then went through 100 students mainly from the Faculty of Theology of KCU.

The semi-structured student's questionnaire was distributed to 40 students of the English Department and 40 of the Missiology Department of KCU, which was subsequently modified and refined to be developed into the main one.

Preliminary pilot interviews were carried out with 10 students chosen randomly from the English Department in the form of group interview.

To check the validity of the questionnaire asking ELT instructors' views, two English lecturers, one professor of Korean language and one secondary teacher of English language read and revised the sentences of the questions. Two English instructors from two different institutions and one secondary (high school) English teacher re-read the questionnaires, so as to reconfirm the validity related to the research questions. In particular, agreement was sought that each item was a true reflection of the particular construct (e.g. instrumental indication, integrative indication) that it was intended to reflect. Seventy-five percent was regarded as the minimum level of agreement among the four persons involved (including the present researcher) on each questioning statement to be included within the questionnaire

forms of main research. All the statements confirmed to be included in the main questionnaires were agreed with by at least three or more of the four judges that they were related to the variables to be measured. At the same time, the Korean language professor of Kosin Christian University clarified any ambiguous sentences or expressions in Korean.

## Reliability

When it is not possible to administer a pilot, the researcher should compute reliability and validity after the instrument has been used in the main study and make the necessary adjustments, such as deleting certain items, before the data of the whole research is analysed. This helps to ensure that the data analysis is based only on reliable and valid data.

The criterion of reliability provides information on whether the data collection procedure is consistent and accurate. Different types of reliability need to be computed, depending on where the researcher suspects that inaccuracies in the data collection procedure could occur. When the researcher is using a data collection procedure which consists of a number of independent items, such as questions in tests or questionnaires, the researcher needs to establish whether all the items elicit the same information. For example, a researcher using a test intended to measure needs for a second language as in the present research has to find out whether all the items measure the same thing. For that purpose the researcher will employ the procedure of internal consistency reliability to provide that information. If it is found that some of the items do not measure needs, those items are then revised or removed from the test.

Reliability is expressed as a coefficient ranging from 0.00 to 1.00. The higher the coefficient, the more reliable the procedure is. Determining whether the reliability is acceptable depends upon what the commonly acceptable reliability for a procedure is. In general one would expect reliability to be at least 0.70 or 0.80.

One way by which reliability can be increased is through lengthening the data collection instrument by adding more items and questions. Another way is to remove the items that cause the problem or revise them by rephrasing or changing them.

## Validity

Another important criterion for assuring the quality of the data collection procedure is validity. Validity refers to the extent to which the data collection procedure measures what it intends to measure. There are five types of validity, all providing evidence for validity. Content validity refers to whether the data collection procedure is a good representation of the content which needs to be measured. Criterion validity provides an indication as to whether the instrument can be measured against some other criterion. Concurrent validity is to find out if two procedures correlate with one another. Predictive validity is another type of criterion validity which provides information on whether the procedure is capable of predicting certain behaviour. Construct validity is used when the researcher needs to examine whether the data collection procedure is a good representation of and is consistent with current theories underlying the variable being measured (Seliger et al, 1989).

The information obtained from pilot is then used to revise the data collection procedure, that is, to remove or modify items, to extend or shorten the administration time, or to clarify some of the tasks. It may sometimes be necessary to pilot the procedure again, but in most situations the researcher can now administer the procedure and collect the research data.

### 4.2.2.2  The main study

### 1. Students' questionnaire

To begin with, items of the students' structured questionnaire were categorised as follows:

['C' denotes 'Category' and 'A' represents for 'item of the questionnaire' as a computer code.]

C1 : Integrative motivation for English study for research question 'RQ B-4'

statement nos. in students' structured questionnaire: A1 A2 A3 A5 A10 A13 A17

C2 : Instrumental motivation for English study for 'RQ B-4'.

A4 A6 A7 A8 A9 A11 A12 A14 A16

C3 : Academic motivation for English study for 'RQ B-4'.

A23, A60

C4 : Interest in learning English for 'RQ B-4'.

A46-7

C5 : Parental Encouragement for 'RQ B-4'.

A70

C6 : Attitudes toward English for 'RQ B-5'.

A25-29 A32, A36-41

C7 : Attitudes towards English native speakers for 'RQ B-5'.

A33-A35

C8 : Difficulty of the Subject for 'RQ B-5'.

A48, 61-2

C9 : Cultural conflict in English acquisition for 'RQ B 6'.

A50 - A53

C10 : Attitudes towards English skills for 'RQ B-5'.

A58-60

C11 : Perception of textbooks for 'RQ B-2'.

A63 - A66

C12 : Perception of tests for 'RQ B-2'.

A67 - A68

C13 : Perception of ELT offered at institutions for 'RQ B-2'.

A69, A71 - A77

C14 : Perception of ELT instructors for 'RQ B-2'.

A80 - A88

C15 : Perception of national ELT policy for 'RQ B-2'.

A89 - A90

C16 : Desire for English proficiency (in terms of basic interpersonal communicative skills) for

'RQ B-5'.

A44

C17 : Opportunity to practise English outside classroom for 'RQ B-4'.

A78

However, since categories 10, 13, 17 and 18 have only one statement in each of them, more items and statements should be added for another small-scale questionnaire or interview.

Means and Standard Deviation (SD) of each item and Cronbach's alpha (or coefficient alpha or 'Alpha' (a), reliability coefficient, of each category were computed. Cronbach's alpha or coefficient alpha is a measure of internal consistency; that is, do all items within the instrument measure the same thing? Alpha is measured on the same scale as a Pearson r (correlation coefficient) and typically varies between 0 and 1. The closer the alpha is to 1.00, the greater the internal consistency of items in the instrument being assessed. At a more conceptual level, coefficient alpha may be thought of as the correlation between a test score and all other tests of equal length that are drawn randomly from the same population of interest.

A rule of thumb that applies to most situation is :

> .9 - excellent          > .8 - good,

> .7 -acceptable,         > .6 - questionable,

> .5 - poor,              > .5 - unacceptable.

Reliability, therefore, as mentioned in the above section, is expressed as a coefficient ranging from 0.00 to 1.00. It is important that the researcher obtain high reliability and does not compromise when this is not so.

According to the above computing system, categories 3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, and 18 showed low marks of 'Alpha'. Especially categories 5, 8, 13, and 18 showed very low ones, and so needed to be re-checked and modified.

## 2. Instructors' Questionnaire

A reliability analysis of the structured questionnaire for instructors' views was carried out according to nine categories as follows:

*C1 :    Perception of the Profession of ELT

    * A1-6, 34-50

  C2 :    Perception of textbooks

    A7-15

  C3 :    Views on medium of instruction

    A19-21

  C4 :    Attitudes towards culture of English-speaking countries

    A25-31

  C5 :    Teaching preparation

    A16-7, 22-3

  C6 :    Encouragement of students

    A18, 24

  C7 :    Perception of their students' level of proficiency

    A32-3

  C8 :    Perception of students

A51-56

C9 :   Perception of present ELT at secondary schools

A66 - A70

[* 'C' denotes 'Category' and 'A' represents for 'item' as a computer code.]

In those two questionnaires (of students and instructors), a number of items were deleted due to their low correlational and reliable values:

## 4.2.3   Construction of questionnaires and interviews

The students' structured questionnaire, students' semi-structured questionnaire and students' interview questions (which are in 'Appendices 1, 2 and 3') contain statements on the needs, motivation and attitudes of students of tertiary level to learn English as a foreign language.

The instructors' attitudes questionnaire and foreign instructors' interview questions (which are in 'Appendices 4 and 5') contain statements relevant to the attitudes and motivations of the instructors of English to teach the language. The graduates' questionnaire (which is in Appendix 6) contains statements relevant to the needs, motivation and attitudes of those who graduated from different institutions, working at social fields.

A general profile of the structure of each questionnaire is presented in the following section.

### 4.2.3.1 Students' Structured Questionnaire

**Respondents**

A sample of 826 students in Korean tertiary level universities and colleges.

**Purpose**

Identifying the needs and attitudes of students learning English as a foreign language.

**Analysis of Contents**

As a preface or introduction, nine items seeking information about respondents' identity are given on the first page. Information about respondent's university, department, gender, age, future hope, needs for English study and parents' educational achievement, score of English at entry examination and religion is sought for the purpose of seeing the extent of correlation with student's attitudes and motivation.

As a main body, instruction on how to complete the questionnaire is provided before 90 questions are answered. The questionnaire aims at measurements of both needs and attitudes at the same time due to the difficulty of accessibility to the same students as a previous measurement, although these two measurements could also be performed on separate days in order to ensure mental fatigue and boredom would not set in to affect the respondents' response to the questionnaire.

Respondents are asked to indicate their agreement with the given statements by marking the points on the scale which best represent their opinions and thinking. For each statement, five options are given:

1.  Strongly Disagree_____(SD)

2.  Disagree_____ (D)

3.  Undecided_____ (N)

4.  Agree_____ (A)

5.  Strongly Agree_____(SA)

This questionnaire comprises of a total of 72 items with 18 categories as follows:

| VARIABLES | TOTAL NO OF ITEMS | ITEM NO |
|---|---|---|
| **MOTIVATION** | | |
| 1. Integrative orientation | 7 | 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 13, 17 |
| 2. Instrumental orientation | 9 | 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 16 |
| 3. Academic orientation | 1 | 23, 60 |
| 4. Interest in English | 2 | 46-47 |
| 5. Parental Encouragement | 1 | 70 |
| Sub Total | 20 | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **ATTITUDES** | | |
| 6. Attitudes towards English | 12 | 25-29, 32, 36-41 |
| 7. Attitudes towards English native speakers | 3 | 33-35 |
| 8. Difficulty of the Subject | 3 | 48, 61-62 |
| 9. Cultural Conflict in ELT | 4 | 50-53 |
| 10. Attitudes towards English Skills | 3 | 58-60 |
| 11. Perception of Texts | 4 | 63-66 |
| 12. Perception of Tests | 2 | 67-68 |
| 13. Perception of English Lessons | 8 | 69, 71-77 |
| 14. Perception of Instructors | 9 | 80-88 |
| 15. Perception of national ELT policy | 2 | 89-90 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 16. Desire to learn English | 1 | 44 |
| 17. Interest in English | 2 | 46, 47 |
| 18. Opportunity to practise English outside classroom | 1 | 78 |
| Sub Total | 52 | |
| Total | 72 | |

Those 18 categories (variables), five for needs and motivation, thirteen for attitudes are decided as the ones to illuminate the concepts and psychological factors of needs, motivation, attitudes, interest and anxiety discussed in Chapter Three.

Variables one and two selected for assessment of needs and motivation are adapted from relevant and important items used by Gardener and Lambert (1972). The students' integrative orientation and instrumental orientation are assessed to classify their needs for learning English language. It is felt that needs analysis will be very useful in the planning of English courses of Korean universities and colleges. If students' needs are integratively oriented, English courses may be designed to be more general in terms of content. If on the other hand they are instrumentally oriented, English courses may be designed in order to assist students in acquiring the necessary language skills to a proficiency level sufficient for pursuing knowledge in their specific academic fields of study.

'Desire to learn English' is measured so as to offer insight into how strong is the students' desire or concern to learn English under Korean social pressure. For example, this variable in the present study includes: 'I wish I could speak English as fluently as native speakers' and 'I want to study two foreign languages.' The variable 'desire to learn English' is equivalent to 'desire for English proficiency' and is distinguished from those of 'integrative', 'instrumental', and 'academic' orientations (motivations).

'Parental encouragement' is included to obtain supplementary information which can be linked to other factors under study.

The responses to the questions are all coded to facilitate computer analysis. The 'SPSS PC+' programme was used to obtain frequency counts of the responses for each item and to compute their corresponding percentages. Other major types of analyses were used where appropriate. Explanation of the main purpose of each command or subcommand needed for the present research is given as follows:

1.  'Frequencies' command is used to sum the number of instances within a particular category. Under the 'Frequencies' command, information about value labels, the value code of each variable (the number associated with each level, e.g., male = 1, female = 2), the frequency, the percent of total for each value, and the cumulative percent at each level is to be obtained.

2.  'Bar chart' subcommand is used to create a visual display of frequency information.

3.  'Percentiles' subcommand is used to indicate what percent of a distribution lies above and below a particular value.

4.  'The Means' command is used to calculate the mean for each group. The standard deviation, and the number of subjects for each category.

5.  'F-Value' is to be calculated to determine if the standard deviations of several different distributions differ significantly from each other.

6.  A 'correlation' called the Pearson product-moment correlation or the Pearson r is designated by the lower case letter r, and range in value from -1 to +1. A correlation of +1 designates a perfect positive ($r = 1$) correlation. 'Perfect' indicates that one variable is precisely predictable from the other variable. Positive means that as one variable increase in value, the other variable also increases in value (or conversely, as one variable decreases, the other variable also decreases). Negative but not perfect ($-1 < r < 0$) correlation indicates a relation in which as one variable increases the other variable has tendency to decrease. Perfect negative ($r = -1$) correlation exists only in mathematical formulas and direct physical or numerical relations. As with most other statistical procedures, a significance or probability is computed to determine the likelihood that a particular correlation could occur by chance.

The significance (or p-value) represents the degree of rarity of a certain result. A significance less than .05 (p < .05) means that there is less than a 5% chance of this relationship occurring by chance.

## 4.2.3.2 Students' Semi-Structured Questionnaire

**Respondents**

A sample of 80 students in Korean tertiary level universities and colleges

**Purpose**

A similar purpose of investigation to that of the structured questionnaire: to obtain broader and deeper information than from the structured one.

**Analysis of Contents**

The same items as those of the structured questionnaire, which seek information about respondents' identity, are given on the first page as independent variables: namely, information about respondents' university, academic subject, gender, age, future hope, needs for English study and parental educational achievement, score of English at entry examination and religion is sought for the purpose of establishing the extent of correlation with student's attitudes and motivation.

The main body begins with three-point scale questions without any specific instruction on how to fill in the questions. This questionnaire consists of 33 statements with 13 variables: Statements No. 1, 2, 7-12 are structured questions with multi-point scale (from two to five point scale) and the others are semi-structured questions.

| VARIABLES | TOTAL NO. OF ITEMS | ITEM NO. |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Attitudes towards English native speakers | 2 | 1-2 |
| 2. Parental Attitudes towards English Study | 2 | 3-4 |
| 3. Perception of English Lessons at Institutions | 3 | 5-7 |
| 4. Perception of Instructors | 2 | 8-9 |
| 5. Self-rating of English | 4 | 10-13 |
| 6. Perception of Text | 1 | 14 |
| 7. Attitudes towards Foreign Life | 7 | 15-17, 20-23 |
| 8. Cultural Conflicts | 3 | 18-19, 27 |
| 9. Perception of College Entrance Examination | 2 | 24-25 |
| 10. Influence of Religion on English Study | 1 | 26 |
| 11. Interest in English | 3 | 28-30 |
| 12. Views on ELT Broadcasting | 1 | 32 |
| 13. Perception of National ELT policy | 1 | 31, 33 |
| TOTAL | 33 | |

The reasons why respondents answered as they did to the statements given in the structured questionnaire were sought in the semi-structured questionnaire, so as to probe in greater depth the sources from which these responses were derived. This was achieved through questions such as: 'What do you think of the English native speakers?' 'Where do these feelings originate?' 'In what way is ELT method in your university different, if any, from that of your secondary school?', 'Does your religion influence your learning English? If yes, in what way?' and 'Do you have any views on the national policy for ELT?'

Variables 5, 7, 9, 10, and 13 which did not figure in the structured questionnaire were added, because the significance of these variables was acknowledged in the light of correlation with the independent variables.

### 4.2.3.3 Student's Interview questions

**Respondents**

A sample of 20 undergraduate students in a Korean tertiary level university and 6 Korean students studying at Stirling University, UK. (2 postgraduates in Department of Aquaculture, 2 postgraduates in TEFL, 1 undergraduate in Department of Management and 1 undergraduate in Film and Media).

**Purpose**

Identifying the needs, motivation, attitudes and interest of students learning English as a foreign language, and comparing views of students at Korean institutions and those who have experiences of study at both Korean and British institutions.

**Analysis of Contents**

18 questions prepared beforehand, related to the same variables as those of the students' questionnaires (mainly semi-structured), were asked by the interviewer, and the interviewees' answers were recorded on audio-tape. All of the interviews took the form of a relaxed conversation. The tapes were transcribed in English for subsequent analysis.

### 4.2.3.4 Instructors' attitudes questionnaire

**Respondents**

A sample of instructors in Korean tertiary level universities and college.

**Purpose**

Identifying the needs and attitudes of instructors teaching English as a foreign language.

**Analysis of Contents**

As a starter, three items were asked as a background information on subject's identity. Instructor's institutions, length of career and length of stay in English speaking countries were used as independent variables which are considered to be correlated with the dependent variables.

Then, respondents were invited to indicate their agreement with a number of statements by marking the points on the scale which best represented their views and feeling. For each statement, five options were offered:

| 1. Strongly Disagree | ——————— | (SD) |
| 2. Disagree | ——————— | (A) |
| 3. Undecided | ——————— | (N) |
| 4. Agree | ——————— | (A) |
| 5. Strongly Agree | ——————— | (SA) |

The questionnaire, divided into two parts, comprises a total of 70 items with 9 variables (dependent) as follows:

| VARIABLES | TOTAL NO.OF ITEMS | ITEM NO. |
|---|---|---|
| PART ONE: | | |
| 1. Perception of the profession of ELT | 23 | 1-6, 34-50 |
| 2. Perception of textbooks | 9 | 7-15 |
| 3. Views on Medium of instruction | 3 | 19-21 |
| 4. Attitudes towards culture of English-speaking countries. | 7 | 25-31 |
| 5. Teaching Preparation | 4 | 16-17, 22-23 |
| 6. Encouragement of Students | 2 | 18, 24 |
| 7. Perception of Students' level of Proficiency | 2 | 32-33 |
| SUB TOTAL | 50 | |

| PART TWO: | | |
|---|---|---|
| 8.  Perception of Students | 15 | 51-65 |
| 9.  Perception of ELT at Secondary Level | 5 | 66-70 |
| SUB TOTAL | 20 | |
| TOTAL | 70 | |

The first part of the questionnaire includes seven variables relevant to attitudes towards the instructor's own profession of ELT and culture of English speaking countries and so forth; the variables in part two are relevant to their perception of their students and ELT at secondary schools.

The responses to the questions are all coded to facilitate computer analysis. The SPSS programme was used to obtain frequency counts of the responses for each item and to compute their corresponding percentages. Other types of analysis were used where appropriate: Pearson's product-moment correlation, t-test, and multiple range test, to establish relationships among particular factors.

**4.2.3.5 Foreign instructors' interview questions**

**Respondents**

Two foreign instructors in Korean tertiary and secondary level institutions. One was a British visiting professor teaching communicative English at a university, and another was an American instructor teaching at a girls' commercial high school in Pusan.

**Purpose**

Identifying foreigners' views on the Korean ELT situation, culture, Koreans' attitudes towards foreigners, textbooks and teaching methods.

**Analysis of Contents**

Fourteen questions prepared beforehand, related to his/her length of stay and teaching in Korean institutions as independent variables, suggestions and attitudes as dependent variables, were read by the

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interviewer, and the responses of interviewee were recorded on a cassette tape, so as to be analyzed afterward. The following variables were included in the interview questions.

| VARIABLES | TOTAL NO.OF ITEMS | ITEM NO |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Length of Stay and Teaching in Korea | 2 | 1-2 |
| 2. Attitudes towards Korean ELT | 3 | 3-5 |
| 3. Attitudes towards Teaching Methods | 3 | 6-7, 14 |
| 4. Attitudes towards Korean Culture | 2 | 8-9 |
| 5. Perception of Koreans' Attitudes towards Foreigners | 1 | 10 |
| 6. Perception of Koreans' Skill in English | 1 | 11 |
| 7. Perception of Instructors' Teaching | 1 | 12 |
| 8. Perception of English Textbooks | 1 | 13 |
| TOTAL | 14 | |

### 4.2.3.6    Graduates' Structured Questionnaire

**Respondents**

A sample of graduates working in the industrial, commercial fields in Korean society, after studying at tertiary level universities and colleges.

**Purpose**

Identifying the needs and attitudes of university graduates who have been learning English as a foreign language, finally so as to be compared with undergraduates'.

**Analysis of Contents**

This questionnaire begins with statements seeking information on the respondents' identity as independent variables: Age (item no.1), Occupation 2), Name of University 3), Period of English Study 4), Average level of English subjects at school 5), Present State of English 6-9), Foreign experience 10-11) and Instructor's nationality 12-13).

The main body of the questionnaire is divided into two parts. Part One consists of 29 statements and Part Two consists of 54 statements. The point of scale of each item in Part One varies from two to four, while the point of scale in Part Two is five as shown in the preceding structured questionnaires. The majority of the content of Part Two is the same as that of students' structured questionnaire.

Dependent variables listed in the above session are as follows:

| VARIABLES | TOTAL NO OF ITEMS | ITEM NO. |
|---|---|---|
| PART ONE: PERCEPTIONS | | |
| 1. Perception of ELT at Schools | 1 | 14 |
| 2. Perception of Textbooks | 1 | 15 |
| 3. Perception of Instructors | 1 | 16 |
| 4. Needs for English | 3 | 17, 27-28 |
| 5. Skills of English Emphasised at Schools | 4 | 18-21 |
| 6. Interest in English Skills | 3 | 22-23, 29 |
| 7. Time to Start English Study | 1 | 24 |
| 8. Easiest Skills of English | 2 | 25-26 |
| SUB TOTAL | 16 | |

| PART TWO : MOTIVATION | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Integrative orientation | | 63, 5, 10, 13, 19, 23, |
| 2. Instrumental orientation | | 4, 6-9, 11-12, 14-18, |
| 3. Academic orientation | 1 | 22 |
| 4. Desire to learn English | 2 | 34, 42 |
| 5. Interest in English | 2 | 44,50 |
| PART THREE : ATTITUDES | | |
| 1. Attitudes towards English native speakers | 4 | 1-2,32-33, |
| 2. Attitudes towards English | 3 | 29, 35, 38 |
| 3. Difficulty of the Subject | 1 | 45 |
| 4. Cultural Conflict | 4 | 46-49 |
| 5. Perception of ELT at Institution | 5 | 52-56 |
| SUB TOTAL | 40 | |
| TOTAL | 56 | |

With those questionnaires and interview questions perfectly ready after correcting and revising each item, raw data and information were collected through methods and techniques of research described in the subsequent section of the present chapter.

### 4.2.4 Procedures for data collection

### 4.2.4.1 Students

After formulating the main questionnaires (Appendix 1) through the refinement of the pilot study, data were collected from approximately 800 subjects from nine different institutions, which were coded and transferred for analysis to a 'SPSS/PC+' programme in a personal computer. The nine institutions where questionnaires were distributed and collected are divided into three types of groups in terms of

finance-, religion-, and specialized subject-based establishment as follows: namely, national university group and private university group, (Christian) mission-university group and non-mission university group, general university group and specialized university group. (Tables [4.3], [4.4], [4.5]).

[Table 4.3]

Distribution of the institutions selected for the main study in terms of financial based establishment

| INSTITUTIONS | |
| --- | --- |
| NATIONALLY ESTABLISHED | PRIVATELY ESTABLISHED |
| 1. Korea Maritime | 1. Dong-a |
| 2. Pusan National | 2. Gyung-seong |
| 3. Pugyung 2 | 3. Kosin Christian |
| 4. Teachers' - | 4. Pusan Presbyterian |
| | 5.Foreign Studies |

[Table 4.4]

Distribution of the institutions selected for the main study in terms of religion-based establishment

| INSTITUTIONS | |
| --- | --- |
| NON-CHRISTIAN MISSION | CHRISTIAN MISSION |
| 1. Korea Maritime | 1. Gyung-seong |
| 2. Pusan National | 2. Kosin Christian |
| 3. Pugyung 2 | 3 Pusan Presbyterian |
| 4. Teachers' | 4. Foreign Studies |
| 5. Dong-a | |

[Table 4.5]

Distribution of the institutions selected for the main study in terms of academic subject-based establishment.

| INSTITUTIONS | |
|---|---|
| **GENERAL ACADEMIC** | **SPECIALISED ACADEMIC** |
| 1. Dong-a | 1. Korea Maritime |
| 2. Gyung-seong | 2. Kosin Christian |
| 3. Pusan National | 3. Pugyung 2 |
| | 4. Pusan Presbyterian |
| | 5. Foreign Studies |
| | 6. Teachers' Education |

A semi-structured questionnaire and semi-open interview were developed so as to investigate student's opinions more deeply and broadly (see Appendix 2 & 3). The content of 26 interviewes was tape-recorded for subsequent analysis (see 'Section 6.3' in Chapter 6). Seventeen questions to be asked in interview were clarified, refined and confirmed from those of the pilot study. Interviewees were randomly chosen among the first- and fourth- year students at different institutions (students at a Korean and a British university). Korean students studying at a British university were chosen as a sub-sample within the research mainly to be compared with those studying English at a Korean university, since the

differences of the cultural and environmental context between these two universities may be supposed to reflect different views or perception of English speaking people and their culture.

After being given some introductory remarks and explanations including the purpose of interviewing them, each interviewee's answers to the 17 questions were tape-recorded on separate cassettes. The tapes were carefully reviewed and transcribed, with notes about the content of each question being made and the frequencies of content being analysed in each question.

### 4.2.4.2 Instructors

Another structured questionnaire to investigate ELT instructor's viewpoints was formulated in seven categories containing seventy questions altogether: attitudes toward his/her own profession as a ELT instructor; evaluation of textbooks used by himself; opinion about teaching skills; opinion about medium of instruction; attitude toward cultural differences; evaluation of students' proficiency level; viewpoints about national policy for ELT (see Appendix 4).

Questionnaires were mailed to instructors of English language at 12 tertiary institutions in Pusan city, among which 15 instructors from nine different universities mailed back the completed questionnaires.

Questions for interview were generated to investigate views of foreign ELT instructors who teach in Korean institutions (see Appendix 5). The main purpose for this was to get foreign ELT specialists' views on ELT performed at Korean institutions, difficulty of the Korean language as a foreigner, differences between their own and Korean cultures, and Koreans' attitudes towards English speaking people, which were to be compared with Korean ELT specialists' views. A British visiting professor who was teaching English at a Korean University and an American secondary teacher in a Korean high school were interviewed and tape-recorded for subsequent analysis. Those foreign instructors of English at secondary and tertiary levels were included in the current research in order to elicit outsiders' views on

Korean ELT and culture as foreigners with a different cultural background but with some contact with Korean culture and people.

### 4.2.4.3 Graduates

Eighty-two graduates working in the fields of industry and commerce in Pusan area were chosen so that their viewpoints and concepts of ELT in the Korean context might be compared with those of students (see Appendix 6). Five associates who work in those fields were employed to distribute the graduates' questionnaires to their own and other companies with which they have some connections. The overall shape of the above-mentioned data-gathering procedures has been given in Figure 4.3/II.

### 4.2.4.4 Ministry of Education

To make inquiries about governmental policy on ELT, a personal letter with the recommendation letter from the present researcher's supervisor enclosed was sent to the Ministry of Education. In addition, several documentations or dissertations related to national policy published were referred to as material or proof of policy, and past, present and future implications, (see Appendix 6).

**FIGURE 4.3: DATA-GATHERING PROCEDURES RELATED TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

## I. THE PILOT STUDY

| SAMPLES | RESEARCH QUESTIONS TO BE INVESTIGATED | DATA-GATHERING METHODS |
|---|---|---|
| 150<br>Faculty of Natural Science, Kosin University.<br><br>100<br>Faculty of Theology Kosin University | - students' perceived needs<br>- degree of needs already met<br>- students' motivation for learning English<br>- students' attitudes<br>- perceiving English speaking culture | Structured Students' Questionnaire<br><br>Structured Students' Questionnaire revised from the former one |
| 40<br>English Dept.<br>+<br>40<br>Missiology Dept.<br>Kosin University | - students' needs<br>- students' motivation<br>- Korean culture affecting students' English | Semi-structured Students' Questionnaire |
| 10<br>English Dept.<br>Kosin University | - students' attitude<br>- cultural gap<br>- perceived needs<br>- students' evaluation of ELT methods | Students' Interview Questions |
| 2 English lecturers<br>1 Korean professor<br>1 secondary English teacher | . | Staff Meeting for checking facial reliability and validity of the questions in the questionnaires. |

## II. THE MAIN STUDY

| DATA-GATHERING METHODS | SAMPLES | RESEARCH QUESTIONS TO BE INVESTIGATED |
|---|---|---|
| 1.<br>Students' structured questionnaire | 826 samples from 9 different institutions | - students' perceived needs<br>- degree of needs already met<br>- students' motivation for learning English<br>- students' attitudes<br>- perceiving English speaking culture |
| 2.<br>Instructors' structured questionnaire | 15 instructors from 9 different institutions | - instructors' motivation to teach English<br>- their evaluation of students' English and motivation, interest<br>- their perception of profession |
| 3.<br>Students' semi-structured questionnaire<br><br>----------------<br>4.<br>Students' open/semi-open interview | 80 samples from different institutions<br><br>------------------<br>26 samples | - students' needs<br>- students' motivation<br>- Korean culture affecting students'  English<br>- students' attitude<br>- cultural gap<br>- students' evaluation of ELT methods |
| 5.<br>Foreign instructors' interview | 1 British &<br>1 American instructors | -foreign instructors' view on ELT |
| 6.<br>Graduates' structured questionnaire | 84 graduates working in industrial areas | - social acceptance of English<br>- social needs of English |
| 7.<br>Ministry of Education | official in charge in the Ministry of Education | - implementation of ELT at national  policy-level |

# CHAPTER FIVE

# PRESENTATION

# AND

# ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

The present chapter sets out the findings in respect of students', instructors' and graduates' needs, attitudes, motivations (and other aspects) in respect of EFL in Korea. The findings reflect the analysis by statistical and other pocedures of the data that were collected by the various instruments descended in the preceding chapter.

## Introduction

This chapter starts with a description of data interpretation methods employed in the present study. Then the findings of the research will be presented, followed by a discussion of the results.

Raw data for the current research were gathered through 4 questionnaires (students' structured questionnaire, instructors' structured questionnaire, students' semi-structured questionnaire, graduates' structured questionnaire) and two interviews (students' interview, foreign instructors' interview) over several months as described in Chapter 4. Data obtained from three structured questionnaires by three different kinds of subjects (English learners, instructors and graduates) were then coded and transferred into computer terminologies and computed through a computer programme 'SPSS/PC+' and analysed over a relatively long period of time (for three months). They have been analysed in the form of tables

where needed, in accordance to the hypotheses postulated for the present study, based upon the theories clarified in the preceding chapters.

## 5.1 The students' motivation and attitudes (structured) questionnaire

For the sake of convenience, shortened forms of key terms that frequently appeared on statistical tables are listed as follows:

### 1. Students' motivation (structured) questionnaire

| | |
|---|---|
| S. M. Q. | : Students' Motivation Questionnaire |
| MotEngLrn | : Motivation to Learn English |
| IntMot | : Integrative Motivation |
| InsMot | : Instrumental Motivation |
| AcaMot | : Academic Motivation |
| Desire | : Desire to learn English |
| PrntEnc | : Parental encouragement |
| Interest | : Interest in English |

### 2. Students' attitudes (structured) questionnaire:

| | |
|---|---|
| S. A. Q | : Students' Attitudes Questionnaire |
| AtEngLrn | : Attitudes towards English Language Learning |
| AtEng | : Attitudes towards English |
| NatSpkr | : Attitudes towards English Native Speakers. |
| Difficulty | : Difficulty of the Subject |
| Culture | : Cultural Conflict in ELT |
| EngSk | : Attitudes towards English Skills |
| Text | : Perception of Texts |

| Test | : Perception of Tests |
| --- | --- |
| Lesson | : Perception of English Lessons |
| Instructor | : Perception of Instructors |
| Policy | : Perception of national ELT policy |
| Practice | : Opportunity to Practise English outside class. |

To maintain the confidentiality of each respondent institution, alphabets from 'A' through 'I' symbolizing nine institutions are used, i.e. A University, or B University or C University and so on to I University.

The descriptions of 826 student-respondents are listed in Table [5.1] according to the independent variables (i.e., students' institutions, academic subjects, school years, gender, age, parents' educational achievement, needs of English, religions). These consist of 144 from D University which cover 17.4% of the whole respondents, 134 from H University, 107 from E University, 100 from C University, 97 from F University, 74 from A University, 71 from I University, 62 from G University, and 37 from B University (Table [5.1 A]); 438 from 4 national universities and 388 from 5 private ones in the light of establishment base; and 314 from 4 Christian-based institutions and 512 from 5 institutions irrelevant to any specific religions.

The 826 respondents described above according to the statistics in Table [5.1] are regarded as representative of each university, because questionnaires were distributed to mixed classes within each university. Mixed classes are those in which common subjects (e.g., the Korean language and literature, college English for the 1st year students, job-English for the fourth year students) are offered in one big lecture theatre (or hall) to the students from different departments.

For more detailed reference or comparison where needed, frequencies and percentages of respondents according to independent variables are given in Tables [5.1 A - H] (see Appendix 10).

**[Table 5.1] Frequency Distribution of Respondents According to Institutions**

| Institutions | Frequency | Percent | |
|---|---|---|---|
| A University | 74 | 9.0 | Private, Non-Christian |
| B University | 37 | 4.5 | Private, Christian |
| C University | 100 | 12.1 | National, Non-Christian |
| D University | 144 | 17.4 | Private, Christian |
| E University | 107 | 13.0 | National, Non-Christian |
| F University | 97 | 11.7 | National, Non-Christian |
| G University | 62 | 7.5 | Private, Christian |
| H University | 134 | 16.2 | National, Non-Christian |
| I University | 71 | 8.6 | Private, Christian |
| Total | 826 | 100 | |

In the section that follows, the following hypotheses that were postulated for the students' motivation and attitudes are accompanied by the relevant statistical analysis and findings.

## 5.1.1 The Hypotheses

**Hypothesis No.1:**

**Korean students at the tertiary level are motivated to learn English as a foreign language:**

S. M. Q. is categorised as its dependent variables: IntMot, InsMot, AcaMot, Desire, PrntEnc, and Interest. Students' responses to those variables would give a general description of the set hypothesis. Their responses have been elicited according to the Likert five-point scale which ranges between 1 as the minimum value, and 5 as the maximum value. Consequently, to establish whether the way students have reacted either positively or negatively to the variables within the S. M. Q., the value 3 has been considered as the average or the mid-point that separates negative responses from positive ones.

The results of the analysis indicate that Korean students learning English at universities and colleges are motivated strongly to wish to speak English as fluently as native speakers, and the main reason for this wish is that English is economically important in today's world and useful in getting a good job in the future, since English is regarded to be very useful to Koreans.

Table [5.2] shows the frequency distribution and percentages of students' average scores on the dependent variables in the motivational area. The last line of Table [5.2], wherein the number and percentage of the scores of 'MOTENGLRN' lie, shows that only 81 students (10.10%) have scored lower than the average (the score of 3, the mid-point between 1 and 5) on their overall responses to the variables within the S.M.Q 603 students (75.00%) have scored higher than the average. Such a distribution is the outcome of students' responses to the 5 variables, within the S.M.Q., which lie within the first five boxes of Table [5.2]. Two variables ( 'Insmot'and 'Interest') out of five have scored slightly higher than the average, but the others ('IntMot', 'AcaMot' and 'PrntEnc') scored lower than the average. However, this should not be generalised since it is not known yet according to which variable, that is, 'institutions', 'academic subjects', 'years', 'gender', 'age', 'parental educational attainment', 'needs' and 'religions', the difference in each of three variables ('IntMot', 'AcaMot' and 'PrntEnc') of students will be attributable.

[Table 5.2]

Frequency Distribution and Percentages of the Negative, Neutral, and Positive Average Scores of the Variables within the Students' Motivation Questionnaire.

| | Number (Percentage) of Average Scores | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Below 3 | At 3 | Above 3 | |
| IntMot | 438 (55.00) | 78 (9.80) | 280 (35.20) | 796 (100) |
| InsMot | 349 (43.70) | 61 (7.60) | 389 (48.70) | 799 (100) |
| AcaMot | 471 (57.60) | 185 (22.60) | 162 (19.80) | 818 (100) |
| PrntEnc | 268 (32.90) | 354 (43.40) | 193 (23.70) | 815 (100) |
| Interest | 131 (16.50) | 170 (21.50) | 491 (62.00) | 792 (100) |
| MOTENGLRN | 81 (10.10) | 120 (14.90) | 603 (75.00) | 804 (100) |

Hypothesis No. 2:
There are no differences in the motivation of Korean students at the tertiary level to learn English as a foreign language according to the Types of Institutions, Academic subjects, Years, Gender, Age, Parents' educational attainment, Needs for English, and Religions.

Tables [5.3 A - H] (see Appendix 10) shows the mean scores and standard deviations of each variable within S. M. Q. so as to enumerate more detailed relationships among variables. Table [5.3] is divided into 9 parts according to the Types of Institutions, Academic Subjects, Years, Gender, Age, Parents' educational attainment, Needs for English, and Religions. Table [5.3 A] shows the distribution of means and standard deviations of the scores of variables according to the institutions; Table [5.3 B] shows the same statistics according to academic subjects (Social Science and Natural Science); Table [5.3 C] according to years (first and fourth year); D according to gender (male and female); E according to age (19-22 years old, 23-25 years old, 30-35 non-military duty and 30-35 military duty); F-1 according to father's educational achievement and F-2 according to mother's educational achievement; G according to future needs for English; and finally H according to religions.

In the light of motivation to learn English, the means (3.73) of National institutions are slightly higher than those (3.71) of private institutions; social science students (3.75) score slightly higher than natural science students (3.72); fourth-year students (3.78) score higher than first-year students (3.70); male students (3.76) scored higher than female students (3.71); 30-35 (before army) age-group scored highest among four age groups; students who need English for obtaining jobs in foreign countries scored highest among five needs-groups.

Although the means and standard deviations in Table [5.3] put forward a convincing image of the way students have responded to each variable, and of the role of institution, subjects, years, age, gender, religions and needs, a further study of these values through the analysis of variance has given the following F-values by means of which the level of significance of the difference between the groups in question can be clarified as below, reflecting Table [5.4].

[Table 5.4 A]

Analysis Of Variance Of The Scores Of Students' Motivation According To `University', `Academic Subjects', `Years', `Age', `Gender', `Religion' And `Needs Of English'.

| | Univ. F | Subj. F | Years F | Age F | Gendr F | Relig F | Need F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 4.29 * | 0.68 | 7.01 ** | 5.00 * | 0.04 | 2.67 * | 20.06 ** |
| InsMot | 7.91 ** | 8.19 ** | 1.50 | 4.05 * | 1.73 | 3.12 ** | 21.00 ** |
| AcaMot | 12.88 | 1.78 | 6.59 ** | 11.78 ** | 0.17 | 10.35 ** | 12.98 ** |
| PrntEnC | 3.33 ** | 1.41 | 0.63 | 1.90 | 5.92 * | 2.08 | 3.27 |
| Inte-rest | 2.03 * | 4.09 * | 1.06 | 0.87 | 7.45 ** | 2.51 * | 13.20 ** |
| MOTENGLRN | 6.01 ** | 0.16 | 1.93 | 6.01 ** | 0.62 | 2.91 * | 12.49 ** |

* $P < 0.05$   ** $P < 0.01$

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[Table 5.4 B]

Analysis Of Variance Of The Scores Of Students' Motivation According To Parents' Educational Attainment

|  | Father's Ed. [F] | Mother's Ed. [F] |
|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 3.50 ** | 4.75* |
| InsMot | 0.96 | 1.88 |
| AcaMot | 2.31 | 4.94* |
| PmtEnc | 8.85** | 10.69** |
| Interest | 3.28* | 2.15 |
| MOTENGLRN | 0.55 | 1.60 |

* $P < 0.05$  ** $P < 0.01$

According to Table [5.4]:

1. In terms of 'Universities', there are five significant differences among 9 institutions which are categorised into two broad groups, national and private institutions. (1) The respondents of E (national) University have scored the highest on the variable 'IntMot'. (2) The students of A (private) University show the highest score on the variable 'InsMot', 'PmtEnc' and 'MOTENGLRN'. (3) Those of D University show highest score on the variable 'Interest'. (4) 'E' (national) university is one of the largest national universities in Korea, financially well supported by the government and well supplied with resources and information in wider subjects, and thus, probably putting more emphasis on teaching 'culture subjects' which are more generalised and broader in their scopes than specific 'majoring subjects'. The students in this university seem to be more integratively motivated to learn English than the others. (5) 'A' (private) general university is also a large university and probably tries to offer more practical subjects rather than culture subjects, aiming at their students' obtaining good jobs. The students at this university seem to be more instrumentally motivated, and generally more intensely motivated to learn English than the others.

2. In terms of academic subjects, there is one difference between social science (Human Arts) and natural science. Students majoring in natural science are more strongly motivated to the variable 'InsMot': the average score of natural science in 'Insmot' is 3.14, while that of social science is 2.97. That is, students studying natural science are more instrumentally motivated than their counterparts in social science. Contrariwise, social science students scored slightly higher than natural science students in the variable 'IntMot'. The students studying natural science want to learn more practical English with which they can get better jobs.

3. In terms of school years which are categorized as first-year group and fourth-year group for the present study, there are two differences. The fourth-year group score higher on two variables 'IntMot' and 'AcaMot'.

4. In terms of age, there are four differences revealed, the older students (especially those who did not complete military service) tend to show a higher score on three variables 'IntMot', 'AcaMot', and 'MOTENGLRN', and the younger have scored higher on the one variable 'InsMot'.

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5. In terms of gender, there is only one difference between male and female, male students have scored higher on the variable 'PrntEnc' than their counterparts.

6. In terms of religion, there are five differences presented. Christian students distinguish themselves from the others on three variables, 'IntMot', 'AcaMot', and 'MOTENGLRN', while Buddhist students have scored highest 'InsMot' and 'PrntEnc'.

7. In terms of future needs for using English, those respondents who plan to use their English for seeking jobs in foreign countries have scored highest on four variables, 'IntMot', 'InsMot', 'AcaMot', and 'MOTENGLRN'.

8. In terms of parents' educational attainment, those whose parents attained tertiary levels of education have demonstrated highest marks on three variables, 'IntMot', 'PrntEnc', and 'MOTENGLRN'. It is worth mentioning that the more educated their parents are, the more motivated the students are for English learning.

From the viewpoint of what has been so far analyzed, the null hypothesis that there are no differences in students' motivation to learn English according to the Types of Institution, Subjects, Years, Age, Gender, Religions and Needs is rejected.

Thus far, two hypotheses have been stated and tested about Korean students' motivation to learn English. One of those two hypotheses is made in a positive statement (Hypothesis 1: 'Korean students at the tertiary level are motivated to learn English as a foreign language'); and the other in a negative one (Hypothesis 2: 'There are no differences in the motivation of Korean students at the tertiary level to learn English as a foreign language according to the Types of Institutions, Academic subjects, Years, Gender, Age, Parents' educational attainment, Needs for English, and Religions'). 'Hypothesis 1' has a sound positive theoretical reason based on previous researches conducted in various areas illuminated in Chapter Three. On the contrary, 'Hypothesis 2' is stated in the form of a null hypothesis and states that there is no differences exist between variables.

In the present research, it has been demonstrated that there were differences between variables (dependent and independent), and so this null hypothesis (Hypothesis No. 2) is rejected. In other words, there are differences in the motivation of Korean students at the tertiary level to learn English as a foreign

language according to the types of institutions, academic subjects, years, genders, ages, parents' educational attainment, needs for English and religions.

There is always the possibility that the results may or may not show no relationship between the variables. Therefore, correlational hypotheses in the current study are always given as null ones.

**Hypothesis No. 3:**

**Korean students at tertiary level show no differences in being instrumentally or integratively or academically motivated to learn English as a foreign language according to the Types of Institutions, Years, Gender, Age, Parents' Educational attainment, Needs for English, and Religions.**

Table [5.5] (see Appendix 10) shows the structure of means and standard deviations of students' scores on the 'IntMot', 'InsMot' and 'AcaMot' variables. The scores are offered by the levels of 'the Types of Institution', 'Academic Subjects', 'Years', 'Gender', 'Age', 'Parents' Educational Attainment', 'Needs' and 'Religions'.

According to Table [5.5] statistics indicate higher mean scores on 'InsMot' compared to 'IntMot' and 'AcaMot', irrespective of the Types of Institution, Subjects, Years, Gender, Age, Parents' Educational Attainment, Needs and Religions.

In order to confirm whether there are significant differences in students' 'IntMot', 'InsMot'or 'AcaMot' according to the Types of Institutions, Years, Gender, Age, Parents' educational attainment, Needs for English, and Religions, an F-ratio has been computed and findings presented in Table [5.6].

A close examination of Table [5.6] leads to the following conclusions:

1. In terms of the 'Types of Institutions', students of different universities show differences in both of 'IntMot' and 'InsMot', but no differences in 'AcaMot'.

2. It is evident that there is a statistically significant difference between social science students' and natural science students' opinions on the one variable, 'InsMot'.

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3.    In terms of age and school year, a variable, 'AcaMot' displays significant difference between respondents.   Especially senior (fourth-year) students register higher mean scores on this variable, which produces a conclusion that the older students have the greater academic disposition to learn English.

4.    In terms of religions and needs, respondents show strong differences on all of the three variables, 'IntMot', 'InsMot', and 'AcaMot'.   Christian students tend to mark relatively strong intensity on both of 'IntMot' and 'AcaMot', while Buddhist students show strong preference to 'InsMot'. Students seeking jobs in foreign countries after learning English show the most intense orientation toward all of the three variables, 'IntMot', 'InsMot' and 'AcaMot'.

5.    In terms of father's educational attainment, students show significant differences in 'IntMot': those with a tertiary-graduate father are more integratively motivated than the others.   In terms of mother's educational attainment, students show differences in two variables, 'IntMot' and 'AcaMot': those with college-graduate mother are more integratively and academically motivated than the other counterparts.

6.    There are no differences in motivation between male and female students.

As a consequence of this analysis, the null hypothesis (Hypothesis No. 3) is rejected except for the variable 'Gender'. Accordingly, Korean students at tertiary level show differences in being instrumentally or integratively or academically motivated to learn English as a foreign language according to the types of institutions, years, age, parents' educational attainment, needs for English, and religions.

**Hypothesis No. 4:**

**There are no differences in the motivation of Korean college/university students at tertiary level to learn English as a foreign language according to `FathEduc' and `MothEduc'.**

In a procedure similar to that followed in Hypothesis No.3, parents' educational attainment has been coded as follows:

    1 = primary graduate

    2 = secondary graduate

    3 = tertiary graduate.

Because the contents and the percentages of these 3 levels are already presented in the analysis of Hypothesis No.3, reference can be made to them in case of any further information required. Furthermore, answers are sought to three main questions:

1.    Are there differences in students' motivation to learn English according to their fathers' educational attainment?

2.    Are there differences in students' motivation to learn English according to their mothers' educational attainment?

3.    Are there differences in students' motivation when fathers and mothers of the same level of educational attainment are compared with each other?

In answer to these questions, Table [5.7] shows the levels of difference that the analysis of variance has yielded.

[Table 5.7]

Analysis of Variance of The Scores of Students' Motivation to Learn English According to Fathers' and Mothers' Level of Educational Attainment.

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | Degree of Freedom | Mean Squares | F-Value | Significance of F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Main Effects | 3.10 | 4 | 0.78 | 1.26 | 0.286 |
| Father | 0.023 | 2 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.981 |
| Mother | 2.33 | 2 | 1.16 | 1.88 | 0.153 |
| 2-way Interaction Fat. Mot. | 2.77 2.77 | 3 3 | 0.92 0.92 | 1.50 1.50 | 0.214 0.214 |
| Explained | 5.87 | 7 | 0.84 | 1.36 | 0.220 |
| Residual | 455.68 | 738 | 0.62 | | |
| Total | 461.55 | 745 | 0.62 | | |

826 cases were processed.

80 cases (9.7%) were missing.

According to Table [5.7], since the F significance of the interaction effect of fathers' and mothers' educational attainment is 0.214, no two groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level. Therefore, there are no differences in motivation of the students of educated fathers and mothers. Students, both of whose parents are tertiary graduates, however, show the highest means on the motivation to learn English as a foreign language. It is worthy of note that students who have tertiary graduate fathers and primary

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graduate mothers show the lowest mean scores on their motivation to learn English (see Tables [5.7 A-C] in Appendix 10).

**Hypothesis No. 5:**

**Korean college/university students at tertiary level have positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language:**

It should be mentioned that students' scores on 'ATENGLRN' are outcomes of their responses to the variables within the S. A. Q.. Since such responses have been made by levels of a five-point scale that ranges from 1 to 5, positive attitudes can be traced from the number of average scores above 3. This value represents the mid-point that separates negative attitudes from positive ones. Table [5.8], shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the negative, neutral, and positive average scores of students' attitudinal variables:

[Table 5.8]

Frequency Distribution and Percentages of the Negative, Neutral, and Positive Average Scores of the Variables Within the Students' Structured Questionnaire.

| | Number & Percentage of Average Scores | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Below 3 | At 3 | Above 3 | |
| NatSpkr | 332 (41.30%) | 207 (25.80) | 264 (32.90) | 803 (100) |
| Difficulty | 522 (65.00) | 139 (17.30) | 165 (17.70) | 803 (100) |
| Culture | 121 (15.50) | 181 (23.20) | 479 (61.30) | 781 (100) |
| EngSk | 469 (58.50) | 159 (19.80) | 174 (21.70) | 802 (100) |
| Text | 211 (26.90) | 229 (29.20) | 345 (43.90) | 785 (100) |
| Test | 355 (44.80) | 245 (30.90) | 193 (24.30) | 793 (100) |
| Lesson | 656 (84.40) | 45 (5.80) | 76 (9.80) | 777 (100) |
| Instructor | 449 (58.30) | 84 (10.90) | 237 (30.80) | 770 (100) |
| Policy | 368 (45.30) | 258 (31.80) | 186 (22.90) | 812 (100) |
| ATENGLRN | 288 (37.90) | 60 (7.90) | 412 (54.20) | 753 (100) |

A close examination of the frequency and percentage distribution of responses of about 800 students in Table [5.8] indicates that 54.20% expressed positive attitudes toward learning English as a foreign language. What attracts our special attention, however, are students' strongly negative attitudes towards their English lessons offered at their institutions. 65 percent of respondents find the English language difficult to learn. They also show negative attitudes towards English skills, English lecturers, governmental policy of teaching English, the English tests given at their institutions and native speakers.

Only the 'Culture' of English speaking countries as their mother tongue and 'Text' won students' favourable attitudes. In other words, students possess favourable attitudes towards the culture of English speaking countries, and they consider their English textbooks as suitable.

**Hypothesis No. 6**

**There are no differences in the attitudes of Korean college/university students at tertiary level towards learning English as a foreign language according to univ, academic sub. gender, age, year group, and religion:**

Tables [5.9 A - I] (see Appendix 10) shows the means and standard deviations of the scores of nine attitudinal variables in terms of students' universities, academic subjects, years, gender, age, parents' educational attainment, needs to use English, and religions.

In Table [5.9A], Christian-based private institutions (B, D, G, and I universities) show higher mean scores on most of the variables within S. A. Q than those of the national institutions.

The Table [5.9B] shows that the arts and human students score higher than their natural science counterparts on most variables, especially on perception of their instructors.

In respect of school years, the fourth-year students score higher on the variable, `attitudes towards English learning as a foreign language' than do first-year students, as shown in Table [5.9C].

In terms of gender, on the whole there seem to be no distinct differences in mean scores and SD (standard deviations) on the ten variables. Male students score slightly higher than female on the variables of `NatSpkr', `Engsk', `Lesson', `Instructor', and `ATENGLRN'. Female students show higher means on `Difficulty', `Culture', `Text', and `Test'.

The older students show higher mean scores on all the variables within S.A.Q. than their younger counterparts. Those who have not finished military service show higher mean scores than those after military service, as illustrated in Table [5.9E].

As shown in Tables [5.9 F, G and 5.10], respondents whose parents are tertiary graduates do not necessarily have higher scores for the variables within S.A.Q. than those whose parents are primary

graduates. Rather, those with primary-graduate parents show higher scores on the variable `Instructor' in which differences are found to exist.

In terms of future needs to use English shown in the Table [5.9H], it deserves our attention that those who seek future jobs in foreign countries (especially English-speaking countries) show the highest scores on the variables, 'Culture' and 'ATENGLRN', compared with those seeking jobs in Korea and those without any plan yet. They also have scored higher than the others on the variables, 'NatSpkr' and 'Text'.

In terms of respondents' religions, Protestant Christian students generally show the highest mean scores on five variables, Confucians on two variables and Catholic Christians on one variable.

Although some intelligible differences can be sketched in the light of the nine attitudinal variables, and `ATENGLRN', the analysis of variance of these values in terms of eight independent variables, as illustrated in Table [5.10], has been made, with F-values which represent different levels of significance.

The results presented in Table [5.10] show:

1. In terms of the types of institutions, there are eight highly significant differences among nine institutions in their responses to all variables except just two, 'culture' and 'text'. Three institutions are distinctive in their attitudes: G Institution where most students are training to become ministers of religion shows the most favourable attitudes towards four variables, 'Lesson', 'Instructor', 'Policy' and 'ATENGLRN' (attitudes towards English language learning); B University which is expanding its size and trying to upgrade its quality shows most favourable attitudes towards two variables, 'NatSpkr (attitudes towards English native speakers)' and 'Test', I University which is the only foreign language-specified university in the southern part of the country shows the most favourable attitudes towards 'Difficulty' and 'EngSk' (attitudes towards English skills), namely, students at I University think that English is not as difficult to learn as those at the other universities.

2. In terms of academic subjects, one highly significant and one significant differences are explicit between social science and natural science students to the variables of attitudes towards instructor and test respectively. Students majoring in social science show more favourable attitudes towards 'Test' and 'Instructor'.

3. In terms of years, one highly significant and one significant difference are also indicated between 1st year and 4th year students to 'EngSk' and 'Instructor' respectively. The 4th-year students show more favourable attitudes towards their instructors.

4. In terms of age, three highly significant differences are shown among 19-22 (equivalent to the 1st year), 23-25 (equivalent to 4th year), 30-35 (old students, but before military service), and 30-35 (after military service) to the variables of 'EngSk', 'Lesson' and 'Instructor'. The 30-35 age-group (before army) students show most favourable attitudes towards 'EngSk' and 'Lesson', and the same age-group students who finished military duty show the most favourable attitudes towards their instructors.

5. In terms of gender, five significant differences are explicit between male and female students to the variables of 'EngSk', 'Text', 'Test', 'Lesson', 'Instructor', and 'Policy'. Male students show more favourable attitudes towards three variables, 'EngSk', 'Lesson' and 'Instructor'. Female students show more favourable attitudes towards English textbooks and test.

6. In terms of needs, four highly significant and one significant difference are exposed among students with five different kinds of needs for English to 'NatSpkr', 'EngSk', 'Instructor', 'ATENGLRN' and 'Culture'. Students who want to get their jobs in foreign countries after learning English express more favourable attitudes to the variables, 'EngSk', and 'ATENGLRN'. Students who pursue entertainment in English show the most favourable attitudes towards native speakers.

7. In terms of religion, five significant differences are established. Christian students (both of Protestants and Catholic) show the most favourable attitudes towards those five variables.

8. In terms of parents' educational attainment, father's educational attainment affects very strongly on 'ATENGLRN', and mother's educational attainment gives highly significant difference to 'Instructor'. Students who have a tertiary graduate father and mother show the most favourable attitudes towards the variable, 'ATENGLRN'. What is impressive is that students who have primary graduate father and mother show the most favourable attitudes towards the variable, 'Instructor'.

In conclusion, the null hypothesis (no. 6) stating that 'there are no differences in the attitudes of Korean college/university students at tertiary level towards learning English as a foreign language according to universities, academic subjects, genders, ages, year-groups and religions' is rejected. It has been shown that there are differences in the attitudes of Korean students towards learning English as a foreign language according to universities, academic subjects, genders, ages, year-groups and religions.

[Table 5.10]

Analysis Of Variance Of The Scores Of Students' Attitudes According To The Uni., Academic Sub., Gender, Age, Year Group, And Religion.

| | Univ. F | Subj. F | Years F | Age F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NatSpkr | 4.16 ** | 0.15 | 1.76 | 2.16 |
| Diffi. | 4.43 ** | 0.54 | 2.21 | 0.94 |
| Cult. | 1.57 | 2.62 | 0.73 | 1.20 |
| EngSk | 6.27 ** | 2.16 | 5.40 ** | 4.24 ** |
| Text | 1.46 | 0.82 | 0.74 | 0.24 |
| Test | 4.15 ** | 4.36* | 0.84 | 0.30 |
| Lesson | 15.80 ** | 0.07 | 2.15 | 3.96 ** |
| Instructor | 40.19 ** | 8.84 ** | 3.03 * | 23.25 ** |
| Policy | 5.55 ** | 2.14 | 0.30 | 1.39 |
| ATENGLRN | 5.88 ** | 2.05 | 1.78 | 1.03 |

*P < 0.05  **P < 0.01

| Gender F | Religions F | Needs F | Father's Ed. F | Mother's Ed. F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1.23 | 2.32 * | 4.47 ** | 0.29 | 0.44 |
| 1.42 | 1.82 | 1.11 | 1.93 | 4.49 * |
| 3.65 | 0.96 | 2.44 * | 1.60 | 0.10 |
| 14.39 ** | 1.24 | 4.19 ** | 0.69 | 1.27 |
| 18.86 ** | 2.05 | 0.60 | 0.27 | 0.58 |
| 10.04 ** | 3.64 ** | 1.83 | 1.07 | 0.84 |
| 19.04 ** | 4.23 ** | 1.08 | 1.01 | 1.29 |
| 12.05 ** | 13.65 ** | 4.00 ** | 5.11 * | 3.82 ** |
| 1.62 | 1.71 | 0.44 | 1.58 | 2.79 * |
| 0.16 | 8.18 ** | 10.06 ** | 3.88 ** | 3.27 * |

*P < 0.05  **P < 0.01

**Hypothesis No. 7:**

There is no relationship between students' marks in English in the University (Entrance) Academic Ability Test and their attitudes and motivation to learn the language.

It has already been shown that Korean students have positive attitudes and motivation to learn English. In an attempt to see if there is any type of relationship between students' attitudes and motivation to learn English and their entrance examination performance in English as a subject, students were asked to provide their scores in the entrance examination for English (alias, 'Academic Ability Test'). In Table [5.11], students' levels of English entrance examination points) have been coded as follows:

| [Level] | [Codes] |
|---|---|
| Elementary | 1 |
| Intermediate | 2 |
| Advanced | 3 |
| Highly advanced | 4 |

As shown in Table [5.12], there is a significant relationship between students' motivation and level of marks in English obtained in the University Entrance Examination, but no relationship between attitudes and level of marks in English. However, Table [5.13] shows that there are differences in students' average marks of English according to types of universities, subjects, years, genders and needs for English.

[Table 5.11]

Means Scores And Standard Deviation Of 'Motenglrn' And 'Atenglrn' According To students' Level Of English Entrance Examination

| Value | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MOTENGLRN | | | | |
| M | 3.45 | 3.75 | 3.85 | 4.09 |
| SD | 0.00 | 0.89 | 0.71 | 0.69 |
| ATENGLRN | | | | |
| M | 2.78 | 3.03 | 3.09 | 3.09 |
| SD | 0.00 | 0.35 | 0.53 | 0.52 |

[Table 5.12]

Analysis Of Variance Of 'Motenglrn' And 'Atenglrn' According To Students' Level Of English Entrance Examination.

| - | Degree of Freedom | Mean Square | F-Ratio | Significance of F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| MOTENGLRN | 50 | 0.88 | 1.49 * | 0.02 |
| ATENGLRN | 48 | 0.24 | 1.09 | 0.33 |

* P < 0.05    ** P < 0.01

[Table 5.13]

Analysis Of Variance Of Students' Average Marks According To Types Of Uni., Subjects, Years, Gender, Parents' Educational Attainment, Needs And Religions.

|  | Univ. | Subj. | Year | Gender |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| F-Value | 28.94** | 6.15* | 112.54** | 18.45** |
| Mean Score | 75.02 | 107.59 | 65.01 | 103.25 |

|  | Father's Ed. | Mother's Ed. | Needs | Religion |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| F-Value | 2.14 | 2.82 | 6.79** | 1.29 |
| Mean Score | 108.36 | 108.86 | 106.38 | 107.63 |

Table [5.13] indicates:

1. The difference is highly significant between students' mean scores according to the institutions. National university students have higher average marks than their private counterparts.

2. The difference is significant between students' average marks according to academic subjects. Students from Social Science have higher mean scores than their counterparts from Natural Science.

3. The difference is significant between students' average scores according to years. The fourth-year students have much higher average marks than their first-year counterparts. However, the comparison between years is not particularly meaningful, because the trends of examination of these two years have changed as the result of governmental policy developments.

4. The mean scores of male and female show highly significant differences between each other. Female students have higher means than their male counterparts.

5. The difference is significant between students' average scores according to their needs for English. Students who seek jobs in foreign countries show the highest mean scores, while those pursuing leisure interests through English show the lowest marks.

Duncan's multiple-range test (0.05) was also implemented to check the differences (at the 0.05 level) between means of groups according to the students' marks in English in the University Entrance Examination. According to this test, significant differences were found between the means of national and private institutions, social natural sciences, fourth- and first- year students, male and female, tertiary and secondary or tertiary and primary levels of fathers' educational attainment (no difference between primary and secondary levels), primary and secondary levels of mothers' (no differences between primary and tertiary or secondary and tertiary levels), seeking jobs in Korea and jobs in foreign countries (but no differences between seeking jobs in Korea and entertainment) on the variable 'Needs'.

In brief, the conclusion is suggested that there is a meaningful relationship between students' scores in their Entrance Examination for English and their motivation, but no relationship between this and their attitudes to learn English. In other words, the better scores students obtain in English, the more positive motivation and attitudes they have to learn the language. As a consequence, the null hypothesis, that there is no relationship between students' level of marks in English in University (Entrance) Academic Ability Test and motivation to learn the language, is rejected.

## 5.2    Instructors' Attitudes And Motivation Questionnaires

The following abbreviations will be used throughout the statistical analysis and discussion of the

Instructors' Attitudes and Motivation Questionnaires:

### 1. The Instructors' Attitudes Questionnaire

| | |
|---|---|
| I.A.Q. | : Instructors' Attitudes Questionnaire |
| ATENTCH | : Attitudes towards English Teaching |
| Text | : Perception of textbooks |
| Medi | : Views on Medium of instruction |
| Cult | : Attitudes towards culture of English speaking countries |
| Prepa | : Teaching Preparation |
| Encor | : Encouragement of Students |
| StdPrf | : Perception of Students' Level of Proficiency |
| PrcStud | : Perception of Students |
| PrcScnd | : Perception of Secondary Level |

### 2. The Instructors' Motivation Questionnaire

| | |
|---|---|
| I.M.Q | : Instructors' Motivation Questionnaire |
| MOTENTCH | : Motivation of English Teaching |
| Prof | : Perception of the profession of ELT |
| Intrst | : Interest in Teaching English |
| GenProf | : Professorship in general |
| EngProf | : English Professorship in particular |

First of all, it is reasonable to assume that the size of the instructors' sample is too small (15) to

measure a correlation coefficient and the level of significance (p). Accordingly, the measurement of the

instructors' sample depends mainly on means (the most frequent score in the subject) and standard

deviation (SD) rather than variance. The higher the standard deviation is, the more varied and more

heterogeneous a group is on a given behaviour.


**Hypothesis No. 1:**

**Korean instructors/professors of English at the tertiary level have positive attitudes towards
teaching English as a foreign language:**

To measure their attitudes and motivation to teaching English as a foreign language at thirteen

tertiary-level institutions (both national and private) located in Pusan City, fifteen instructors (or

professors) from each institution were asked to complete both of the Attitudes and Motivation

questionnaires, according to four independent variables: (1) institutions, (2) instructors' job career, (3)

visiting or staying period of English speaking countries, and (4) majoring subjects at postgraduate course.

They were asked to answer seventy five-scale items whose ranges are from 1 as the minimum value to 5

as the maximum value. In analysing the instructors' responses, positive attitudes occur above the value of

3, whereas negative attitudes occur below this value. Table [5.14] shows the distribution of instructors'

responses to the eight variables within the I.A.Q., and to 'ATENTCH' in particular.

Table [5.14] shows that the majority of English instructors have scored higher than the score of 3

as mid-point between 5 and 1 on four variables, 'Text', 'Prepa', 'Encor', and 'PrcStud', while they show

lower score than the mid-point on the other three, 'Medi', 'Cult', and 'StdPrf'. Described more precisely,

86.70% of English professors have responded that they prepare for their lessons and have been

encouraging their students' study of English. On the contrary, they show a very low mean score on their

students' proficiency level of English (80%). Professors do not perceive their students' command of

English as high.

[Table 5.14]

Frequency Distribution And Percentages Of The Negative, Neutral, And Positive Average Scores Of The Variables Within The Instructors' Attitudes Questionnaire.

| | Number & (Percentage) of Average Scores | | | Total | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Below 3 | At 3 | Above 3 | | |
| Text | 5 (35.70%) | 2 (14.30) | 8 (50.00) | 15 (100) | 3.12 |
| Medi | 7 (46.70) | 2 (14.30) | 6 (40.00) | 15 (100) | 2.64 |
| Cult | 7 (46.70) | 5 (33.30) | 3 (20.00) | 15 (100) | 2.91 |
| Prepa | 1 (6.70) | 1 (6.70) | 13 (86.70) | 15 (100) | 3.77 |
| Encor - | | | 15 (100) | 15 (100) | 3.37 |
| StdPrf | 12 (80.00) | 3 (20.00) | | 15 (100) | 2.53 |
| PrcStud | 3 (20.00) | 2 (13.30) | 10 (66.70) | 15 (100) | 2.96 |
| ATENGLRN | 6 (40.00) | 3 (20.00) | 6 (40.00) | 15 (100) | 2.98 |

**Hypothesis No. 2:**

**There are no differences in the attitudes of Korean instructors at the tertiary level towards teaching English according to instructors' institution, teaching career, length of overseas study and major subjects.**

To form an initial image of how far instructors' institutions, teaching career and length of overseas study have affected their responses to the 8 variables within the I.A.Q. in general, and 'ATENTCH' in particular, Table [5.15] (see Appendix 10) shows the means and the standard deviations of the values scored in this respect.

The comparison of means between 'national' and 'private' institutions as categorized in Chapter 4 proved worthwhile. The table [5.15 A-1] (see Appendix 10) reveals differences in mean scores between these two groups: 'National' institutions have higher scores on 'Text', 'Medi', 'Cult', 'Prepa', and 'Encor', while 'Private'institutions have higher mean scores on 'PrcStud'. The possible reason for this difference between national and private universities may be, as mentioned in previous section, that national universities are better provided with facilities, materials, and other teaching aids than private ones. There are no significant differences in the two variables, 'StdPrf' and 'ATENTCH', though.

In the table [5.15 B], it is indicated that professors with 6-10 year-teaching career show the highest means on 'Text'; those who teach for a long time (above 21 years) agree with the idea that the instruction of English should be taught in English rather than in Korean.

Those with the shortest career have the highest means on the culture of English native countries. Professors, regardless of the length of their career, prepare for their lessons very diligently.

According to table [5.15 C] (see Appendix 10), it is worth our attention that professors who have no experience of staying or studying in English-speaking countries show the highest means on 'Cultur', 'Prepa', 'Encor' and 'ATENTCH', while those who stayed or studied in English-speaking countries for longest time show the highest scores on only two variables, 'Text' and 'PrcStud'.

The possible reason for this difference is not easy to understand. Those without overseas experiences may feel more curious to know about foreign culture which they have not yet come into

contact with. They may also feel more enthusiastic in preparing their lectures in order to compensate for their probable lack of knowledge and experience of English-speaking countries.

Table [5.15 D] (see Appendix 10) shows that English instructors who majored in literature at post-graduate levels show the highest mean scores on only one variable, 'Prepa'; those whose majoring subjects were English Education show the highest scores on variables such as 'Medi', 'Cult', and 'ATENTCH'. The group of instructors who studied 'linguistics' as major show the highest means on 'Text', 'Encor', and 'PrecStud'.

In Table [5.16], the level of significance (p) is not indicated between variables. As mentioned before, the small size of instructors' sample does not noticeably show the level of significance.

[Table 5.16]

**Analysis of Variance of The Scores of Instructors' Attitudes According to Uni., Teaching Career, Length of Foreign-Stay and Academic Subjects.**

|  | Uni<br><br>F | Period of Career<br><br>F | Foreign Stay<br><br>F | Subjects<br><br>F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Text | 0.51 | 0.79 | 0.23 | 7.41 |
| Medi | 3.39 | 1.23 | 0.61 | 4.06 |
| Cult | 0.65 | 0.42 | 0.94 | 0.34 |
| Prepa | 0.33 | 0.70 | 1.71 | 0.77 |
| Encor | 0.93 | 0.57 | 0.77 | 0.86 |
| StdPrf | 1.74 | 0.10 | 0.35 | 0.20 |
| PrcStud | 0.54 | 0.86 | 1.10 | 2.64 |
| ATENTCH | 0.78 | 0.45 | 0.54 | 0.42 |

$*P < 0.05$  $**P < 0.01$

**Hypothesis No. 3:**

**Korean instructors of English at the tertiary level are motivated to teach the language.**

The current hypothesis is positively stated, differently from other negative hypotheses of correlational investigation. This is so because, as postulated in Chapter 4, Korean society esteems scholars and the teaching profession, especially at tertiary level, and therefore English instructors or professors are motivated to teach English.

**[Table 5.17]**

**Frequency Distribution And Percentage Of The Negative, Neutral, And Positive Average Scores Of The Variables Within The Instructors' Motivation Questionnaire.**

|          | Below 3     | At 3        | Above 3      | Mean |
|----------|-------------|-------------|--------------|------|
| Prof     |             | 2 (13.30%)  | 13 (86.70%)  | 3.50 |
| Intrst   |             | 1 ( 6.70%)  | 14 (93.30%)  | 3.67 |
| MOTENTCH | 7 (46.70%)  | 2 (13.30%)  | 6 (40.00%)   | 3.00 |

Table [5.17] indicates that 86.70% of English instructors in Korean Tertiary-level institutions have shown higher scores (above 3) than average on their profession of teaching English as a foreign language, and 93.30% of them have shown higher than average (mean score 3.67) on the variable, 'Intrst'.

**Hypothesis No. 4:**

**There are no differences in the motivation of Korean instructors at the tertiary level to teach English as a foreign language according to institution, teaching career, length of oversees study and major subjects:**

It has been shown in Table [5.18] (see Appendix 10) that instructors, irrespective of the variations in their 'Uni', 'Job', 'For' and 'Sbj', show positive motivation on the three variables, namely 'Prof', 'Intrst'and 'MOTENTCH'. More specifically, significant differences between means are found within groups, the group of 'National institutions' and the group of 'Private institutions' on all the three variables of 'Prof', 'Intrst'and 'MOTENTCH'. On the whole, the mean scores of professors of national universities are higher than those of their counterparts of private universities.

In terms of length of teaching career, professors with the shortest career (1-5 years' career) have shown the highest means on the variable, 'Intrst'.

In terms of experience of stay or study in English speaking countries, those who have no such experiences show the highest scores on 'Prof', and those who stayed less than one year show the highest scores on 'Intrst' and those with the longest overseas stay have highest average scores on 'MOTENTCH'.

Lastly, in terms of majoring subjects, professors who majored in linguistics at post-graduate courses show highest means scores on two variables, 'Intrst' and 'MOTENTCH', while those whose subjects are literature show highest means on 'Prof'.

**Hypothesis No.5:**

**There are no differences in the way Korean instructors of English are satisfied with the profession of teaching in general and that of teaching English in particular according to institution, teaching career, length of overseas study and major subject.**

Table [5.20] shows the comparison between the scores of English instructors on satisfaction with the professorship in general ('GenProf') and English professorship in particular ('EngProf'). English instructors at Korean universities or colleges show strong satisfaction with their professorship. They are

absolutely satisfied with teaching profession as professors and very satisfied with profession of teaching English.

As tables [20-21] (see Appendix 10) show, there are clear differences in the means scored by the sample of English professors/instructors according to 'Uni', 'Job', 'For' and 'Sbj'. In the light of the statistical fact that the higher the standard deviations(SD) are, the wider the range of responses has been, SD's are presented along with means score for every variable.

[Table 5.20]

**Frequency Distribution of the Scores of Instructors' Satisfaction with the Professorship in General Sense and Professorship of English Teaching.**

|  | Below 3 | At 3 | Above 3 |
|---|---|---|---|
| GenProf. |  |  | 15 (100%) |
| EngProf. |  | 1 (13.30%) | 13 (86.70%) |

In conclusion, there are differences among mean scores in the way Korean instructors of English are satisfied with the professorship in general and English teaching professorship in particular according to institution, teaching career, length of overseas study and major subject. Differences of satisfaction between those two professorships are evident, particularly according to teaching career and the length of overseas study.

## 5.3    The Graduates' Attitudes And Motivation Questionnaire

The analysis of and comparison between the attitudes and motivations of undergraduate students and graduates learning English as a foreign language is intended to cast further light on the current research. Thus, it would be interesting to establish whether there are any changes or variations between those who are studying English under systematic courses at tertiary-level institutions on the one hand, and

those who are using the English in the field for practical purposes on the other hand. Eighty-four graduates who had been working at business or industrial sections were asked to respond to a questionnaire.

For the sake of convenience, shortened forms of some key terms frequently found on statistical tables below were listed as follows:

## 1. The Graduates' Attitudes Questionnaire:

(Part One of the questionnaire)

| | |
|---|---|
| G. A. Q. | : Graduate Attitudes Questionnaire |
| Age | : Age |
| Job | : Occupation |
| Lng | : Length of Career after Graduation from tertiary level |
| Ins | : Institutions |
| Prd | : Period of English Study |
| Gsc | : Grades at Schools |
| Lev_ | : Proficiency Level of Present English |
| Frn | : Visiting Foreign Countries |
| Acq | : British or American Acquaintances |
| Tcr | : Nationality of English Instructors at Schools. |
| ATENLRN | : Attitudes towards English Learning |
| Text | : Perception of Textbooks |
| Instructor | : Perception of Instructors |
| Needs | : Needs of English |
| Skl | : Skills of English Emphasised at Schools |
| EstSkl | : Easiest Skills of English |

| Intrst | : Interest in English Skills |
| --- | --- |
| Time | : Time to Start English Study |

## 2. The Graduates' Attitudes Questionnaire:

(Part Two of the questionnaire)

| ATENLRN | : Attitudes towards English Learning |
| --- | --- |
| AtEng | : Attitudes towards English |
| NatSpkr | : Attitudes towards Native Speaker |
| Diffi | : Difficulty of the Subject |
| Cult | : Cultural Conflict |
| Instit | : Perception of ELT at Institution |

## 3. The Graduates' Motivation Questionnaire:

(Part Two of the questionnaire)

| G.M.Q. | : Graduates' Motivation Questionnaire |
| --- | --- |
| MOTENGLRN | : Motivation of English Learning |
| IntMot | : Integrative Motivation |
| insMot | : Instrumental Motivation |
| AcaMot | : Academic Motivation |
| Desire | : Desire to Learn English |
| Intrst | : Interest in English |

The following hypotheses were postulated for the above graduates' motivation and attitudes questionnaire, followed by the relevant statistical analysis.

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**Hypothesis No. 1:**

**Korean graduates from the tertiary level have positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language:**

G.A.Q. is categorised as its dependent variables such as 'NatSpkr', 'Diff', 'Cult' and 'Instit'. Graduates' responses to those variables make a general clarification of the set hypothesis. Their responses have been made according to the Likert five-point scale which ranges between 1 as the minimum value, and 5 as the maximum value as in the S.A.Q.. Consequently, to establish the extent to which graduates have responded either positively or negatively to the variables within the G.A.Q., the value 3 has been considered as the mid-point that separates negative responses from positive ones. According to the two tables [5-23 & 5-24], more than 70% of respondents show value 'above 3' on the attitudes towards 'Culture'. The graduates have positive attitudes towards the culture of English speaking countries. However, only 45.20% of them show 'above 3' value on the variable, 'NatSpkr'. They show slightly negative attitudes towards native speakers. The majority show a negative reaction to the variable, 'Instit' which is concerned about the language laboratories, English-teaching curriculum, and staff's teaching methods in the respondents' universities.

[Table 5.23]

Frequency Distribution and Percentages of the Negative, Neutral, and Positive Average Scores of the Variables Within the Graduates' Attitudes Questionnaire.

|  | Number & (Percentage) of Average Scores | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Below 3 | At 3 | Above 3 |  |
| NatSpkr | 32 (38.10%) | 14 (16.70) | 38 (45.20) | 84 (100) |
| Diffi. | 20 (24.10) | 32 (38.60) | 31 (37.30) | 83 (100) |
| Cult | 5 (6.80) | 15 (20.50) | 53 (72.60) | 73 (100) |
| Instit | 57 (73.10) | 11 (14.10) | 10 (12.80) | 78 (100) |
| ATENLRN | 37 (47.40) | 13 (16.70) | 28 (35.90) | 78 (100) |

[Table 5.24]

Means And Standard Deviation Of The Variables Within The Graduates' Attitudes Questionnaire

| - | Mean | SD | Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| NatSpkr | 3.02 | 0.59 | 84 |
| Diffi. | 3.13 | 0.74 | 83 |
| Cult | 3.32 | 0.34 | 73 |
| Instit | 2.41 | 0.65 | 78 |
| ATENLRN | 2.98 | 0.41 | 78 |

# Hypothesis No. 2:

There are no differences in the attitudes of Korean college graduates towards learning English as a foreign language according to 'proficiency of present English', 'visiting experience in English speaking countries', 'British or American acquaintances' and 'the nationality of English instructors at schools'.

Table [5.25] indicates the mean scores and standard deviations of five variables within G.A.Q., so as to enumerate more detailed relationships among variables. Table [5.25] is divided into 7 parts according to the 'Age', 'Length of Working Career', 'Graduate Institutes', 'English Marks at Schools', 'Overseas Visiting Experience', 'Having Foreign Acquaintance', and 'Nationality of Instructors'.

[Table 5.25]

Means And Standard Deviation Of The Variables Within The Graduates' Attitudes Questionnaire According To Ages, Length Of Working Career, Graduate Institutions, Grades At Schools, Overseas Visit, Having Or Not Having Foreign Friends, And English Instructors' Nationality.

Table 5.25[A] According To Ages

|  | Age of 25<br>M    SD | Age of 35<br>M    SD | Above 45<br>M    SD | Total<br>M    SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nat-Spkr | 3.25  0.47 | 3.08  0.95 | 2.63  0.17 | 3.03  0.59 |
| Dif-fic. | 3.33  0.75 | 3.16  0.76 | 3.00  0.00 | 3.13  0.78 |
| Cul-ture. | 3.44  0.13 | 3.50  0.25 | 3.00  0.00 | 3.32  0.35 |
| Ins-tit. | 2.20  0.13 | 3.20  0.72 | 1.20  0.00 | 2.41  0.61 |
| ATEN-RN | 2.20  0.40 | 2.90  0.53 | 3.20  0.00 | 2.98  0.40 |

**Table 5.25 [B] According to Length of Career**

|  | 10 Years<br><br>M   SD | 20 Years<br><br>M   SD | 30 Years<br><br>M   SD | Total<br><br>M   SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nat-Spkr | 2.90  0.48 | 2.80  0.61 | 3.25  0.80 | 3.03  0.54 |
| Dif-fic. | 3.34  0.85 | 2.96  0.94 | 2.80  0.76 | 3.13  0.74 |
| Cul-ture. | 3.34  0.38 | 3.33  0.36 | 3.43  0.38 | 3.32  0.35 |
| Ins-tit. | 2.31  0.63 | 2.43  0.75 | 2.33  0.42 | 2.41  0.07 |
| ATEN-LRN | 3.05  0.41 | 2.64  0.28 | 3.02  0.76 | 2.98  0.39 |

**Table 5.25 [C] According to Graduate Institutions: National and Private**

|  | National Uni<br><br>M    SD | Private Uni<br><br>M    SD | * Total<br><br>M    SD |
|---|---|---|---|
| NatSpkr  - | 2.88  0.69 | 2.83  0.54 | 3.07  0.57 |
| Diffi. | 3.50  0.67 | 3.00  0.88 | 3.16  0.70 |
| Cult | 3.33  0.35 | 3.34  0.39 | 3.31  0.36 |
| Instit | 2.22  0.64 | 2.37  0.54 | 2.44  0.66 |
| ATENLRN | 2.99  0.48 | 2.92  0.47 | 2.99  0.42 |

* 'Total' is represented by nine different universities located in Pusan, Taegu and Seoul.

**Table 5.25 [D] According to Grades in English Acquired at Universities**

| | Low (D) | | Middle (C) | | Middle High (B) | | Highest (A) | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| NatSpkr | 2.70 | 0.57 | 2.98 | 0.56 | 3.09 | 0.61 | 3.07 | 0.74 | 3.02 | 0.60 |
| Diffi. | 2.90 | 0.22 | 2.91 | 0.89 | 3.20 | 0.64 | 3.57 | 0.61 | 3.11 | 0.73 |
| Cult | 3.20 | 0.11 | 3.35 | 0.35 | 3.30 | 0.38 | 3.42 | 0.20 | 3.32 | 0.35 |
| Instit | 2.40 | 0.42 | 2.50 | 0.74 | 2.34 | 0.65 | 2.50 | 0.50 | 2.42 | 0.67 |
| ATENLRN | 2.92 | 0.40 | 3.00 | 0.46 | 2.97 | 0.40 | 3.02 | 0.35 | 2.98 | 0.42 |

**Table 5.25 [E] According to Visiting Experiences of English Speaking Countries**

| | Yes (N=17) | | No (N=56) | | Total (N=73) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| NatSpkr | 2.99 | 0.77 | 3.05 | 0.53 | 3.03 | 0.59 |
| Diffi. | 3.13 | 0.60 | 3.13 | 0.78 | 3.13 | 0.74 |
| Cult | 3.31 | 0.27 | 3.32 | 0.36 | 3.32 | 0.34 |
| Instit | 2.53 | 0.70 | 2.38 | 0.63 | 2.41 | 0.65 |
| ATENLRN | 2.91 | 0.43 | 3.00 | 0.41 | 2.98 | 0.41 |

**Table 5.25 [F] According To Having Foreign Acquaintances**

| | Yes (N=13) | | No (N=68) | | Total (N=81) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| NatSpkr | 3.10 | 0.76 | 3.02 | 0.56 | 3.03 | 0.60 |
| Diffi. | 3.38 | 0.58 | 3.05 | 0.74 | 3.11 | 0.72 |
| Cult | 3.32 | 0.45 | 3.32 | 0.33 | 3.32 | 0.35 |
| Instit | 2.40 | 0.82 | 2.41 | 0.62 | 2.41 | 0.65 |
| ATENLRN | 3.06 | 0.44 | 2.96 | 0.42 | 2.97 | 0.42 |

**Table 5.25 [G] According to the Nationality of English Instructors at Schools**

| | Korean (N=70) | | British (N=2) | | American (N=12) | | Total (N=84) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| Nat-Spkr | 3.02 | 0.59 | 2.25 | 1.06 | 3.25 | 0.45 | 3.03 | 0.58 |
| Dif-fi. | 3.10 | 0.74 | 4.00 | 0.71 | 3.13 | 0.71 | 3.13 | 0.74 |
| Cult | 3.36 | 0.31 | 3.13 | 0.88 | 3.17 | 0.40 | 3.32 | 0.34 |
| Instit | 2.38 | 0.65 | 2.80 | 0.28 | 2.53 | 0.68 | 2.41 | 0.65 |
| ATE-NLRN | 2.98 | 0.43 | 2.85 | 0.21 | 3.04 | 0.37 | 2.98 | 0.42 |

From the above tables [5.25A-G], the following findings arise:

1. The mean of the oldest graduates (45 years old) is highest on the variable of 'ATENLRN', and that of the youngest is highest on two variables, 'NatSpkr'and 'Diffi', and that of the middle-aged ones is highest on 'Cult'.

2. The graduates who have been working in the Korean society for a long period (longer than 30 years for the present research) show the highest mean score on the attitudes towards 'NatSpkr' and 'Cult', and those who worked for a short period show the highest mean scores on 'Diff', which means the young workers find it easier to study English as a foreign language, compared with their senior workers.

3. National universities do not necessarily show higher means scores on all the variables within G.A.Q. than private ones.

4. The graduates who had highest marks in English at their schools have obtained highest means on the attitudes towards all the variables within G.A.Q.

5. It is worth pointing out that graduates who have experience of visiting English speaking countries do not necessarily show higher mean scores on the variable, attitudes towards English-learning, than those without overseas experience.

6. Graduates who have British or American acquaintances show higher average scores on the variable, attitudes towards variables such as 'NatSpkr', 'Diffi', and 'ATENLRN' than those without foreign friends or acquaintances.

7. Graduates who studied English under instructors of three different nationalities react differently from each other on different variables; those who had Korean instructors show most positive attitudes towards 'Cult'; those who had British instructors register the highest mean scores on 'Diffi'; those who had Americans as their instructors register the highest scores on 'NatSpkr'. Overall, however, on the variable of 'ATENLRN' those who learned English by Americans show the highest average scores.

To be more precise, and to show the differences, if any, in graduates' attitudes towards English as

a foreign language, an analysis of variances of the five variables of scores of graduates' attitudes by level

of 'the graduates' 'age', 'Length of studying English', 'Institutes', 'Grades in English', 'Foreign stay',

and 'Instructors' nationality' has produced the following F values which represent different levels of

significance as in Table [5.26].

As Table [5.26] shows, there is one significant difference in attitudes towards native speakers and

one significant difference in attitudes towards learning English in terms of the variable of 'Length of

Career'. In other words, senior workers have more positive attitudes towards people speaking English as

their mother tongue, and towards English language learning.

[Table 5.26]

**Analysis Of Variance Of The Scores Of Graduates' Attitudes According To The Graduates' 'Age', 'Length Of Career', 'Institutes', 'Grades In English', 'Foreign Stay', And 'Instructors' Nationality'.**

|  | Age F | Length of Career F | Institutes F | Grades in Eng. F | Foreign Stay F | Instructors' nationality F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NatSpkr | 0.99 | 3.20** | 0.87 | 0.68 | 0.15 | 2.71 |
| Diffi | 0.59 | 0.93 | 1.95 | 1.96 | 0.00 | 1.45 |
| Cult | 0.81 | 0.30 | 0.24 | 0.44 | 0.02 | 1.91 |
| Instit | 1.57 | 0.52 | 0.72 | 0.35 | 0.08 | 0.59 |
| ATENLRN | 1.28 | 2.50* | 0.86 | 0.06 | 0.78 | 0.20 |

**Hypothesis No. 3:**

**Korean college graduates are motivated to learn English as a foreign language:**

G.M.Q. is categorised as its dependent variables such as 'IntMot', 'InsMot', 'AcaMot', 'Interest' and 'MOTENGLRN'. Graduates' responses to those variables make a general explanation of the set hypothesis; Their responses have been made according to the Likert five-point scale which ranges between 1 as the minimum value, and 5 as the maximum value. Consequently, to establish how respondents have reacted either positively or negatively to the variables within the G.M.Q., the value 3 has been considered as the average or the mid-point that separates negative responses from positive ones.

Table [5.27] shows the frequency distribution and percentages of graduates' average scores of the dependent variables in the motivation area.

Korean university graduates register a positive reaction to 'InsMot' and 'MOTENGLRN', while they are motivated negatively to 'IntMot', 'AcaMot' and 'Interest'. This statistic is more or less the same as that of university students' responses. What is different between the two is that graduates are negatively motivated to 'Interest' and the students are positively motivated.

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[Table 5.27]

Frequency Distribution and Percentages of the Negative, Neutral, and Positive Average Scores of the Variables Within the Graduates' Motivation Questionnaire.

| Variables | Number and Percentage of Average Scores | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Below 3 | At 3 | Above 3 | |
| IntMot | 59 (62.70%) | 8 (8.40%) | 16 (28.90%) | 83 (100%) |
| InsMot | 35 (44.90%) | 3 (3.80%) | 40 (51.30%) | 78 (100%) |
| AcaMot | 54 (64.30%) | 22 (26.20%) | 7 (9.50%) | 83 (100%) |
| Interest | 47 (56.60%) | 18 (21.70%) | 18 (21.70%) | 83 (100%) |
| MOTENGLRN | 19 (23.50%) | 12 (14.80%) | 50 (61.70%) | 81 (100%) |

Hypothesis No. 4:

There are no differences in the motivation of Korean graduates to learn English as a foreign language according to graduates' 'Age' 'Working Career', 'Institutions', 'Grades in English at University', 'Overseas Visit', and 'Having foreign acquaintances' and 'Nationality of Instructors'.

Table [5.28] shows the means scores and standard deviations of each variable within G.M.Q. in order to describe more detailed relationships among variables. The Table [5.28] is divided into 7 sub-tables (Table [5.28 A - G]: see Appendix 10) by level of graduates' 'Age', 'Working Career', 'Institutions', 'Grades in English at University', 'Overseas Visit', and 'Having foreign acquaintances' and 'Nationality of Instructors'.

[Table 5.28]

Distribution of Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of the Variables Within the Graduates' Motivation Questionnaire.

|  | Means | SD | Cases |
|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 2.66 | 0.46 | 83 |
| InsMot | 2.96 | 0.59 | 78 |
| AcaMot | 2.27 | 0.95 | 84 |
| Intrst | 2.68 | 0.76 | 83 |
| MOTENGLRN | 3.15 | 0.43 | 81 |

The result of the analysis of Tables [5.28 A-G](see Appendix 10) drawn according to 7 independent variables reveals the following evidence:

1. The graduates who belong to the 25-years of age group register the highest means score on 'InsMot', and those who belong to the 35-year of age group show highest average scores on 'Interest' and 'MOTENGLRN'.

2. In terms of 'Length of Working Career', graduates who worked for 30 years show the highest mean scores on 'InsMot' and 'MOTENGLRN', but the other two groups, who worked for 10 and 20 years, show below 3 as their means scores.

3. In terms of 'Graduates' institutions', national universities show higher scores on most variables than private ones; especially much higher scores on 'InsMot', 'Interest' and 'MOTENGLRN'. Particularly, it is worth noting, as in Table [5.29], there is one difference on the variable 'MOTENGLRN' between institutions. National institutions are more strongly motivated to learning English than are private institutions.

4. In terms of English grades acquired at schools, those whose English is at the advanced level, show the highest scores on 'AcaMot', 'Interest' and 'MOTENGLRN'.

5. There are no significant differences between the means of those who have had overseas experiences and of those who have not.

6. There are differences between the means of those who have English native speakers as their acquaintances and of those who have not. Those who know foreigners very well show higher scores than those without foreign acquaintances on all of the variables.

7. In terms of the nationality of English instructors at schools, respondents who were taught English by Americans show highest scores on 'InsMot'(Instrumental Motivation) and 'MOTENGLRN' (motivation of English learning). Those who were taught by British show highest scores on 'AcaMot' (Academic Motivation).

[Table 5.29]

**Analysis of Variance of the Scores of Graduates.**

|  | Age<br><br>F | Length of Study<br><br>F | Institutes<br>F | Grades in Eng.<br><br>F | Foreign Stay<br><br>F | Instructor's Nationality<br>F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 0.89 | 1.72 | 1.58 | 0.22 | 0.13 | 0.75 |
| InsMot | 1.04 | 1.68 | 1.50 | 0.51 | 0.07 | 0.93 |
| AcaMot | 0.67 | 0.57 | 0.79 | 2.03 | 0.02 | 2.51 |
| Intrst | 0.48 | 1.62 | 2.89 | 0.46 | 0.02 | 2.90 |
| MOTENGLRN | 0.88 | 1.93 | 2.14<br><br>* | 0.89 | 0.02 | 1.71 |

In this chapter, the findings of the present research were presented, followed by data interpretation and discussion of the results. Hypotheses deriving from the research literature and research questions were examined in terms of students', instructors' and graduates' motivation and attitudes to learn and to teach English as foreign language in the Korean context.

However, more detailed needs and motivations for ELL might be clarified, and also a more detailed comparison might be made between students' and graduates' needs and motivations for learning English. Accordingly, our next concern turns to an item-to-item comparison of students' and graduates' questionnaires according to categories which will be elaborated in the ensuing chapter.

# CHAPTER SIX

# FURTHER ANALYSIS AND

# DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In this Chapter, more detailed profiles of analysis than those given in Chapter 5 are presented of students',

professors' and graduates' needs, motivation and attitudes, interest and anxiety to learn and teach English

as a foreign language. Item-by-item comparison of students' and graduates' questionnaires was made

according to several categories to explore the extent of consensus or contradiction between those two

samples.

## 6.1    Comparison of students' and graduates' questionnaires according to categories

The mean score of each item in the students' questionnaires, instructors' questionnaires and

graduates' questionnaires is analysed and compared with each other. The items are divided into several

categories, most of which are from the dependent variables of each questionnaire already offered in

Chapter 5. What is mainly intended by this analysis is an idea of how positive or negative each item is.

It is worth noting that the negative statements are reversely scored, which means that a

respondent's choice, for instance, of 'Strongly Disagree' when a statement is negative indicates/implies a

positive attitude towards the attitude object. Hence the score given should be 5 not 1. Consequently,

since in the pages ahead, reference will frequently be made to such negative statements, and since the

scores of such statements might mislead the reader, it is advisable to read all the negative statements in the

positive rather than in the negative form. Below is an example of a negative statement drawn from the students' and the instructors' questionnaires.

| Statements | Mean Score | |
|---|---|---|
| My English professor does not seem to be satisfied with his own lectures. | 3.36 | *(1.64) |
| I became a professor of English because there was no other choice. | 4.13 | *(0.87) |
| I imagine myself to be in a prison while teaching English. | 4.13 | *(0.87) |

* ( ) denotes 'mean score' of the actual negative statement.

The mean scores of these statements are 3.36, 4.13, 4.13 each. Because these statements have been reversely scored, the value 3.36 (mean score of the actual negative statement is 1.64.), for example, does not stand for respondents' negative reaction. It rather stands for their positive reaction as follows:

| Statements | Mean Score |
|---|---|
| My English professor seems to be satisfied with his own lectures. | 3.36 |
| I chose to become a professor of English. | 4.13 |
| I imagine myself to be in a joyful place while teaching English. | 4.13 |

At this stage of the current research it will be useful to compare the average scores of items between the questionnaires of students and graduates according to categories, so as to see if there are any variations in the attitudes and motivation of learners of English before and after graduation from undergraduate courses.

Tables [6.1] - [6.4] show the result of responses to the sections concerning motivation for studying. The value 3 has been considered as the mid-point that separates negative responses from positive ones ('below 3' implies 'negative' and 'above 3' implies 'positive' value).

Table [6.1] shows the same statement (No. 13: 'I study English because English will enable me to meet and communicate with more and various people.') from the two questionnaires (students' and graduates') enjoys the highest average score, 3.30, 3.55 each. Students and graduates regard the integrative reason, 'English will enable me to meet and communicate with more and various people' most important. Graduates estimate the notion,'...I want to understand better English speaking people and their way of life.' as being second in importance, while students estimate the one, '... I think English will enrich my background and broaden my cultural horizons.' as being second in importance. The other statements in the integrative motivational category show negative reactions by both the students and graduates. Statements No. 1 and 2 were asked only to the students, who expressed negative reactions for both of them.

Item-by-item comparison of students' and graduates' questionnaire according to each category

[Table 6.1]

Integrative motivation for English study:

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Students | Graduates |
| 13. | I study English because English will enable me to meet and communicate with more and various people. | 3.30 | 3.55 |
| 10. | I study English because I think English will enrich my background and broaden my cultural horizons. | 3.00 | 2.98 |
| 5. | The reason I study English is that I want to understand better English speaking people and their way of life. | 2.83 | 3.15 |
| 17. | I study English to enjoy more entertainment, i.e. listening to music and radio, watching TV, reading magazines and novels in English. | 2.71 | 2.67 |
| 3. | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to think and behave like English speaking people. | 2.35 | 2.69 |
| 1. | The reason for my studying English is to understand English native speakers' culture and way of life. | 2.94 | |
| 2. | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to make friends more easily among other nationalities. | 2.68 | |

[Table 6.2]

Instrumental motivation of English study

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Students | Graduates |
| 8. | I study English because English is regarded to be economically important in today's world. | 3.61 | 3.89 |
| 9. | I study English because knowing English is probably useful in getting a good job in the future. | 3.55 | 3.39 |
| 7. | I study English because English is considered to be politically important in today's world. | 3.40 | 3.15 |
| 6. | Studying English is important to me because I will study my major subject in an English speaking country. | 3.20 | 3.10 |
| 12. | I study English because English will help me socially recognizable and add my social status. | 2.99 | 3.25 |
| 4. | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to live and work in another country. | 2.83 | 2.93 |
| 14. | I study English because I think an educated person should be fluent in English. | 2.79 | 2.94 |
| 11. | I study English because I think knowing English means that I can earn more money than otherwise. | 2.71 | 2.78 |
| 16. | I study English to do business in English. | 2.27 | 2.45 |
| 18. | I study English to pass several kinds of tests for graduate schools or jobs. | 3.65 | |

According to Table [6.2], it is remarkable that both students and graduates give the same ranks

of priorities to instrumental reasons for learning English, with the first priority to the item, 'I study English

because English is regarded to be economically important in today's world.', followed by 'I study English

because knowing English probably useful in getting a good job in the future.', and so forth, giving last

priority to the item 'I study English to do business in English'. The respondents give positive reactions to

instrumental items such as: 'I study English because English is regarded to be economically important in

today's world.' (3.61, 3.89 each). 'I study English because knowing English is probably useful in getting

a good job in the future.' (3.55, 3.39). 'I study English because English is considered to be politically

important in today's world.' (3.40, 3.15). 'Studying English is important to me because I will study my

major subject in an English speaking country.' (3.20, 3.20). 'I study English because English will help

me socially recognizable and add my social status.'(2.99, 3.25). In particular, undergraduate students are

highly motivated to learning English to pass several kinds of examinations, eg. for postgraduate schools

and jobs. (mean score 3.65).

[Table 6.3]

**Academic motivation of English study:**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Students | Graduates |
| 60. | I think that a more effective way of learning English is by studying grammar first of all. | 2.56 | 2.55 |
| 23. | I study English to study its linguistic syntax and structure in depth. | 2.33 | 2.27 |

Respondents show weaker reactions on the academic motivation, probably because the category

given for this motivation is relatively limited to some specific departments of Korean or foreign languages

and literatures. The number of students from these departments is heavily outnumbered by that of the others.

[Table 6.4]

Desire/expectation for English proficiency

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Students | Graduates |
| **Desire** | | | |
| 44. | I wish I could speak English as fluently as native speakers. | 3.95 | 3.94 |
| **Expectation concerning the fulfillment of the desire** | | | |
| 45. | I think I will be able to speak English as fluently as native speakers in the future. | 3.52 | 3.37 |

It is natural that respondents should show a strong desire for English language-learning, expressed by 'statement 44' in Table [6.4], 'I wish I could speak English as fluently as native speakers.' (means scores 3.95, 3.94 each). According to the scores (3.52, 3.37) given to the statement 45, they show high confidence in themselves in mastering English.

[Table 6.5]

*Attitude towards English*

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Students | Graduates |
| 31. | I think English is very useful to Koreans. | 3.52 | 3.54 |
| 30. | I think English is very important for Koreans. | 3.36 | 3.39 |
| 26. | Knowledge of English will give me personal satisfaction. | 3.22 | 3.20 |
| 25. | Knowledge of English will probably make me feel proud of myself. | 2.62 | 2.21 |

| 33. | I hesitate to speak English, for fear of making mistakes. | 2.59 | 3.48 |
|-----|------------------------------------------------------------|------|------|
| 27. | I don't think that studying English will increase other's respect for me. | 2.57 | 2.52 |

Table [6.5] reflects very well the big importance of English in Korean society. Students and graduates would equally feel satisfied if they should be competent in speaking English. Graduates are confident enough to speak English without being afraid of making mistakes, while students are not. However, neither of them think knowledge of English give them pride and the respect of other people.

Table [6.6] compares two items concerning attitudes towards native speakers by the mean scores. It is worth noting that respondents want to be fluent in English as they get to know English native speakers more and more but that they don't necessarily like English native speakers to the same extent.

[Table 6.6]

**Attitudes towards English native speakers**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students Graduates | |
|----------|------------|--------|--------|
| 34. | The more I get to know English native speakers, the more I want to be fluent in English. | 3.50 | 3.74 |
| 35. | The more I get to know English native speakers, the better I like them. | 2.78 | 2.80 |

It is also worthy of our attention to note that students and graduates show negative attitudes towards the English curriculum and teaching programmes offered at their institutions. Particularly the function of language laboratories at their institutions is most doubted, followed by English courses taken for the improvement of reading, and then for the improvement of writing, lastly of speaking.

[Table 6.7]

**Perception of ELT offered at institutions**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Students | Graduates |
| 72. | I think the language laboratory at my university helps me to learn communicative English. | 2.45 | 2.64 |
| 74. | I think the English courses offered in my university are good enough for the development of my reading in English. | 2.25 | 2.58 |
| 75. | I think the English courses offered in my university are good enough for the development of my listening in English. | 2.15 | 2.24 |
| 77. | I think the English courses offered in my university are good enough for the development of my writing in English. | 2.12 | 2.35 |
| 76. | I think the English courses offered in my university are good enough for the development of my speaking in English. | 2.08 | 2.16 |
| 71. | I am satisfied with classroom activities done in English courses. | 2.60 | |
| 69. | English lessons taught to me enable me to learn English actually. | 2.47 | |
| 73. | I think the homework given in English classes is appropriate for improvement of my English. | 2.41 | |

In Table [6.8], respondents, only undergraduate students in this case, show positive attitudes towards the three items; 'My English professor does not seem to be satisfied with his own lectures.', which is interpreted in its positive meaning, 'My English professor seems to be satisfied with his own lectures.' (3.36); 'My English professor does his best effort to make his lecture understood by us.' (3.08); 'My English professor(s) is serious in his lecturing.' (3.05). However, they do not think that their English professors seem to behave like British or Americans and do not try to speak English outside their classrooms.

[Table 6.8]

Perception of ELT instructors

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students |
|---|---|---|
| 85. | My English professor does not seem to be satisfied with his own lectures. | 1.64 |
| | (= My English professor seems to be satisfied with his own lectures.) | 3.36 |
| 84. | My English professor does his best to make his lecture understood by us. | 3.08 |
| 82. | My English professor(s) is serious in his lecturing. | 3.05 |
| 81. | My English professor(s) seem to be interested in his own lectures. | 2.98 |
| 83. | My English professor has an excellent command of English. | 2.98 |
| 86. | My English professor uses a lot of lecture aids (video, record player, etc.). | 2.61 |
| 80. | The English lessons given by my English professor(s) are effective. | 2.60 |
| 88. | My English professor tries to speak English outside classrooms. | 2.54 |
| 87. | My English professor seems to behave like British or Americans. | 2.47 |

Students, as indicated in Table [6.9], agree with the idea that education in English should start at their primary schools rather than at secondary, as at present, but do not agree with the effectiveness or appropriateness of the present policy of English education implemented by the Ministry of Education for the internationalization and globalization activated by the Korean government. Here, reformation of the education system supported by the government should be reconsidered in order to make education in English more efficient in the future.

[Table 6.9]

**Perception of national ELT policy**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students |
|---|---|---|
| 90. | I think it is more effective to start learning English at primary school level than at secondary level. | 3.35 |
| 89. | The present policy of English education implemented by the Ministry of Education is appropriate for the internationalisation activated by the Korean government. | 2.09 |

Students and graduates generally want to learn English and strongly want to learn two foreign languages (mean score 3.78). They, students in particular, like English enough to continue after graduation from their schools. In reply to the questions about the difficulty of the four skills of English, students indicate that reading is easiest, followed by writing, listening and speaking. They perceive all four of these skills as being difficult.

[Table 6.10]

**Degree of interest in English**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students | Graduates |
|---|---|---|---|
| 46. | I like to study English. | 3.18 | 3.12 |
| 47. | I will give up studying English upon graduating from the university because I am fed up with it. | 1.22 | |
| | (=I will continue to study English after graduation from the university). | 3.78 | |
| 49. | I want to study two foreign languages. | 3.66 | |
| 56. | I find reading is the easiest among 4 skills of English. | 3.56 | |
| 57. | I find writing is the easiest among 4 skills of English. | 2.79 | |
| 54. | I find listening is the easiest among 4 skills of English. | 2.51 | |
| 55. | I find speaking is the easiest among 4 skills of English. | 2.43 | |

[Table 6.11]

**Attitudes towards English skills**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students | Graduates |
|---|---|---|---|
| 58. | I like to read books and materials published in English. | 2.78 | 2.80 |
| 60. | I think it more effective way of learning English to study grammar first of all. | 2.56 | 2.55 |
| 59. | I do every effort to memorize vocabularies. | 2.84 | |

Students who in Table [6.10] agreed with the idea that they like English show in Table [6.12] that

English is very difficult to learn compared to other subjects. As shown in Table [6.10] they find

communicative English more difficult to learn than written English.


[Table 6.12]

Difficulty of English

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Students | Graduates |
| 48. | English is difficult for me to learn. | 2.99 | 3.12 |
| 61. | English is easier to me than any other subject. | 2.53 | |
| 62. | My peers say that English is easy to learn. | 2.42 | |


Table [6.13] indicates that English does not endanger learners' cultural identity (3.57, 3.86) and

so there is no cultural conflict or interference in studying English (3.49, 3.58). Statement 50 'Studying

English endangers my own cultural identity.' (1.43, 1.14) should be reversely interpreted such as

'Studying English *does not* endanger my own cultural identity.' (3.57, 3.86), since the term 'endanger'

denotes a negative meaning rather than positive. As mentioned in the beginning section of the present

chapter, the negative statements are reversely scored and interpreted.

Respondents do not find Korean culture to be inferior to that of English-speaking countries,

neither do they think that exposure to English culture would negatively influence their values and

priorities.

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[Table 6.13]

**Cultural conflict in English acquisition**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students | Graduates |
|---|---|---|---|
| 50. | Studying English endangers my own cultural identity. | 3.57 | 3.86 |
| 53. | This realisation has interfered with my progress in English study. | 3.49 | 3.58 |
| 51. | Studying English enables me to discover that some aspects of Korean culture are not good as I had previously thought through my exposure to English culture. | 2.95 | 3.06 |
| 52. | This realisation has made me think more about my own values and priorities. | 2.90 | 2.81 |

The figures in Table [6.14] show that the mean score of the item, 'I think my English textbooks are well-organised' is highest (3.21) on the one hand, followed by the item 'I think my English textbooks are easy enough' (3.20), taking into learners' standard of English (3.08) on the other hand. Students do not think that their English textbooks are compiled according to their needs for English.

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[Table 6.14]

**Perception of textbooks**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students |
|---|---|---|
| 63. | I think my English textbooks are well-organized. | 3.21 |
| 65. | I think my English textbooks are difficult to understand. | 3.20 |
| 64. | I think my English textbooks do not take into learners' standards into regard. | 3.08 |
| 66. | I think my English textbooks are compiled according to my needs for English. | 2.79 |

Students' assessment of the tests they take in English is presented in Table [6.15]. Two statements were given on this section; 'I think that the English tests I take are too difficult.' and 'I think that the English tests I take do not cover all the activities taught.' Respondents answered that the tests they take are appropriate for the learners' standard (3.03), even though these tests do not cover all the activities taught (2.70).

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[Table 6.15]

**Perception of tests:**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students |
|---|---|---|
| 68. | I think that English tests I take are too difficult. | 3.03 |
| 67. | I think that English tests I take do not cover all the activities taught. | 2.70 |

As broadly expected in Korean society, students and graduates show affirmative average scores

(3.35, 3.32) on the statement saying that English is important for the fulfillment of their future dreams.

Students do not think English is so important as to make them learned persons and to make them feel the

fulfillment of their real aims in life. It is worth mentioning that while students regard English as irrelevant

to their future ideal or life, graduates think English as relevant (see Table [6.16]).


[Table 6.16]

English for future dream

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Students | Graduates |
| 40. | English is important for the fulfillment of my future dream or ambition. | 3.35 | 3.32 |
| 38. | I don't think English is an important instrument to make me a learned person. | 2.74 | 2.77 |
| 37. | I don't think studying English will make me feel the fulfillment of my real aims in life. | 2.39 | 2.33 |
| 39. | English is not relevant to my future ideal or life. | 2.32 | 3.15 |


The other items which do not belong to the categories above are to be compared according to the

mean scores of students and graduates in Table [6.17]. The Korean learners of the English language

envy those who speak fluent English. Graduates marked highest scores (3.60) on the statement saying

that they study English to broaden their points of view and insights into the world outside Korea. It is

worth noting that the students' parents are not so enthusiastic about their children's English as to invest as

much money as is needed for it. The item, 'I study English to write letters in English.' received the lowest

scores by students and graduates.

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[Table 6.17]

Miscellany

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES Students | Graduates |
|---|---|---|---|
| 36. | I envy, or even respect those who have good command of English. | 3.31 | 3.24 |
| 24. | I study English to broaden my points of view and insights into the world outside Korea. | 3.03 | 3.60 |
| 32. | I consider living in a foreign country to improve my English. | 2.79 | 2.60 |
| 43. | I think I have a talent for learning English. | 2.78 | 2.83 |
| 19. | I study English to get to know and guide tourists better. | 2.77 | 2.69 |
| 41. | I think studying English helps me develop a good reasoning ability. | 2.72 | 2.79 |
| 28. | If I had to stay in English speaking countries for an extended period of time, if I could get along in Korean, I will not bother to learn English. | 2.57 | 3.49 |
| 42. | I agree with the notion that to be good in English one must have a special talent for it. | 2.47 | 2.36 |
| 21. | I study English to learn foreigners' viewpoints about Korea. | 2.41 | 2.70 |
| 15. | I study English to write letters in English. | 2.27 | 2.11 |
| 29. | I think it will be easier to live in other countries if I know English. | 3.59 | |
| 22. | I study English to read English books at postgraduate schools. | 3.09 | |
| 70. | My parents are so enthusiastic about my English as to invest as much money as is needed for it. | 2.89 | |
| 78. | I have enough opportunities to practise English outside the classroom. | 2.35 | |
| 79. | I wish English were an elective subject | 2.67 | |

The semi-structured questionnaire and interviews that are analyzed below were carried out mainly on students of Kosin University. The main objective was to obtain freer and broader ideas about students' motivation and attitudes than could be obtained through structured questionnaires.

## 6.2 Analysis of Selected Items of Semi-Structured Questionnaire

The responses are listed in the order of the number of responded cases.

(Number of respondents: 80 students)

*Question 18:* *'Can you pinpoint any cultural differences between Korea and Britain/America?'*

## ON BRITISH/AMERICAN CULTURE (BC)

1.     British/American culture places heavy importance on individualism and people's autonomy.

(Cases responded: 27)

2.     There is difference of expression of courtesy. (23)

e.g. - British/American men open doors for women to go before themselves.

- British/American people seem to use a lot of apologetic remarks, for example, 'I'm sorry.' or

'That's my fault.'

- In BC, there does not seem as much esteem towards elderly people as in Korea.

3.     There is difference in the manner of explanation of thoughts. (15)

e.g. - British/American people seem more creative in thinking than Koreans.

- BC people think more broadly in every way than Koreans.

4.     BC puts emphasis on public profits. (6)

e.g. - British/American government or enterprises seem to invest much more on the public health and others than in Korea.

5.      There is a difference in people's consciousness and life habits. (5)

        e.g.    - British/Americans seem to enjoy their holidays and comfortable life.

6.      BC is more open-minded. (2)

        e.g. - BC people seem easier to become friends.

7.      BC pursues a freer type of democracy. (2)


## ON KOREAN CULTURE (KC)

1.      KC is very Confucian and conservative. (44)

2.      Korean people are very affection-oriented and sensitive to emotion. (18)

3.      KC ignores individual talents and gifts.(18)


*Question 22:*    *'Which countries do you want to visit or live in most?'*

| 1 America (50) | 2 Britain (12) | 3 France (5) |
|---|---|---|
| 4 Switzerland (3) | 5 Australia (3) | 6 Germany (3) |
| 7 Canada (2) | 8 Denmark (1) | 9 New Zealand (1) |

-

*Question 23:*    *'If you do not want to live and work abroad, why not?'*

1.      Because I am not rich enough.(62)

2.      Because I want to further study in my subject. (18)

3.      Because there may be cultural differences.(7)

4.      I am not interested in it.(3)

*Question 24:*      *'Are you satisfied with the present university-entrance examination?' 'Or do you want*

*any changes/revisions in it?'*

1.      It should be listening- and speaking-centred rather than reading and grammar-centred.(32)

2.      I am satisfied with it. (29)

3.      I am satisfied with the University Academic Ability Test which has recently been developed. (11)

4.      I want to use English along with its culture, rather than simply answer questions in English tests.(3)

5.      I want to be free from memory-tests. (3)

6.      I want English education to start in elementary schools.(2)


*Question 26:*      *'Does your religion influence your learning of English? If yes, in what way?*

                     *Positively or negatively?'*

1.      My religion positively influences my learning English, in order to spread my religion all over the world. (62)

2.      Positively influences, for me to read religious literature. (18)


*Question 27:*      *'Does your culture as a Korean influence your learning English?' 'If yes, in what*

                     *way? Positively or negatively?'*

1.      Negatively, because of the reverse order of Korean and English syntax. (41)

2.      Negatively influences my English, because it does not constitute an affirmative environment for the study of English.(39)

*Question 33:*    *'Do you have any views on the national policy for ELT? Do you feel satisfied or do*

*you feel any changes in the policy for ELT in Korea? If any change(s) or revisions are needed, what*

*kind of changes?'*

1.      It should be practical and communicative. (53)

2.      An earlier start in English education would be more desirable. (9)

3.      More investment should be made in English education. (6)

4.      Satisfactory. (6)

5.      Teachers' lack of ability of communicative English. (3)

6.      English should be adopted as the national language. (3)


Some of the Korean cultural characteristics were investigated through this semi-structured

questionnaire. Accordingly, a comparison or contrast can be made between this researched picture of

Korean perceptions of Korean culture and unresearched and speculative account of Korean perceptions

given in Chapter 2.

First of all, the British/American culture emphasises individualism, while Korean culture regards

family, community or nation as the core centre. This evidence coincided with the theoretical description

clarified by Kim (1977) in Chapter 2 in the present research.

Secondly, in expression of courtesy, British/Americans open doors for women to let them go

before them, but Koreans do not. Discrimination of gender in Korean culture was visible in this

questionnaire, which also coincides with the clarification in Chapter 2. Yun (1964, 1971), as cited in

Chapter 2, describe Korean people's character as a combination of both the resigned tendency and

aggressive militant attitude. Kuroda (1983), a Japanese scholar, describes Korean culture as a high

mountain culture, while Kim (1981), a Korean scholar, describes Korean culture as a low mountain

culture, or horizontal culture. As indicated through the above investigation, Korean people show high-

mountain culture towards women, even if they possess egalitarianism from their low-mountain culture.

Thirdly, Korean students supposed that the British/American people had more depth and breadth in their thinking than the Koreans. Ch'oe (1972) states that the Koreans lack ability in reasoning and hard thinking, which is cited in Chapter 2.

Fourthly, Korean students considered that Korean culture is very conservative, which is also theorised in Chapter 2.

Lastly, most of the respondents answered that their English is negatively influenced by their Korean culture and language, which is asserted by Bae (1994) in Chapter 2.


## 6.3    Conducting students' interview

Students' interviews were conducted in a relatively small scale with the purpose of obtaining information in depth and breadth that could not be obtained by structured and semi-structured questionnaires. 20 Korean students studying at a Korean university and 6 Korean students studying at Stirling University in UK were randomly selected and asked some questions concerning their reasons (or needs) for learning English, attitudes towards English and English speaking people, perception of ELT in their schools, cultural conflict between the cultures of Korea and English speaking countries.

Interviewees were allowed to talk freely on the given topics, and their dialogues were tape-recorded separately from interviewee to interviewee, and transcribed into written form after interviewing. The transcription was categorised according to several topics, related to students' needs, attitudes, interest, anxiety, motivation and cultural shock or barrier. The analysis of their interviews is presented below. The responses are listed in the order of the number of responded cases.


1.  Twelve (out of 24) of interviewees said that they learn English to get good jobs in Korean society which requires good English-speaking graduates. Four of the interviewees learn English simply because they like it and another four learn English to be well educated people, and another four learn

English because it is an international language, and only a minority (2) learns English to learn British/American culture.

2.  In terms of the occupation for which the interviewees will use English after learning it, fifteen of the interviewees want to have jobs related to English, e.g. translators, or interpreters, diplomats, tourist guides, missionaries and movie-makers. Ten, four of whom are studying at a foreign university in the UK, want to teach their subjects in secondary or tertiary education.

3.  To the question concerning their impression or opinions of those speaking English as their mother tongue, thirteen interviewees answered that they envied native speakers. Especially those who were studying at a British university said that they strongly envied British people, in seminars and tutorials, reading books, and writing essays in English. However, seven of them who studied only in a Korean university without foreign experiences answered that they did not envy native speakers, because they considered the Korean language as superior to the English language. This investigation does not concur with Shin's argument (1965) that the Korean language has a limited capacity to express abstract concepts, and so does not particularly permit the expression of logical thought.

4.  Those impressions concerning native speakers are mostly from TV or films (mass-communication), and partly from actual life in UK. Most students (17) studying in Korea think that these impressions concerning native speakers do not affect their learning of English. However, the rest of them, especially those studying in the UK, feel that this feeling of envy gives them a strong stimulus or motivation to learn English.

5.  Korean parents are so concerned and enthusiastic about their children's study of English that they are willing to invest money in it. For example, when Korean parents are asked by their children to buy

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books about English study, they do not hesitate or reject their offers. It is interesting that Korean parents do not know their children's level of proficiency even though they spend a lot of money towards developing it. Therefore, some students jokingly confess that learning English is a good reason by which they are given money which may be used for other purposes.

6. Students' views on the teaching methods used at their universities indicate that there are no teaching methods appropriate to improve students' level of English. They are given very boring lessons, e.g. reading in English and translating in Korean with some grammatical pinpointing. Students want their English to be taught in the form of free-talking by English native-speaking instructors.

7. In terms of the medium of instruction at English classes, nearly one-hundred percent of students learned English through Korean by Korean instructors, even though they prefer learning English from native speakers. It was established that many of the private language institutes in Korea offer English instruction through English by native speakers.

8. Korean students consider that the British are more open-minded and their morality is based on more freedom and unfetteredness, and that the British possess a more positive way of thinking. On the contrary, Koreans have more restricted (or narrower) ideas and are very cautious about doing certain things.

9. Another distinctive difference is that 'going Dutch' is very common in Britain or perhaps in European countries, but in Korea one person pays for all of the participants at a restaurant or a pub.

10. Most interviewees wanted to stay or live in English speaking countries only for a short time rather than permanently (only 4 interviewees). The main reason for that was that it must be hard for

Koreans to assimilate fully to a new culture. One respondent studying in the UK said that he would not mind living in English speaking-countries if he got as good a job as he wanted, because there were more materials and information in his field than in Korea.

11. In respect of problems which Koreans expected to meet when living in English-speaking countries, their replies agreed with each other: communication difficulty with native speakers, differences of custom, climate, and food.

12. Many respondents showed positive attitudes towards obtaining jobs abroad. and the most attractive countries to work in were America (10), UK (8), Switzerland (2). Six did not yet know.

13. In respect of the present university entrance-examination, all of the respondents showed a strongly negative reaction. Communicative or practical skills of English were totally neglected and some questions were not clear. They were considered to be only questions for questions' sake.

14. In terms of Korean cultural influence on learning English, most interviewees thought that they were not affected by Korean culture when they learnt English.

15. The interviewees indicated that Koreans have no advantages in learning English, but that on the contrary, they had mainly two disadvantages: difficulty in pronunciation, and difference of word order.

16. For the present state of Korean ELT, the government and instructors (or institutions) were considered responsible. Most Korean students studying in the UK indicated that they were not impressed by instructors' teaching when they learned English in Korean schools.

17. As the closing question of the current interview, interviewees were asked to offer suggestions about national policy on ELT. Their suggestions were: (1) Korean ELT should be based on 'natural approach', or a 'communicative approach', rather than a 'grammar-translation oriented'; (2) the policy of ELT was too short-sighted; (3) more native speakers should be employed for English teaching at schools; and (4) English instruction should be offered in English.

## 6.4 Item-by-item comparison of English instructors' questionnaires according to categories

The English professors' questionnaires were also item-analysed in the tables [6.18] - [6.26] to make more detailed comparison of them according to some categories. Table [6.18], relevant to the perception of profession as ELT professors, showed the highest average score (4.33) on the statement, 'I am satisfied with my job as a professor', followed by 'I became a professor of English by my own will (4.13)', and so 'I am satisfied with my job as a professor of English.' English professors were also proud of their professorship, feeling a sense of achievement through teaching English and contributing to the service of their community. Teaching English enabled them to be innovative and creative (3.07): It did not help in developing their personality, and did not make them behave like English-speaking people, which was in accord with the students' perception of their instructors (see Table [6.8]).

Item-by-item comparison of professors' questionnaires according to each category

[Table 6.18]
Perception of profession as ELT professors

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | I am satisfied with my job as a professor. | 4.33 |
| 6. | I became a professor of English because there was no other choice. | 4.13 |
| 2. | I am satisfied with my job as a professor of English. | 4.00 |
| 3. | I am proud of being a professor of English. | 3.80 |
| 5. | Teaching English is a good profession. | 3.73 |
| 35. | Teaching English does not make me feel any sense of achievement. | 3.53 |
| 42. | Teaching English does not enable me to understand English-speaking people's way of life. | 3.47 |
| 38. | Teaching English is not the way to be more modern. | 3.40 |
| 4. | I think the Korean society respect professor of English. | 3.27 |
| 43. | Teaching English enables me to understand foreign art and literature. | 3.27 |
| 37. | Teaching English contributes to the service of my community. | 3.20 |
| 36. | Teaching English enables me to be innovative and creative. | 3.07 |
| 34. | Teaching English helps in developing my personality. | 2.93 |
| 41. | Teaching English makes me behave like English-speaking people. | 2.73 |
| 40. | Teaching English does not make me feel like English-speaking people. | 2.60 |
| 39. | Teaching English is the way to obtain social recognition. | 2.53 |

As in Table [6.18], English professors liked teaching English as their jobs and felt relaxed while teaching it. The obvious conclusion derived from these two tables concerning satisfaction or interest in the job of English professorship is that all the instructors or professors were happy with their profession as teachers of English.

[Table 6.19] Interest

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| 49. | I imagine myself to be in a prison while teaching English. | 4.13 |
| 45. | If I had the chance, I would immediately change this profession for another. | 4.00 |
| 48. | I feel very relaxed while teaching English. | 3.87 |
| 50. | It would be better if more school hours were given to English. | 3.67 |
| 44. | I find my job in teaching English to be tiring. | 3.60 |
| 46. | I like teaching English more than any other subject. | 3.60 |
| 47. I am pleased when my English lessons come. | | 3.53 |

As shown in Table [6.20], Korean instructors of English have positive impressions about their textbooks, which are mainly from Britain or America and whose contents and topics about British or American cultures are acceptable to students. They do not necessarily want to change or re-compile their textbooks appropriate for Korean culture.

[Table 6.20]

**Attitudes towards textbooks**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| 7. | English textbooks contain many important and beneficial topics for efficient E.L.T. | 3.47 |
| 13. | Textbooks in use at present in my classes are mainly from Britain or America. | 3.47 |
| 9. | The English textbooks in use at present are unnecessarily long. | 3.13 |
| 14. | English textbooks with topics presented in the foreign cultural context are more acceptable to students. | 3.13 |
| 11. | English textbooks are not coping with the new developments in the field of ELT. | 3.07 |
| 8. | Current English textbooks are of a good standard. | 2.93 |
| 12. | Textbooks used in my classes are usually made by myself. | 2.80 |
| 10. | English textbooks present all activities properly. | 2.47 |
| 15. | Textbooks in use at Korean universities should be compiled according to Korean culture. | 2.20 |

Instructors agree to use English as a medium of instruction in communicative English, but do not agree to use English as a medium of instruction in written English subjects and other subjects (Table [6.21]).   -

[Table 6.21]

**Medium of instruction**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| 19. | When teaching communicative English, I consider it essential to use English as the dominant language of communication in the classroom. | 3.60 |
| 20. | When teaching written English, I consider it essential to use English as the dominant language of communication in the classroom. | 2.87 |
| 21. | When teaching other subjects irrelevant to English, I consider it essential to use English as the dominant language of communication in the classroom. | 2.33 |

Instructors think that English is the most difficult foreign language for Koreans to learn. It is worth noting that English instructors estimate the British or American cultures as superior to Korean culture, that they had difficulty in accepting other countries' food when they visited abroad.

[Table 6.22]

Attitudes towards culture of English speaking countries

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| 28. | I cannot stand the ways of living of English native speakers when travelling abroad. | 3.40 |
| 30. | I think the most difficult language for Koreans to learn is English. | 3.27 |
| 31. | I as an English professor may objectively compare Korean and British/American culture and judge that the latter is superior to the former in general. | 3.13 |
| 25. | I find it very difficult to teach students the differences in culture and ways of thinking between Koreans and English native speakers. | 2.87 |
| 29. | I think the most difficult foreign language for English native speakers to learn is Korean. | 2.67 |
| 26. | Even I as a professor of English find it hard to accept the culture of the English speaking world in a whole. | 2.60 |
| 27. | I cannot stand other countries' food when travelling abroad. | 2.53 |

English professors indicated they prepared diligently for their lessons, making efforts to improve their teaching skills. It is remarkable that they placed the top priority on listening and speaking before grammar, even though the reality was different from that (Table [6.23]).

[Table 6.23]

**Teaching preparation**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| 16. | I usually spend more than an hour in preparing for one-period lesson. | 4.20 |
| 17. | I am always keen to develop my skills in teaching English. | 3.80 |
| 23. | When teaching English, I think it is necessary to teach listening and speaking before teaching grammar. | 3.33 |
| 22. | When teaching English, I believe it is essential to develop grammatical accuracy in all learners. | 2.73 |

As expected, instructors believed that encouragement of students for communication was effective, and hence they made it a rule to do so.

[Table 6.24]

**Encouragement of students**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| 24. | When teaching English, I believe that students should be encouraged to communicate, even if this means making mistakes. | 4.13 |
| 18. | It is my habit to give confidence to students and to encourage them to learn English well. | 3.80 |

Instructors were doubtful about the level of proficiency of their students, compared to that of other countries' counterparts in Asia as well as in the World.

[Table 6.25]

**Perception of students' level of proficiency**

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| 32. | I think that Korean students' level of proficiency in English is higher than that of students' in other Asian countries. | 2.47 |
| 33. | I think that Korean students' level of proficiency in English is higher than that of students' in other countries in the world. | 2.13 |

According to Table [6.26] concerning instructors' perception of their students, students long to visit English speaking countries and to learn communicative English by using communication-oriented textbooks which were revised in 1995. It was shown statistically (mean score 3.47) that students possessed some antagonism towards English lessons and native speakers, nor were they keen on imitating English speaking people's behaviours, but showed active enthusiasm for learning English.

[Table 6.26] Instructors' perception of their students' learning of English

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|

My students:

| 64. | are keen on knowing foreign culture and way of life of the English speaking countries. | 4.73 |
| 63. | are keen on visiting English speaking countries. | 4.07 |
| 55. | have positive attitudes towards learning English. | 3.60 |
| 53. | learn English just to pass examination. | 3.47 |
| 60. | show antagonism for the English lessons. | 3.47 |
| 61. | show antagonism for the English native speakers. | 3.13 |
| 52. | show enthusiasm for learning English. | 3.07 |
| 59. | are unhappy with the difficulty of the tests in English which they are required to take. | 3.00 |
| 51. | like learning English. | 2.93 |
| 54. | are lazy and inattentive. | 2.93 |
| 58. | are unhappy with the difficulty of their English textbooks. | 2.87 |
| 57. | are motivated to learn. | 2.80 |
| 65. | are keen on behave after the English speaking people. | 2.80 |
| 62. | do not seem to overcome the cultural barriers existing between Korea and English speaking countries. | 2.73 |
| 56. | prepare the lesson before coming to the class. | 2.27 |

| ITEM NO. | STATEMENTS | MEAN SCORES |
|---|---|---|
| I: | | |
| 69. | agree with the present policy of starting English-education from the first grade of the secondary schools. | 3.20 |
| 67. | do not agree with the policy that English textbooks at secondary schools shall be revised into communicative -centred in 1995. | 3.53 |
| 66. | think the textbook in use at present at secondary schools are appropriately compiled for teaching 4 skills of English. | 2.40 |
| 70. | agree with the idea of starting English-education from primary schools. | 2.33 |
| 68. | think that English teachers at secondary schools are well qualified for teaching communicative English. | 1.80 |

The final and general conclusion will be reached in the subsequent chapter (Chapter 7), in which further remarks on the analysis of learners', teachers' and graduates' views on Korean ELT, and on comparison of those with other neighbouring countries, and on implications for ELT in the Korean context will be made.

# CHAPTER SEVEN

# CONCLUSIONS, CONSIDERATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

# OF THE STUDY

The present chapter, as a closing chapter of the present research, aims to review foregoing chapters and reach comprehensive conclusions, suggesting implications for further research.

The current research began with a discussion of foreign language acquisition and cultural background, proceeding to a discussion of needs, attitudes, interest, anxiety and motivation leading to the production of evidence on the English language in Korean culture which is different from the cultural context where English was born.

In terms of English language teaching and learning in Korea, it was argued in Chapter 2 that some predicaments exist, especially in establishing teaching objectives, methods, environment, syllabus design, facilities and administrative policies. Korean ELT seems to have been challenged by the Korean cultural context since being introduced to the country.

Korean culture, with mixed attributes of Shamanism, Buddhism, Confucianism and Christianity, has influenced Korean ELT directly or indirectly. Due to its inborn conservatism, and its geographical and cultural distance from the country where English was born, Korea has been struggling to step up the level of English, without yielding as fruitful results as hoped for or anticipated.

Learners of English in Korean culture find it difficult to understand and acquire English culture. However, this does not necessarily mean that Korean culture affects their attitudes and motivation

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negatively. Rather, the present cultural or social context of Korea pursuing internationalization and globalization may serve as an incentive to be motivated to learn English.

Korean ELT instructors have not paid much attention to learners' needs to supply them with suitable aspects of English, and do not establish their teaching objectives before they start lessons or lectures. In the allocation of the four skills of English at the tertiary as well as the secondary levels, the first priority is given to 'reading' and the others are nearly neglected, as is demonstrated in Tables [2.3] and [2.4] of Chapter 2. Chae (1984) established that textbooks used at most Korean universities were compiled on the basis of 'reading-centred' skill, neglecting 'writing', 'listening' and 'speaking' skills (see Table [2.5]). In fact, however, students expressed their wish to improve their competence in English conversation. It is confirmed by a researcher (Kim, 1986) that textbooks compiled by instructors do not reflect students' needs for English. Notwithstanding these conflicts between students' needs and instructions given at schools, students have high motivation and positive attitudes towards English learning, as evidenced in Chapter 2 (Kim, 1986).

It should also be pointed out that teaching methods used at institutions are not interesting enough to give stimulus to students' progress. The very large size of ELT classes should also be borne in mind to be solved by the level of administration and governmental policy. The proficiency level of instructors, even though it varies, is also a matter of concern.

Some research questions aroused from the Korean ELT situation uncovered in Chapter 2, were elaborated by in Chapter 3, transferred into hypotheses in Chapter 4, and investigated through empirical study illuminated in Chapters 5 and 6.

In Chapter 3, some key cognitive/affective factors in teaching and learning foreign language - needs, attitudes, interest, anxiety and motivation and their perception - are discussed and analysed in detail.

The term, 'needs', is defined as a starting and basic point in pursuing a goal. Needs are regarded as forces or tensions or drives that serve to motivate one's behaviour or to lead one's organism to move in

the direction of a goal. Namely, a need is generally defined as a requirement for a goal or an aim to be achieved. Therefore, needs are closely related to one's ambition and future hope, especially in learning of a second or foreign language.

A well-designed curriculum in a foreign language education will begin with an attempt to specify the needs of the learners. Since the functional-notional (F-N) approach puts the learners at the very centre, some potential advantages of the F-N approach were outlined in Chapter 3. Even though the applicability of the F-N approach to the Korean context is not yet known, its basic framework which puts emphasis on identifying learners' needs draws researchers' attentions in order to be tested in the cultural contexts outside European communities where the F-N approach was invented.

Attitude is defined as a movement or an action towards the goal, which is the closest stage to motivation as its aid or supporter.

Lastly motivation is defined as cause, direction and termination of behaviour to achieve the goal. Gardner and Lambert use the term 'motivation' in second language acquisition interchangeably with orientations (e.g. instrumentally oriented or integratively oriented). Orientation is synonymous to direction; direction to realize one' ambition in a specific area.

The relationship between needs and motivation is like that of cause and effect, and thus, they are the essential parts of second/foreign language learning or acquisition to be investigated in depth.

Gardner and Lambert's researches (1963, 1977, 1979) and Johnstone's (1989) suggestion on students' motivations and attitudes towards foreign languages, the theory of 'Functional-Notional Approach', and several theories on needs and motivations gave a main framework to the current research.

Another stimulus to this project was the current controversies pertaining to English language teaching and learning in South Korea among the three key parties: policy-makers, teachers and learners. At present when the Korean policy-makers of ELT as well as of educational curricula have been criticised for their failure in meeting learners' needs for English and goals which can be achieved through English, the present project may well be regarded as opportune, in that it clearly reveals learners' needs, motivation,

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and attitudes, interest and anxiety on the one hand, and on the other hand, instructors' perception and views on ELT and policy-making phenomena.

Three main structured questionnaires, plus a semi-structured questionnaire and questions for interview, were formulated, piloted and distributed respectively to undergraduate students, their instructors and graduates, with the purpose of investigation of 16 hypotheses (see section 4.2.1.5 in Chapter 4) under the following broad headings:

1.  KOREAN TERTIARY STUDENTS, INSTRUCTORS AND GRADUATES ARE

    MOTIVATED TO LEARN AND TO TEACH ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE.


2.  KOREAN TERTIARY STUDENTS, INSTRUCTORS AND GRADUATES HAVE

    POSITIVE ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH LEARNING AND TEACHING.


## 7.1    General conclusions

Nine research questions under two broad headings, as inquired in section 4.1 in Chapter 4, are now to be answered in the form of general or collective conclusions.

Heading 'A' of the research questions is concerned about ELT conceptualization and implementation at several levels in Pusan city.

The Ministry of Education, according to some literature and evidence provided by the official in charge, make every effort to improve ELT policy established on the basis of elements of education, psychology and values of learners, with national policy developing through six innovations.

Institutions have also been making their effort to improve the standard of Korean ELT to the extent that their learners' needs for English are met, even though it is hard to find any institutions which have an explicit ELT policy. However, some weaknesses are likely to be pointed out; policy-makers seem to lose their confidence in the result of their ELT policies which they plan, and so they have been

operating to some extent by trial and error. There appears to be apparent disparity in the pursuing objectives for English among national, institutional and individual levels. This disagreement derives from the degree of sensitivity to the outer world felt by government, institutions and individuals. For instance, government, even if they have pronounced internationalization or globalization, are reluctant to change, while individual learners are willing to change and to modernize.

Heading 'B' of the research questions is concerned about the constructs English learners use in English language learning (ELL).

1.    *Since English is economically significant in today's international society and useful in getting good jobs in the future, the Korean university undergraduates are motivated strongly enough to wish to speak English as fluently as native speakers (see Table [5.2]).*

2.    The Korean university undergraduates are instrumentally (even if very weakly), that is to English, but are negatively or neutrally oriented in integrative and academic motivation for learning English. They show a very strong interest in English, as 491, i.e. 62%, out of the 792 undergraduates have expressed their positive reactions in it (see [Table 5.2]).

3.    *Undergraduates of national universities are traditionally more positively motivated than those of private ones, without any statistically significant gap:* average scores of national universities are 3.73, while those of private universities are 3.71 (see Table [5.3-A] in Appendix 10).a) Out of 9 different universities, a national university has the highest mark on integrative motivation to learn English, and a private university shows the most significant reaction on instrumental motivation (see [Table 5.3-A] in Appendix 10).

4.      In terms of academic subjects, undergraduates of natural science are more instrumentally motivated than those of social science. Those of social science are slightly more integratively and academically motivated, and more interested in English than their counterparts of natural science (see Table [5.3-B] in Appendix 10)

5.      Junior undergraduates are more instrumentally oriented than their seniors, while the senior undergraduates are more integratively and academically motivated than the juniors (see Table [5.3-C] in Appendix 10).

6.      In terms of age, the younger undergraduates have scored higher than the older ones on 'Instrumental Motivation', while the older show stronger orientation on three variables, i.e. 'Integrative and Academic Motivations' and 'Motivation to Learn English' (see Table [5.3-E] in Appendix 10).

7.      No statistically significant difference between male and female undergraduates in motivation is shown on the variables of motivation (see Table [5.3-D] in Appendix 10).

8.      The undergraduates from Christian families are more strongly oriented on the variables of integrative and academic motivation (See Table [5.3-H] in Appendix 10).

9.      36% of Korean university undergraduates perceive themselves as needing English for seeking jobs (in Korea and in foreign countries), and 31% of them for entertainment (reading magazines, watching movies, etc.). Those who seek jobs in foreign countries express the strongest orientation in almost all the variables within the motivation questionnaire (see Table [5.3-G] in Appendix 10).

10. In terms of parent's educational attainment, undergraduates under the influence of more learned parents are more motivated to learning English than those under the influence of less learned ones (see Tables [5.3F-1 & 2] in Appendix 10).

11. The undergraduates from Christian-based private universities indicate more positive attitudes towards English speaking people and their culture and other variables within the attitude questionnaire than those from non-Christian-based universities (see Table [5.9-A] in Appendix 10).

12. Contrary to the case of the motivation questionnaire, undergraduates from the academic branch of social science (Human Arts) have more favourable attitudes towards English (see Table [5.9-B] in Appendix 10).

13. Contrary to the case of the motivation questionnaire again, undergraduates from parents of lower educational levels show more positive attitudes than those of parents of higher educational levels (see Tables [5.9-F] & [5.9-G] in Appendix 10).

14. Similar to the case of the motivation questionnaire, undergraduates seeking jobs in foreign countries have more positive attitudes than those who need English for other purposes (see Table [5.9-H] in Appendix 10).

15. In terms of the religions of respondents, generally speaking, Christians express more positive attitudes towards English and its native speakers than those with the other religions (see Table [5.9-I] in Appendix 10).

16. There is a significant relationship existing between undergraduates' motivation and scores in English tests, but no relationship between attitudes and scores in English tests (see Tables [5.11] & [12]).

17. The majority of Korean university professors of English have positive attitudes towards English and its native culture. There are no significant differences between the attitudes of English professors of national and of private universities (see Tables [5.14] in Chapter 5, and 5.15-A-1 in Appendix 10).

18. Overall, English professors with shorter length of teaching career show more positive attitudes than those with a longer period (see Table [5.15-B] in Appendix 10).

19. Korean professors of English who have not visited or stayed in English-speaking countries are better prepared for their lectures and have significantly positive attitudes towards their occupation as English professors. However, they are found to be more satisfied with their occupation as professors rather than as English professors (see Table [5.15-C] in Appendix 10).

20. Korean professors of English are strongly motivated to teach English as a foreign language. There are found slight (but not significant) differences in mean scores between groups of national and private universities (see Table [5.17]).

21. English instructors at Korean universities show strong satisfaction with their professorship; they are highly satisfied with the teaching profession as professors in a general sense, and quite satisfied with being English professors in particular (see Table [5.20]).

22. Korean university graduates have positive attitudes towards English, its native speakers and its culture. More specifically, graduates who worked for longer have more positive attitudes than those who worked for a shorter period.(see Table [5.23]).

23. As in Lambert and Gardner's findings, there is a positive relationship between graduates' attitudes and their marks in English at schools (see Table [5.25-D]).

24. Among Korean, British, and American instructors, Americans are most preferred by Korean university graduates in learning English (see Table [5.25-G]).

25. Immediate or most recent graduates show most positive attitudes towards Native Speakers and Difficulty of English (see Table [5.25-A]).

26. It is worth noting that graduates who have experience of visiting English-speaking countries do not necessarily show more positive attitudes towards learning English than those without such experiences (see Table [5.25-E]).

27. Korean university graduates are positively oriented in instrumental motivation and English learning, while negatively oriented in Integrative, Interest and Academic Motivation (see Table [5.27]).

28. The graduates who are in the 25 years of age group show the strongest orientation to Instrumental Motivation. Those who belong to the 35 years of age group show the highest means

on interest in English learning and motivation to learn English (see Table [5.28-A] in Appendix 10).

29.  In terms of graduates' institutions, graduates from national universities show higher marks on most variables of motivation than their counterparts from private universities (see Table [5.28-C] in Appendix 10).

30.  *Graduates with British or American acquaintances are more positively motivated than those without them (see Table [5.28-F] in Appendix 10).*

31.  Graduates with higher grades in English at schools are more strongly motivated to Academic Motivation, Interest and Motivation to learn English than those with lower grades (see Table [5.28-D] in Appendix 10).

32.  In the category of 'Integrative Motivation', undergraduates learn English because English will enable them to meet and communicate with more and various people (see Table [6.1]).

33.  In the category of 'Instrumental Motivation', undergraduates learn English because English is regarded to be economically important in today's world (see Table [6.2]).

34.  In the category of 'Academic Motivation', undergraduates consider that the early study of English syntax is the most effective way of learning English (see Table [6.3]).

35.  Korean undergraduates think English is very useful and important to them (see Table [6.4]).

36.     In the category of attitudes towards English native speakers, undergraduates think they like native

        speakers all the better, the more they get to know them.(see 6.5).


37.     Undergraduates do not find classroom activities in their English course helpful for them to learn

        communicative English. The reasons for this result would be the too large size of ELT classes,

        lack of proficiency of teachers and irrelevance of textbooks to communicative English (see Table

        [6.7]).


38.     Undergraduates think their English professors seem to be satisfied with their teaching jobs (see

        Table [6.8]).


39.     Undergraduates prefer the earlier start to English study, and so they do not agree with the present

        policy of ELT implemented by the Government. The cultural and linguistic obstruction of the

        *mother country against the learning and acquisition of a new language are still weak in childhood.*

        In 1996, English began to be taught in the 3rd year of primary school, which was implemented

        by one of the globalization policies of the Government (see Table [6.9]).


40.     Some cultural dissimilarity between Korean and English speaking countries is found to be still

        deep-rooted, which, however, does not cause perceived difficulty in Korean undergraduates'

        learning English.


41.     Most Korean parents have positive attitudes towards their children's learning English, and so are

        willing to invest as much money as they can afford to.

42. The university-entrance examination that is currently enforced is strongly criticised by undergraduates for its lack of communicative aspects.

43. Undergraduates' religions positively affect their English study, particularly in case of Christian students through reading English Bibles and future needs and ambitions for spreading the Gospel in other societies and countries with different cultures.

44. The greatest difficulty in learning English for Koreans is the totally reverse order of structures of Korean and English.

45. In terms of professors' perceptions and views of their textbooks, they think that those texts contain very effective and beneficial topics and contents.

46. Professors do not think it essential to use English-only in their classes for more effective teaching.

47. English professors at Korean universities are diligent in preparing for their lessons and willing to encourage their students to improve their proficiency (see Tables [6.23] & [6.24]).

48. Professors do not hold high estimations of their students' level of proficiency in English. (see Table [6.25]).

## 7.2 Implications for ELT in Korea

A number of concepts relevant to learners of English from three Southeast Asian countries (China, Japan, and Malaysia) and one Middle east Asian country (Iraq) were briefly compared and

discussed in Chapter 3 (section 3.4.5.2), with a view to developing a conceptual framework for ELT in Korean tertiary level institutions.

It is worthy to note that there is variation within the Southeast Asian group: Korean learners of English are instrumentally motivated for learning English and Malay learners of English are both instrumentally and integratively motivated, but students at a Japanese university reject instrumental motivation as well as integrative motivation in their learning of English. Since the cultural context of Malaysia where English is used as an official or second language, is different from that of Korea where English is used as foreign language, Malay students show slightly stronger integrative than instrumental orientation for learning English.

*Asian learners of English show positive attitudes towards learning English and favourable* interest in English and its native speakers. The level of educational achievement of learners' parents affects their attitudes and motivation.

Although they have positive attitudes, Asian students rate their English as below average. In fact, instructors of English in Korea, as in Iraq, have perceived their pupils' level of English proficiency negatively. The comparison of research carried out in those five Asian countries help to pinpoint some serious problems for Korean ELT to be settled sooner or later. Among these are:

1. A high clamour for reforms in the policy and system of ELT has already been provoked among Korean people of all walks of life. One of the problems is the system of English entrance examinations to all levels of schools which still put a strong emphasis on grammar and reading, and which should move towards more integrated tests of English skills.

2. Korean tradition has allowed the Ministry of Education to set teaching objectives and aims for secondary school ELT, and individual instructors to be responsible for the syllabus of their classes, and so they are free to choose the class objectives, the materials including textbooks and teaching aids,

kinds of tests, decision-making and to select teaching methods uniquely appropriate for their classes. Therefore, university instructors and professors of English have the right to exert their ability to find out their students' needs of English and then to make curricula and syllabus according to these needs.

Accordingly, it follows that:

1. The Ministry of Education should tailor their ELT policies to the current international trends in the light of economy, industrial techniques, politics, culture, ideas and values on the one hand, and to the individual learners needs of English on the other.

2. The most urgent needs for English of the majority of Korean students uncovered by the present research are instrumental in nature. These needs for using English as a main tool to get jobs and to enter post-graduate schools and to further learners' academic subjects in foreign countries should be deeply kept in mind by the university or English professors and instructors, and textbooks ought to be *reconstructed according to a reformed syllabus tailored to these needs of learners.*

3. Further research on this field should be carefully planned and carried out to determine the minimal English proficiency level that has to be achieved by students for them to be able to communicate freely with foreigners on the international stage, to continue their studies in English-speaking countries and to pass a variety of examinations taken in domestic and oversees countries, as well as for them to be able to comprehend their textbooks. Based on these research studies, English courses in tertiary-level universities and colleges can be re-structured and re-organised into a hierarchy that systematically develops relevant language skills to a required proficiency level that matches the instrumental orientation to the language.

4. Since students do not find classroom activities helpful for learning communicative English, they should be offered qualified instructors and appropriate facilities to enable this to happen. To solve this problem, the government and institutions should invest more finance in training instructors in English-speaking countries, in installing teaching aids, and reducing class-size. Since instructors' overseas-training programmes implemented at present are usually operated during vacations for a one or two month-period, more effective administration is strongly required, for example, extending the period of training, increasing the number of trainees.

5. An earlier start to learning English is agreed by the students. English should be learned at primary level. The problems arising here are to supply qualified teachers and necessary teaching-aids at the schools. Early education of the English language came into effect in primary schools in 1996 as one of the Governmental policies of the globalization. Native speakers of English were invited and teachers of other subjects were trained to teach English to their pupils, and language laboratories were installed at primary schools.

6. Since some cultural distance was found to exist between Korea and America/Britain, English textbooks used at institutions should contain cultural aspects of English-speaking countries, with illustrations and pictures.

7. English textbooks published by Korean authors used at present do not give interest and impetus to students. That is, the appearance of their binding and design is not attractive enough to draw students' attention and interest.

On the very threshold of 2000s, Korea, aiming for globalisation with her door wide-open to the outside world, should attach priority to teaching English from intercultural perspectives, and to taking

account of learners' needs for English, as the basis for the reforms in ELT that the present research

suggests are needed.

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# APPENDIX 1. STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIR

Dear collegiate students:

This questionnaire is part of a research project intended to contribute to the development of more effective English-acquisition method(s) relevant to Korean collegiate students' needs and motivation for learning English.

I would be very grateful to you if you are willing to participate in this questionnaire about studying English at university by expressing your frank opinion about each statement.

Thank you very much for your precious time and cooperation in answering this questionnaire.

Jae-Guk Cha
Ph.D. Postgraduate
University of Stirling, Scotland, UK

_____

1. _____ University/College _____ Department _____ year

2. Gender:  1. Male _____      2. Female _____

3. Age     (1) 19-20 yrs _____      2) 22-25 _____
          (3) 30-35: before military duty_____
          (4) 30-35: after military duty_____

4. The score in English subject obtained in the Academic Ability Test for the admission to your university._____

5. Father's Educational Attainment:
   (1)____              (2)_____              (3)____
   Primary Graduate     Secondary Grd.         Tertiary Grd.

6. Mother's Educational Attainment:
   (1)____              (2)____                (3)____
   Primary Graduate     Secondary Grd.         Tertiary Grd.

7. Your future hope :_____

8. How do you hope to use English after taking your degree?
   (Tick one)
   (1) in my future job in Korea                                        _____
   (2) by going to work abroad in a country where English is spoken.    _____
   (3) for contacts with friends, reading books, seeing films and going holidays.  _____
   (4) I have no specific plans for using English.                      _____
   (5) Other: please explain                                           _____

9. Your religion :   (1). Christianity_____   (2). Buddhism_____
                    (3). Confucianism_____    (4). Catholic_____
                    (5). Other _____

# STUDENTS' NEEDS AND ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions are about your needs and reasons for learning English. Please indicate your agreement with the following statements by circling the point on the scale beneath each one which best represents your feelings.

A sample of how to answer the questionnaire:

*For each statement, the following five options are given:*

1. Strongly Disagree _____(SD)
2. Disagree _____ (D)
3. Undecided _____ (N)
4. Agree _____(A)
5. Strongly Agree _____(SA)

If your answer, for example, is Agree to the following statement, please put (X) in the column below 'A' and '4', and so on.

| No. | Statement | SD | D | N | A | SA |
|-----|-----------|----|----|----|----|----|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 91. | Learning English is relevant to my life. | | | | X | |
| 1. | The reason for my studying English is to *understand English native speakers' culture* and way of life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to make friends more easily among other nationalities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to think and behave like English-speaking people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to live and work in another country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | The reason I study English is that I want to understand better English-speaking people and their way of life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | Studying English is important to me because I will study my major subject in an English-speaking country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | I study English because English is considered to be politically important in today's world. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

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8. I study English because English is regarded to
   be economically important in today's world.    1    2    3    4    5

9. I study English because English is probably
   useful in getting a good job in the future.    1    2    3    4    5

10. I study English because I think English will enrich
    my background and broaden my cultural horizons.    1    2    3    4    5

11. I study English because I think knowing English
    means that I can earn more money than otherwise.    1    2    3    4    5

12. I study English because English will help to make
    me socially recognizable and add to my
    social status.    1    2    3    4    5

13. *I study English because English will enable me
    to meet and communicate with more and
    various people.*    1    2    3    4    5

14. I study English because I think an educated
    person should be fluent in English.    1    2    3    4    5

15. I study English to write letters in English.    1    2    3    4    5

16. *I study English to do business in English.*    1    2    3    4    5

17. I study English to enjoy more entertainment, i.e.
    listening to music and radio, watching TV,
    reading magazines and novels in English.    1    2    3    4    5

18. I study English to pass several kinds of tests for
    graduate schools or jobs.    1    2    3    4    5

19. I study English to get to know and guide tourists
    better.    1    2    3    4    5

20. I don't think English is useful for overseas trips.    1    2    3    4    5

21. I study English to learn foreigners' viewpoints
    upon Korea.    1    2    3    4    5

22. I study English to read English books at
    postgraduate schools.    1    2    3    4    5

23. I study English to study its' linguistic syntax and
    structure in depth.    1    2    3    4    5

24. I study English to broaden my points of view and
    insights into the world outside Korea.    1    2    3    4    5

25. Knowledge of English will probably make me
feel proud of myself.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

26. Knowledge of English will give me personal
satisfaction.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

27. I don't think that studying English will increase
others' respect for me.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

28. If I had to stay in English speaking countries
for an extended period of time, if I could get along
in Korean, I would not bother to learn English.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

29. I think it will be easier to live in other countries
if I know English.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

30. I think English is very important for Koreans.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

31. I think English is very useful to Koreans.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

32. I would consider living in a foreign country
to improve my English.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

33. I hesitate to speak English, for fear of making
mistakes.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

34. The more I get to know English native speakers,
the more I want to be fluent in English.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

35. The more I get to know English native speakers,
the better I like them.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

36. I envy or even respect those who have a good
command of English.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

37. I don't think studying English will make me feel
the fulfillment of my real aims in life.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

38. I don't think English is an important instrument to
make me a learned person.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

39. English is not relevant to my future ideal or life.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

40. English is important for the fulfillment of my
future dream or ambition.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

41. I think studying English helps me develop a good
reasoning ability.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

42. I agree with the notion that to be good in English
one must have a special talent for it.　　1　　2　　3　　4　　5

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43. I think I have talent for learning English.    1    2    3    4    5

44. I wish I could speak English as fluently as native
speakers.    1    2    3    4    5

45. I think I will be able to speak English as fluent as
native speakers in the future.    1    2    3    4    5

46. I like to study English.    1    2    3    4    5

47. I will give up studying English upon graduating
from university because I am fed up with it.    1    2    3    4    5

48. English is difficult for me to learn.    1    2    3    4    5

49. I want to study two foreign languages.    1    2    3    4    5

50. Studying English endangers my own cultural
identity.    1    2    3    4    5

51. Studying English enables me to discover that
some aspects of Korean culture are not as good
as I had previously thought through my
exposure to English culture.    1    2    3    4    5

52. This realisation has made me think more about
my own values and priorities.    1    2    3    4    5

53. This realisation has interfered with my progress
in English study.    1    2    3    4    5

54. I find listening is the easiest among 4 skills of
English.    1    2    3    4    5

55. I find speaking is the easiest among 4 skills of
English.    1    2    3    4    5

56. I find reading is the easiest among 4 skills of
English.    1    2    3    4    5

57. I find writing is the easiest among 4 skills of
English.    1    2    3    4    5

58. I like to read books and materials published in
English.    1    2    3    4    5

59. I do every effort to memorise vocabularies.    1    2    3    4    5

60. I think it a more effective way of learning
English to study grammar first of all.    1    2    3    4    5

61. English is easier to me than any other subject.    1    2    3    4    5

62. My peers say that English is easy to learn.     1     2     3     4     5

63. I think my English textbooks are well-organised.     1     2     3     4     5

64. I think my English textbooks do not take learners' standards into regard.     1     2     3     4     5

65. I think my English textbooks are difficult to understand.     1     2     3     4     5

66. I think my English textbooks are compiled according to my needs for English.     1     2     3     4     5

67. I think that English tests I take do not cover all the activities taught.     1     2     3     4     5

68. I think that English tests I take are too difficult.     1     2     3     4     5

69. English lessons taught to me enable me to learn English.     1     2     3     4     5

70. My parents are enthusiastic in my English enough to invest as much money as needed for it.     1     2     3     4     5

71. I am satisfied with classroom activities done in English courses.     1     2     3     4     5

72. I think the language laboratory at my university helps me to learn communicative English.     1     2     3     4     5

73. I think the homework given in English classes is appropriate for improvement of my English.     1     2     3     4     5

74. I think English courses offered in my university are good enough for the development of my reading in English.     1     2     3     4     5

75. I think English courses offered in my university are good enough for the development of my listening in English.     1     2     3     4     5

76. I think English courses offered in my university are good enough for the development of my speaking in English.     1     2     3     4     5

77. I think English courses offered in my university are good enough for the development of my writing in English.     1     2     3     4     5

78. I have enough opportunities to practise English outside the classroom.     1     2     3     4     5

79. I wish English were an elective subject rather than a compulsory one.  1  2  3  4  5

80. The English lessons given by my English professor(s) are effective.  1  2  3  4  5

81. My English professor(s) seem to be interested in his own lectures.  1  2  3  4  5

82. My English professor(s) is serious in his lecturing.  1  2  3  4  5

83. My English professor has an excellent command of English.  1  2  3  4  5

84. My English professor does his best effort to make his lecture understood by us.  1  2  3  4  5

85. My English professor does not seem to be satisfied with his own lectures.  1  2  3  4  5

86. My English professor uses a lot of lecture aids (video, record player, etc).  1  2  3  4  5

87. My English professor seems to behave like British or Americans.  1  2  3  4  5

88. My English professor tries to speak English outside classrooms.  1  2  3  4  5

89. The present policy of English education implemented by the Ministry of Education is appropriate for the internationalisation activated by the Korean government.  1  2  3  4  5

90. I think it more effective to start learning English at primary school level than at secondary level.  1  2  3  4  5

# APPENDIX 2. STUDENTS' SEMI-STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear collegiate students:

This questionnaire is part of a research project intended to contribute to the development of more effective English-acquisition method(s) relevant to Korean collegiate students' needs and motivation for learning English.

I would be very grateful to you if you are willing to participate in this questionnaire about studying English at university by expressing your frank opinion about each statement.

Thank you very much for your precious time and cooperation in answering this questionnaire.

Jae-Guk Cha
Ph.D. Postgraduate
University of Stirling, Scotland, UK

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1. _____ University/College _____ Department _____ year

2. Gender:   1. Male _____          2. Female _____

3. Age    (1) 19-20 yrs _____    2) 22-25 _____
          (3) 30-35: before military duty_____
          (4) 30-35: after military duty_____

4. The score in English subject obtained in the Academic Ability Test for the admission to your university._____

5. Father's Educational Attainment:
   (1)_____            (2)_____              (3)_____
   Primary Graduate      Secondary Grd.          Tertiary Grd.

6. Mother's Educational Attainment:
   (1)_____            (2)_____              (3)_____
   Primary Graduate      Secondary Grd.          Tertiary Grd.

7. Your future hope :_____

8. How do you hope to use English after taking your degree?
   (Tick one)
   (1) in my future job in Korea                                              _____
   (2) by going to work abroad in a country where English is spoken.         _____
   (3) for contacts with friends, reading books, seeing films and going holidays.  _____
   (4) I have no specific plans for using English.                           _____
   (5) Other: please explain                                                 _____

9. Your religion :    (1). Christianity_____    (2) Buddhism_____
                      (3). Confucianism____    (4). Catholic_____
                      (5). Other _____

----------------------------------------------

1. What do you think of the English native speakers?
   (1)negatively          (2)so so              (3)positively

2. Where do these feelings originate?
   Do these feelings transfer to your learning of the English language?
   If yes, (1)negatively     (2)not at all        (3)positively

3. What are the attitude of your parents towards your studying English?

4. Did such attitudes of theirs influence your English study?

5. What are your views on the methods used for English teaching at your university?

6. In what way is it different from English learning at secondary school?
   In what ways do you find it satisfactory, and what is there about it which you would change?

7. Were the English lessons offered in English or Korean at secondary and tertiary schools?
   (1)in Korean           (2)in English         (3)both?
   Do you think it would be more effective to teach all the academic subjects (besides English subject) in
   English?
   (1)Yes                 (2)No

8. What was the nationality of English instructors so far?
   At secondary schools:
   (1)Korean              (2)American           (3)British            (4)Others
   At tertiary school:
   (1)Korean              (2)American           (3)British            (4)Others

9. Which do you prefer?
   (1)Korean              (2)American           (3)British            (4)Others

10. How do you evaluate your own English proficiency?
    (1)elementary         (2)elementary-middle  (3)middle            (4)mid-advanced
    (5)fluent

11. How about your grammar?
    (1)elementary         (2)elementary-middle  (3)middle            (4)mid-advanced
    (5)fluent

12. How about your conversation?
    (1)elementary         (2)elementary-middle  (3)middle            (4)mid-advanced
    (5)fluent

13. Have you taken any authoritative English test? If yes, please state its name and score you obtained.

14. Have the English textbooks and materials you used been satisfactory or not?

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15. Have you been to any English-speaking countries?
    Under what circumstances?

16. Do you know any native speakers whom you regularly contact?
    If yes, how does this affect your attitudes towards learning English?

17. Is it easy or difficult for you to meet any foreigners in Korea?

18. Can you pinpoint any cultural differences between Korea and English-speaking countries (mainly UK and USA)?

19. Which culture do you want to adapt yourself to more?

20. Would you like to live in an English-speaking country for a short time/a good stretch/permanently?

21. What difficulties would you expect to encounter if you did?

22. How would you feel about going to work outside Korea (e.g. America, UK, Japan, etc.)?
    Which country attracts you most?

23. If you do not want to live and work abroad, why not?

24. Are you satisfied with present university-entrance examination in English? Or do you want any changes/revisors in it?

25. *Which skills do you want the* entrance examination to emphasise?

26. Does your religion influence your learning English?
    If yes, in what way? Positively or negatively?

27. *Does your culture as a* Korean influence your learning English?
    If yes, in what way? Positively or negatively?

28. On which do you like to concentrate: grammar?    conversation?

29. Do you enjoy studying grammar?

30. Do you enjoy studying conversation?

31. When do you think is the most desirable age for starting to learn English?

32. Do you watch English programmes on educational TV?
    If yes, how effective is it for your English?

33. Do you have any views on the national policy for ELT?
    Do you feel satisfied or do you feel any change(s) in the policy for ELT in Korea?
    If any change(s) or revisions are needed, what kind of changes?

# APPENDIX 3. STUDENTS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

UNIVERSITY_____ SUBJECT_____ YEAR_____

1. What is the main reason for your studying English?

2. What is the occupation for which you will find a use for English after learning it?

3. What do you think of those who speak English as their mother tongue?
   Where do you think this feelings or impressions originate?
   Does this impression affect your learning English?

4. What are your parents' attitudes towards your studying English?
   Do such attitudes of theirs affect your English study?

5. What are your views on the methods sued for English teaching at your university?
   Is it the same as or different from that of your secondary school?
   What aspect are you satisfied with or what aspect are you dissatisfied with?

6. What was the medium of instruction so far for your learning English? Was it English or Korean? What is your preference?

7. *Were the content and structure of English textbooks used so far in English classes satisfactory?*

8. Have you been to any English speaking countries? If yes, under what circumstances?
   And do you have any British or American acquaintances whom you regularly contact?
   What do you think is the most distinctive difference(s) between Koreans and British or Americans?

9. If you live in an English speaking country, how long do you want to live there?
   *What kind of troubles/problems would you expect if you did?*
   *What's your opinion about obtaining a job abroad?*
   What country is the most attractive for you to have a job?
   If you don't want to have a job, what's the main reason for that?

10. Are you satisfied with the present kinds of college entrance examination of our country? Or do you want it to be revised or changed? How about the standard of difficulty of the questions?
    What skill(s) of English (reading, writing, speaking, listening) do you want the college entrance examination to emphasise?

11. Does your religion, if any, influence your learning English? If yes, in what way? Positively or negatively?

12. What do you suppose is the specific difference of culture between Korea and Britain or America?
    Which one is your preference?

13. Does your culture as a Korean affect your learning English? If yes, how? Positively or negatively?

14. What are the advantages or disadvantages in learning English as a Korean?

15. Can you judge the proficiency level of English of Korean students, compared to that of other countries?
    For example, high, average, low?

16. Who do you think is responsible for the present state of ELT in Korea?

Government? Educational institutions? Instructors? Student?

17. What is your opinion(s) about national policy on ELT? Are you satisfied, or do you want any reform or alteration?
    Do you think Korean ELT is in general sense teacher-centred or learner-centred?
    Which do you prefer to learn, English grammatical usage or communicative uses?

18. Do you watch Educational TV Broadcasting programmes regularly?
    If yes, what do you think of their effectiveness?

# APPENDIX 4. INSTRUCTORS' ATTITUDES QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear English professors

This questionnaire is part of a research project intended to help make the study of English more relevant to students' needs.

Would you be willing to participate in a ten minute questionnaire about studying English at university?

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation in answering this questionnaire.

Jae-Guk Cha
Ph.D. Postgraduate
University of Stirling, Scotland, UK

Name of the University: _____

Years of career
    (1) 1-5 years _____
    (2) 6-10 yrs _____
    (3) 11-15 yrs_____
    (4) 16-20 yrs_____
    (5) 21-25 yrs_____
    (6) 26-30 yrs_____

Length of stay in English-speaking countries.
(1) did not stay_____
(2) shorter than 1 year_____
(3) 1-2 years_____
(4) 3-5 years_____
(5) longer than 6 years_____

An example of how to answer in the remainder of the questionnaire.
For each statement, the following five options are given:

1. (SD)------------------------Strongly disagree
2. (D)------------------------Disagree
3. (N)------------------------Undecided
4. (A)------------------------Agree
5. (SA)------------------------ Strongly agree

For example, if your answer is Agree to the following
statement, please indicate with (X) within the column below 'A' and '4', and so on.

| No. Statement | (SD) | (D) | (N) | (A) | (SA) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Teaching English is a good profession. | | | | | X |
| 1. I am satisfied with my job as a professor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I am satisfied with my job as a professor of English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I am proud of my being professor of English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I think the Korean society respect English professor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Teaching English is a good profession. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I became a professor of English because there was no other choice. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. English textbooks contain many important and beneficial topics for efficient E.L.T. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Current English textbooks are of a good standard. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. The English textbooks in use at present are unnecessarily long. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. English textbooks present all activities properly. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. English textbooks are not coping with the new developments in the field of E.L.T. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Textbooks used in my classes are usually made by myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Textbooks in use at present in my classes are mainly from Britain or America. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. English textbooks with topics presented in the foreign cultural context are more acceptable to students. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Textbooks in use at Korean universities should be compiled according to Korean culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. I usually spend more than an hour in preparing for one-period lesson. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. I am always keen to develop my skills in teaching English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

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18. It is my habit to give confidence to students and
to encourage them to learn English well.           1     2     3     4     5

19. When teaching communicative English, I
consider it essential to use English as the
dominant language of communication in the
classroom.                                          1     2     3     4     5

20. When teaching written English, I consider it
essential to use English as the dominant
language of communication in the classroom.         1     2     3     4     5

21. When teaching other subjects irrelevant to
English, I consider it essential to use
English as the dominant language of
communication in the classroom.                     1     2     3     4     5

22. When teaching English, I believe it is essential to
develop grammatical accuracy in all learners.       1     2     3     4     5

23. When teaching English, I think it is necessary to
teach listening and speaking before teaching
grammar.                                            1     2     3     4     5

24. When teaching English, I believe that students
should be encouraged to communicate, even if
this means making mistakes.                         1     2     3     4     5

25. I find it very difficult to teach students the
differences of culture and ways of thinking
between Koreans and English native speakers.        1     2     3     4     5

26. Even I as a professor of English find it hard to
accept the whole part of the English culture.       1     2     3     4     5

27. I cannot stand other countries' food when
travelling abroad.                                  1     2     3     4     5

28. I cannot stand the ways of living of English native
speakers when travelling abroad.                    1     2     3     4     5

29. I think the most difficult foreign language for
English native speakers to learn is Korean.         1     2     3     4     5

30. I think the most difficult language for Koreans
to learn is English.                                1     2     3     4     5

31. I as an English professor may objectively
compare Korean and British/American culture
and judge that the latter is superior to the
former in general.                                  1     2     3     4     5

32. I think that Korean students' level of proficiency in English is higher than that of students' in other Asian countries.  1    2    3    4    5

33. I think that Korean students' level of proficiency in English is higher than that of students' in other countries in the world.  1    2    3    4    5

34. Teaching English helps in developing my personality.  1    2    3    4    5

35. Teaching English does not make me feel any sense of achievement.  1    2    3    4    5

36. Teaching English enables me to be innovative and creative.  1    2    3    4    5

37. Teaching English contributes to the service of my community.  1    2    3    4    5

38. Teaching English is not the way to be more modern.  1    2    3    4    5

39. Teaching English is the way to obtain social recognition.  1    2    3    4    5

40. Teaching English does not make me feel like English-speaking people.  1    2    3    4    5

41. Teaching English makes me behave like English-speaking people.  1    2    3    4    5

42. Teaching English does not enable me to understand English-speaking people's way of life.  1    2    3    4    5

43. Teaching English enables me to understand foreign art and literature.  1    2    3    4    5

44. I find my job in teaching English to be tiring.  1    2    3    4    5

45. If I had the chance, I would immediately change this profession for another.  1    2    3    4    5

46. I like teaching English more than any other subject.  1    2    3    4    5

47. I am pleased when my English lessons come.  1    2    3    4    5

48. I feel very relaxed while teaching English.  1    2    3    4    5

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49. I imagine myself to be in a prison .hile
teaching English.               1     2     3     4     5

50. It would be better if more school hours were
given to English.               1     2     3     4     5


INSTRUCTORS' PERCEPTION OF THEIR STUDENTS' LEARNING OF ENGLISH

My students:

51. like learning English.           1     2     3     4     5

52. show enthusiasm for learning English.   1     2     3     4     5

53. learn English just to pass examination.   1     2     3     4     5

54. are lazy and inattentive.         1     2     3     4     5

55. have positive attitudes towards learning English.   1     2     3     4     5

56. prepare the lesson before coming to the class.   1     2     3     4     5

57. are motivated to learn.          1     2     3     4     5

58. are unhappy with the difficulty of their
English textbooks.             1     2     3     4     5

59. are unhappy with the difficulty of the tests
in English which they are required to take.   1     2     3     4     5

60. show antagonism for the Englisn lessons.   1     2     3     4     5

61. show antagonism for the English native speakers.   1     2     3     4     5

62. do not seem to overcome the cultural barriers
existing between Korea and English speaking
countries.                 1     2     3     4     5

63. are keen on visiting English speaking countries.   1     2     3     4     5

64. are keen on knowing foreign culture and way
of life of the English speaking countries.   1     2     3     4     5

65. are keen on behave after the English speaking
people.                  1     2     3     4     5

66. I think the textbook in use at present at secondary
schools are appropriately compiled for
teaching 4 skills of English.        1     2     3     4     5

67. I do not agree with the policy that English
    textbooks at secondary schools shall be revised
    into communicative-centred in 1995.          1       2       3       4       5

68. I think that English teachers at secondary
    schools are well qualified for teaching
    communicative English.                        1       2       3       4       5

69. I agree with the present policy of starting
    English-education from the first grade of the
    secondary schools.                            1       2       3       4       5

70. I agree with the idea of starting
    English-education from primary schools.       1       2       3       4       5

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# APPENDIX 5. FOREIGN INSTRUCTORS' OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW

Nationality:_____        Gender: M. F

Majoring Subject at Graduate School:
(1)Literature      (2)Linguistics    (3)English Education        (4)Other_____

1.  How long have you been living in Korea?

2.  How long have you been lecturing at Korean universities?

3.  What is your impressions on the policy of Korean English Language Teaching (ELT) implemented by the Ministry of Education or the Government?

4.  What is your suggestions for more effective policies of Korean ELT?

5.  What about ELT performed at Korean universities?

6.  What do you think is the main teaching method(s) used by instructors at Korean schools?

7.  What do you think of using English and Korean as the medium of lecture at English class?

8.  As a foreigner do you think Korean is easier or more difficult to learn than English?

9.  What do you think are the main cultural differences which seem to hinder Korean learners' learning English?

10. What do you think are Koreans' attitudes towards English speaking people?

11. Which skill(s) of English is the most important for Korean students to learn?
    Why?

12. Do you think that instructors at Korean universities teach according to the learners' needs for English?

13. How do you find the texts used at Korean ELT?

14. Which ELT methods (or approaches) are most effective for the Korean ELT context and culture?

Thank you very much for your positive cooperation and time.

Jae Guk Cha
Ph.D postgraduate
University of Stirling, Scotland, UK

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# APPENDIX 6. GRADUATES' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear sir,

This research is to investigate your frank opinions about your needs for and attitudes towards English, the international common language, in this very internationalisation period. I would be very grateful if you answer the questions given below at ease and with no bias, because there is no fixed answer for each question.

It would be much appreciated if you participate in this 10 minutes' research with the pride that you contribute to the improvement of effective teaching methods of English in this country.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and time.

June, 1994

        Jae-Guk Cha
        Ph.D postgraduate
        University of Stirling, Scotland, UK

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Questionnaire of Needs and Attitudes

Part One

1. Age _____

2. Occupation:      Company _____     Dpt._____
                     Position_____

   Working period after graduation_____ years,
   Working period at present company_____ years,

3. Name of your final school_____   Major_____
   Graduation Year_____

4. Period of English Study _____ years

5. Average Score of English at school
   (1)90-100   (2)80-89     (3)70-79      (4)60-69

6. Are you studying English nowadays?   (1)Yes   (2)No
   If yes, how?   (1)self-study   (2)language school   (3)grammar school   (4)others

7. Level of your present proficiency of English?
   (1)elementary   (2)pre-intermediate   (3)intermediate
   (4)middle-advanced (5)advanced        (6)fluent

08. Have you got any authorised English test score or certificates (eg. TOEFL)?
   (1)Yes          (2)No

9. If yes for No.(8), its name and score?


10. Have you ever been to any English speaking countries?
    If yes, how many times, whole period and visiting objectives?


11. Have you got British or American acquaintances?    (1)Yes        (2)No

12. What was the nationality of English instructors at schools?
    (1)Korean   ·  (2)British        (3)American        (4)Others_____

13. Which nationality of English instructor do you prefer?
    (1)Korean      (2)British        (3)American        (4)Others_____
    Why?

14. With the English teaching offered at schools (mainly final one);
    (1)satisfied      (2)a little satisfied        (3)dissatisfied

15. With the text books used at schools (mainly final one);
    (1)satisfied      (2)a little satisfied        (3)dissatisfied

16. With English instructors at schools (mainly final one);
    (1)satisfied      (2)a little satisfied        (3)dissatisfied

17. Does the English at schools correspond to your needs after graduation?
    (1)Yes  .          (2)No

18. How much emphasis was placed on speaking?
    at secondary school:           (1)None          (2)A little
                                   (3)Quite a lot   (4)A great deal

    at university:                 (1)None          (2)A little
                                   (3)Quite a lot   (4)A great deal

19. How much emphasis was placed on listening?
    at secondary school:           (1)None          (2)A little
                                   (3)Quite a lot   (4)A great deal

    at university:                 (1)None          (2)A little
                                   (3)Quite a lot   (4)A great deal

20. How much emphasis was placed on writing and reading?
    at secondary school:           (1)None          (2)A little
                                   (3)Quite a lot   (4)A great deal

    at university:                 (1)None          (2)A little
                                   (3)Quite a lot   (4)A great deal

21. How much emphasis was placed on grammar?
   at secondary school:      (1)None            (2)A little
                             (3)Quite a lot     (4)A great deal

   at university:            (1)None            (2)A little
                             (3)Quite a lot     (4)A great deal

22. How important do you think it is to learn grammar?
   (1)not important      (2)quite important   (3)very important      (4)necessary

23. Do you like learning grammar?
   (1)no                (2)sometimes         (3)average           (4)very much
   Did you like learning grammar?
   (1)no                (2)sometimes         (3)average           (4)very much

24. When do you think it best to start English study?
   (1)before primary school      (2)1st year of primary       (3)1st year of secondary

25. What skill of English is easiest for you to acquire?
   (1)listening          (2)speaking          (3)reading/grammar      (4)writing

26. What skill do you feel most confident?
   (1)listening          (2)speaking          (3)reading/grammar      (4)writing

27. What skill does your job need most? Write numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, in the order of your preference.
   (1)listening( )       (2)speaking( )       (3)reading/grammar( )    (4)writing( )

28. What is the extent of the skill of English that your job needs?
   (1)(   )hours per day        (2)(   )days per week        (3)(   )weeks per month

29. What skill do you want to concentrate on if you continue English study afterwards?
   (1)listening( )       (2)speaking( )       (3)reading/grammar( )    (4)writing( )

Part 2

The following questionnaire is about your reasons, needs and attitudes of your English study. Please indicate your agreement with the following statements by circling the point on the scale beneath each one which best represents your feelings.

A Sample of How to Answer the Questionnaire:
For each statement, the following five options are given.

1. Strongly agree_____(SD)
2. Disagree_____(D)
3. Undecided_____(N)
4. Agree_____(A)
5. Strongly agree_____(SA)

If your answer, for example, is Agree to the following statement, please put (X) in the column below 'A' and '4', and so on.

| No. | Statement | SD | D | N | A | SA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. | The reason I study English is that I travel foreign countries very often. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. | I envy British or American people in the sense of culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | I envy British or American people in the sense of language. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | I think English study endnagers the identity of Korean culture. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | I came to realise there are some disadvantages in Korean culture after I had got in touch with British culture by English study. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to think and behave like English speaking people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to live and work in another country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | The reason I study English is that I want to understand better English speaking people and their way of life. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. | Studying English is important to me because I will study my major subject in an English speaking country. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. | I study English because English is considered to be politically important in today's world. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. | I study English because English is regarded to be economically important in today's world. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | I study English because knowing English is probably useful in getting a good job in the future. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | I study English because I think English will enrich my background and broaden my cultural horizons. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. | I study English because I think knowing English means that I can earn more money than otherwise. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | I study English because English will help me socially recognizable and add my social status. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

15. I study English because English w... enable
me to meet and communicate with more
and various people.  1  2  3  4  5

16. I study English because I think an educated
person should be fluent in English.  1  2  3  4  5

17. I study English to write letters in English.  1  2  3  4  5

18. I study English to do business in English.  1  2  3  4  5

19. I study English to enjoy more entertainment,
i.e. listening to music and radio, watching TV,
reading magazines and novels in English.  1  2  3  4  5

20. I study English to get to know and guide
tourists better.  1  2  3  4  5

21. I study English to learn foreigners' viewpoints
upon Korea.  1  2  3  4  5

22. I study English to study its linguistic syntax
and structure in depth.  1  2  3  4  5

23. Knowledge of English will probably make
me feel proud of myself.  1  2  3  4  5

24. Knowledge of English will give me personal
satisfaction.  1  2  3  4  5

25. I study English to broaden my points of view
and insights into the world outside Korea.  1  2  3  4  5

26. I don't think that studying English will increase
other's respect for me.  1  2  3  4  5

27. I consider living in a foreign country to improve
my English.  1  2  3  4  5

28. If I had to stay in English speaking countries
for an extended period of time, if I could get
along in Korean, I will not bother to learn
English.  1  2  3  4  5

29. I think English is very important for Koreans.  1  2  3  4  5

30. I think English is very useful to Koreans.  1  2  3  4  5

31. I hesitate to speak English, for fear of making
mistakes.  1  2  3  4  5

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32. The more I get to know English native speakers, the more I want to be fluent in English.   1   2   3   4   5

33. The more I get to know English native speakers, the better I like them.   1   2   3   4   5

34. I envy, or even respect those who have good command of English.   1   2   3   4   5

35. I don't think studying English will make me feel the fulfillment of my real aims in life.   1   2   3   4   5

36. I don't think English is an important instrument to make me a learned person.   1   2   3   4   5

37. English is not relevant to my future ideal or life.   1   2   3   4   5

38. English is important for the fulfillment of my future dream or ambition.   1   2   3   4   5

39. I think studying English helps me develop a good reasoning ability.   1   2   3   4   5

40. I agree with the notion that to be good in English one must have a special talent for it.   1   2   3   4   5

41. I think I have talent for learning English.   1   2   3   4   5

42. I wish I could speak English as fluently as native speakers.   1   2   3   4   5

43. I think I will be able to speak English as fluent as native speakers in the future.   1   2   3   4   5

44. I like to study English.   1   2   3   4   5

45. English is difficult for me to learn.   1   2   3   4   5

46. Studying English endangers my own cultural identity.   1   2   3   4   5

47. Studying English enables me to discover that some aspects of Korean culture are not good as I had previously thought through my exposure to English culture.   1   2   3   4   5

48. This realisation has made me think more about my own values and priorities.   1   2   3   4   5

49. This realisation has interfered with my progress in English study.   1   2   3   4   5

50. I like to read books and materials published
    in English.                                      1     2     3     4     5

51. I think it more effective way of learning English
    to study grammar first of all.                    1     2     3     4     5

52. I think language laboratory at my university helps
    me to learn communicative English.            1     2     3     4     5

53. I think English courses offered in my university
    is good enough for the development of my
    reading in English.                             1     2     3     4     5

54. I think English courses offered in my university
    is good enough for the development of my
    listening in English.                          1     2     3     4     5

55. I think English courses offered in my university
    is good enough for the development of my
    speaking in English.                         1     2     3     4     5

56. I think English courses offered in my university
    is good enough for the development of my
    writing in English.                           1     2     3     4     5

57. Finally, your suggestions, if any, are very
    welcome for the improvement of Korean EL.   1     2     3     4     5

Thank you very much.

# APPENDIX 7. LETTER TO THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

To the ELT policy maker, Ministry of Education

I appreciate your work for making and implementing Korean ELT policy so far.

I have been doing some research for several years under the supervision of Prof. Johnstone, the University of Stirling, Scotland, UK, and at present am at the stage of writing the latter part of my thesis. I am writing to you seeking some help and advice from you, enclosing letter of recommendation by Prof. Johnstone.

The title of my research is 'EFL in Korea: The teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in the context of South Korean culture', that is to say, this is about Orientation of Korean ELT under the Korean cultural context and students' needs and motivation for English acquisition and its national policy.

If the following materials are available, please don't hesitate to send them to me.

1) Evidence of national policy documents concerning the past, present and future of ELT.
2) Elements of national policy emerging.
3) The basis these elements are grounded upon. (Politics, economy, sociology, psychology, linguistics)
4) National policy already in operation.
5) Evidences to indicate the extent to which these policies are being implemented to the extent that national policy makers intended.

Thank you very much for your co-operation.

14 April, 1994


Jae Guk Cha
Ph.D. postgraduate
The University of Stirling.

# APPENDIX 8. LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION FROM THE SUPERVISOR

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## TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to confirm that professor Jae Guk Cha is a student of this University who is conducting research leading to the award if a PhD. His research is in the area of the conceptualisation and implementation of the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in South Korea at national, institutional and individual levels. He has reached the stage of collecting data from national officials, from senior management and teaching staff in institutions in Pusan City and from students.

I should be most grateful if those responsible at national and institutional levels would be willing to accord him some of their time for interview and to allow him to interview and administer questionnaires to a sample of students. This will help him considerably in his research which I hope will in turn be to the benefit of language-teaching in South Korea.

Please accept my grateful thanks in anticipation of your cooperation in this important work.

Yours sincerely


Professor Richard Johnstone
Head of Education Department
Director, Scottish Centre for Information on Language Teaching & Research.

# APPENDIX 9. SCRIPT OF STUDENTS' INTERVIEW

(The whole script of an interveiw with a Korean student studying at postgraduate course at Stirling University after having finished her tertiary level at a Korean university.)

1. What is the main reason for your studying English?

-My case is special one. Because first of all, I have to study to get a job. It is main reason. Other reasons are to read the Bible in English and meet many people from other countries.

2. What is the occupation for which you will find a use for English after learning it?

-Hmm, my major is TEFL, I want to be an English teacher as a f~reign language. Especially I want to teach focusing on English conversation and composition, because to me English composition is hardest field. After finishing study here, I want to help students with the same problems as mine.

3. What do you think of those who speak English as their mother tongue?

-Hmm, I envy them. Yes, really.

Where do you think this feelings or impressions originate?

-Because when I have to write essay or read books, I really envy them. For example, at the same time, they read a lot, but I read just a small. I sometimes feel angry for that.

Does this impression affect your learning English?

-Sometimes positively, sometimes negatively. Because they are better than I at English, which gives some kind of motivation to study harder, to catch up with them.

4. What are your parents' attitudes towards your studying English?

-They support me. Actually my mother gave me some money to buy English cassette tapes. My mother asked me to be a full time English instructor in Korea to make a lot of money. They really support me a lot with learning English. I think my mother is very sensible.

5. What are your views on the methods used for English teaching at your university?

-I don't think they have any teaching methods at all. My university didn't serve any special courses to improve my English. They just do reading and translation with some grammatical explanation. Not interesting at all. So boring teachings. So I tried to learn English by myself.

Is it the same as or different form that of your secondary schools?

-No difference at all. Both of them concentrate on grammar and reading and translation. The English education programmes in secondary schools are changing now, but when I was there, I did the same, exactly the same.

6. What was the medium of instruction so far for \ _.r learning English? Was it English or Korean? What is your preference?

-Most teachers use half Korean and half English in their English classes. But only native speaking instructors in private language institutes use only English. I prefer learning English through English. But in reading part, some nuance and meaning it's better to be explained in Korean. Grammar is easier to learn by Korean. Actually I think English should be taught by English, it's more effective. If I am asked to compare using Korean to using English in English classes, using Korean is just like 'black and white TV' and using English is like 'colour TV'.

7. Were the content and structure of English textbooks used so far in English classes satisfactory?

-I don't like English books used at the Korean university, because it focused on only reading. The textbooks should be changed into more integrated way; I mean, balance among speaking, listening, reading and writing should be given.

8. Have you been to any English speaking countries? If yes, what do you think the most distinctive differences between Koreans and British/Americans?

-Yes, I have been staying in UK for six months.

-British are individualistic, e.g. they do their own things first and then do others' request or favours. Koreans don't usually reject others' offer, even though they are busy, they try to do others' before theirs.

9. If you live in an English speaking countries, how long do you want to live there?

-Until I finish what I need, e.g. to study.

What kinds of troubles/problems did you expect before you came to those countries?

-Oh, all kinds of problems, loneliness, communication, when I came here, I could easily be accustomed to the culture here.

What's your opinion about obtaining a job abroad?

-It's good to get a job abroad. I won't mind getting a job in a foreign country.

10. Are you satisfied with the present kinds of college entrance examination of our country? Or do you want it to be changed? How about the standard of difficulty of the questions?

-There are a lot of unnecessary questions (pronunciation, accent of some words) in college entrance examination. Native speakers say that quite a few questions are awkward, like questions for questions.

What skill(s) of English do you want the college entrance examination to be emphasised on?

-Writing essay in English should be added. Speaking is hard to be examined, I think.

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11. Does your religion, if any, influence your learning English? If yes, in what way? Positively or negatively?

-Sure, yes, my religion affects my English positively, very much positively. Hmm, because I am a Christian, it's quite easy to understand another Christian from totally other culture, when I meet them. It's because we are brothers and sisters in Christ. We feel something in common, so it helps communication to some degree.
Very positive influence for my English, I suppose.

12. What do you suppose is the specific differences of culture between Korea and Britain/America?

-Culture is very vague and huge in its range. It is hard to say. We Koreans respect elderly people, but here in Britain, I don't think they do. But British are very practical and everything is very convenient.

13. Does your culture as a Korean affect your learning English? If yes, how? Positively or negatively?

-No, I don't think Korean culture affect my English.

14. What are the advantages or disadvantages in learning English as a Korean?

-As a Korean, pronunciation of English is very difficult, and word order is different. We are usually very shy, when we give presentation in seminar, we have some difficulties in expressing our opinions.

15. Can you judge the proficiency level of English of Korean students, compared to that of other countries? For example, high, average, low?

-Very low, I'm afraid.

16. Who do you think is responsible for the present state of ELT in Korea?

-Teachers, and then government. Learners are victims.

# APPENDIX 10.

# (STATISTICAL) TABLES RELEVANT TO CHAPTER 5.

[Table 5.1] Frequency Distribution of Respondents

[A] According to Academic Subjects

| Subjects | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Social Science | 490 | 59.5 |
| Natural Science | 333 | 40.3 |
| Total | 823 | 99.9 |

Missing cases 3

[B] According to School Years

| Years | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| First Year | 445 | 53.9 |
| Fourth year | 298 | 36.6 |
| Total | 743 | 90.2 |

Missing cases 83

[C] According to Gender

| Gender | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 510 | 61.7 |
| Female | 310 | 37.5 |
| Total | 820 | 99.2 |

Missing cases 6

[D] According to Age

| Ages | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| 19-22 Years Old | 453 | 54.8 |
| 23-25 | 281 | 34.0 |
| 30-35(before army duty) | 37 | 4.5 |
| 30-35(after army duty) | 38 | 4.6 |
| Total | 809 | 97.9 |

Missing cases 17

**[E] According to Father's Educational Achievement**

| Educational Level | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Primary Graduates | 96 | 11.6 |
| Secondary | 473 | 57.3 |
| Tertiary | 201 | 24.3 |
| Total | 770 | 93.2 |

Missing cases 56

**[F] According to Mother's Educational Achievement**

| Educational Level | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Primary Graduates | 184 | 22.3 |
| Secondary | 507 | 61.4 |
| Tertiary | 78 | 9.4 |
| Total | 769 | 99.9 |

Missing cases 57

**[G] According to Future Needs of English**

| Needs | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Jobs in Korea | 215 | 26.0 |
| Jobs in Foreign Countries | 34 | 4.1 |
| Entertainment | 224 | 27.1 |
| No plan yet | 127 | 15.4 |
| Others | 116 | 14.0 |
| Total | 716 | 86.7 |

Missing cases 110

**[H] According to Religion**

| Religions | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------|-----------|---------|
| Christianity | 325 | 39.3 |
| Buddhism | 121 | 14.6 |
| Confucianism | 21 | 2.5 |
| Catholic | 42 | 5.1 |
| Others | 279 | 33.8 |
| Total | 788 | 95.3 |

Missing cases 38

[Table 5.3]
Distribution of Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of the Variables within the Students' Motivation Questionnaire.

[A] According to the Universities

| Univ. | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Prnt-Enc | Inter-est | MOTENG LRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | M | 2.84 | 3.28 | 2.53 | 3.24 | 3.55 | 4.01 |
| | SD | 0.62 | 0.54 | 0.72 | 0.90 | 0.84 | 0.69 |
| | Cases | 72 | 67 | 73 | 72 | 70 | 73 |
| B | M | 2.90 | 3.00 | 3.08 | 2.86 | 3.40 | 3.40 |
| | SD | 0.45 | 0.32 | 0.93 | 0.86 | 0.80 | 0.68 |
| | Cases | 30 | 37 | 32 | 37 | 36 | 37 |
| C | M | 2.90 | 3.17 | 2.46 | 2.95 | 3.55 | 3.92 |
| | SD | 0.54 | 0.59 | 0.63 | 0.87 | 0.78 | 0.69 |
| | Cases | 99 | 98 | 100 | 100 | 98 | 96 |
| D | M | 2.90 | 2.96 | 2.79 | 2.89 | 3.63 | 3.88 |
| | SD | 0.52 | 0.54 | 0.63 | 0.95 | 0.79 | 0.75 |
| | Cases | 143 | 143 | 144 | 140 | 138 | 139 |
| E | M | 3.03 | 3.19 | 2.72 | 3.04 | 3.46 | 3.68 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.59 | 0.64 | 0.78 | 0.71 | 0.74 |
| | Cases | 105 | 105 | 107 | 106 | 105 | 106 |
| F | M | 2.64 | 3.16 | 2.26 | 2.82 | 3.28 | 3.75 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.56 | 0.67 | 1.03 | 0.79 | 0.82 |
| | Cases | 95 | 95 | 97 | 96 | 89 | 93 |
| G | M | 2.92 | 2.73 | 3.09 | 2.54 | 3.46 | 3.85 |
| | SD | 0.49 | 0.59 | 0.77 | 0.85 | 0.91 | 0.76 |
| | Cases | 126 | 61 | 62 | 61 | 60 | 60 |
| H | M | 2.72 | 2.84 | 2.41 | 2.71 | 3.52 | 3.55 |
| | SD | 0.68 | 0.65 | 0.76 | 1.11 | 0.90 | 0.91 |
| | Cases | 126 | 123 | 134 | 133 | 128 | 132 |
| I | M | 2.95 | 2.99 | 2.85 | 2.97 | 3.29 | 3.40 |
| | SD | 0.52 | 0.59 | 0.81 | 0.98 | 0.76 | 0.77 |
| | Cases | 66 | 70 | 69 | 70 | 68 | 68 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.63 | 2.89 | 3.48 | 3.74 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.57 | 0.71 | 0.94 | 0.81 | 0.77 |
| | Cases | 796 | 799 | 818 | 815 | 792 | 804 |

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**[B] According to Academic Subjects**

| Subjects | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Prnt Enc | Inter-est | MOTEN-GLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Social Sc. | M | 2.87 | 2.97 | 2.66 | 2.84 | 3.55 | 3.75 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.61 | 0.76 | 0.98 | 0.83 | 0.81 |
| | Cases | 473 | 473 | 487 | 484 | 472 | 473 |
| Natural Sc. | M | 2.84 | 3.14 | 2.58 | 2.96 | 3.38 | 3.72 |
| | SD | 0.59 | 0.56 | 0.72 | 0.92 | 0.79 | 0.76 |
| | Cases | 320 | 323 | 328 | 328 | 317 | 328 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.63 | 2.89 | 3.48 | 3.74 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.59 | 0.75 | 0.96 | 0.81 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 793 | 796 | 815 | 812 | 789 | 801 |

**[C] According to Years**

| Year | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Prnt Enc | Inte-rest | MOTEN-GLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| First | M | 2.77 | 3.04 | 2.53 | 2.89 | 3.45 | 3.70 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.58 | 0.78 | 0.95 | 0.83 | 0.83 |
| | Cases | 424 | 430 | 438 | 442 | 428 | 436 |
| Fourth | M | 2.95 | 3.00 | 2.77 | 2.86 | 3.52 | 3.78 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.62 | 0.70 | 0.96 | 0.79 | 0.76 |
| | Cases | 294 | 290 | 298 | 291 | 283 | 288 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.63 | 2.89 | 3.48 | 3.74 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.59 | 0.74 | 0.96 | 0.81 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 718 | 720 | 736 | 733 | 711 | 724 |

**[D] According to Gender**

| Gender | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Prnt Enc | Inte-rest | MOTEN-GLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | M | 2.85 | 3.06 | 2.64 | 2.95 | 3.42 | 3.76 |
| | SD | 0.59 | 0.61 | 0.76 | 0.96 | 0.81 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 493 | 495 | 503 | 501 | 486 | 492 |
| Female | M | 2.86 | 3.00 | 2.61 | 2.78 | 3.58 | 3.71 |
| | SD | 0.56 | 0.57 | 0.73 | 0.94 | 0.82 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 297 | 299 | 309 | 308 | 300 | 306 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.63 | 2.89 | 3.48 | 3.74 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.59 | 0.75 | 0.95 | 0.81 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 790 | 794 | 812 | 809 | 786 | 798 |

## [E] According to Age

| Age | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Pmt Enc | Inte-rest | MOTEN-GLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19-22 | M | 2.79 | 3.06 | 2.50 | 2.91 | 3.47 | 3.72 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.56 | 0.75 | 0.96 | 0.82 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 431 | 437 | 446 | 450 | 438 | 443 |
| 23-25 | M | 2.95 | 3.06 | 2.76 | 2.88 | 3.50 | 3.76 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.65 | 0.71 | 0.93 | 0.82 | 0.80 |
| | Cases | 275 | 273 | 280 | 277 | 265 | 270 |
| 30-35 | M | 2.95 | 2.93 | 2.95 | 2.81 | 3.77 | 3.93 |
| | SD | 0.54 | 0.53 | 0.75 | 1.00 | 0.86 | 0.77 |
| | Cases | 36 | 36 | 37 | 36 | 35 | 37 |
| 30-35 | M | 2.88 | 2.73 | 2.92 | 2.53 | 3.29 | 3.79 |
| | SD | 0.52 | 0.60 | 0.77 | 1.00 | 0.71 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 37 | 37 | 38 | 36 | 38 | 38 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.63 | 2.88 | 3.48 | 3.75 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.59 | 0.74 | 0.95 | 0.82 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 779 | 783 | 801 | 799 | 776 | 788 |

## [F-1] According to Father's Educational Achievement

| Level of Graduate | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Pmt Enc | Inte-rest | MOTEN-GLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary Graduate | M | 2.82 | 3.00 | 2.73 | 2.52 | 3.45 | 3.76 |
| | SD | 0.50 | 0.59 | 0.73 | 0.97 | 0.85 | 0.80 |
| | Cases | 94 | 91 | 96 | 94 | 92 | 94 |
| Secondary Graduate | M | 2.81 | 3.03 | 2.58 | 2.83 | 3.41 | 3.71 |
| | SD | 0.56 | 0.57 | 0.75 | 0.92 | 0.78 | 0.78 |
| | Cases | 452 | 464 | 468 | 465 | 454 | 460 |
| Tertiary Graduate | M | 2.98 | 3.09 | 2.71 | 3.16 | 3.65 | 3.78 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.61 | 0.74 | 0.91 | 0.83 | 0.80 |
| | Cases | 195 | 193 | 198 | 201 | 193 | 197 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.64 | 2.88 | 3.48 | 3.74 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.59 | 0.75 | 0.92 | 0.80 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 741 | 748 | 762 | 760 | 739 | 751 |

**[F-2] According to Mother's Educational Achie˙ ˙ment**

| Level of Graduate | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Pmt Enc | Inte-rest | MOTEN-GLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | M | 2.83 | 2.97 | 2.72 | 2.62 | 3.49 | 3.78 |
| | SD | 0.54 | 0.59 | 0.74 | 0.92 | 0.74 | 0.84 |
| | Cases | 179 | 179 | 183 | 181 | 175 | 181 |
| Secondary | M | 2.83 | 3.04 | 2.56 | 2.91 | 3.44 | 3.70 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.57 | 0.75 | 0.91 | 0.82 | 0.77 |
| | Cases | 488 | 490 | 501 | 500 | 485 | 494 |
| Tertiary | M | 3.10 | 3.16 | 2.87 | 3.32 | 3.69 | 3.90 |
| | SD | 0.56 | 0.65 | 0.67 | 0.90 | 0.79 | 0.77 |
| | Cases | 73 | 76 | 77 | 78 | 77 | 75 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.63 | 2.88 | 3.48 | 3.74 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.59 | 0.74 | 0.92 | 0.81 | 0.78 |
| | Cases | 739 | 745 | 761 | 759 | 737 | 750 |

**[G] According to Future Needs to use English**

| Need | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Pmt Enc | Inte-rest | MOTEN-GLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job in Korea | M | 2.77 | 3.21 | 2.44 | 3.03 | 3.45 | 3.80 |
| | SD | 0.54 | 0.52 | 0.64 | 0.94 | 0.70 | 0.66 |
| | Cases | 214 | 207 | 215 | 212 | 206 | 212 |
| Job in Foreign Countries | M | 3.11 | 3.38 | 2.90 | 2.85 | 3.69 | 4.10 |
| | SD | 0.56 | 0.59 | 0.59 | 0.99 | 1.00 | 0.89 |
| | Cases | 34 | 33 | 34 | 34 | 34 | 34 |
| Entertainment | M | 3.06 | 3.11 | 2.73 | 2.94 | 3.61 | 3.85 |
| | SD | 0.54 | 0.59 | 0.67 | 0.91 | 0.78 | 0.74 |
| | Cases | 218 | 219 | 224 | 219 | 214 | 214 |
| No Plan Yet | M | 2.53 | 2.75 | 2.31 | 2.72 | 3.09 | 3.40 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.56 | 0.67 | 0.99 | 0.84 | 0.86 |
| | Cases | 119 | 118 | 127 | 126 | 118 | 123 |
| Others | M | 2.86 | 2.80 | 2.73 | 2.71 | 3.77 | 4.00 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.60 | 0.86 | 0.97 | 0.79 | 0.74 |
| | Cases | 114 | 113 | 116 | 115 | 114 | 115 |
| Total | M | 2.85 | 3.04 | 2.58 | 2.89 | 3.51 | 3.79 |
| | SD | 0.56 | 0.57 | 0.69 | 0.95 | 0.78 | 0.75 |
| | Cases | 699 | 690 | 716 | 706 | 686 | 698 |

## [H] According to Religions

| Religion | | Int Mot | Ins Mot | Aca Mot | Pmt Enc | Inte-rest | MOTEN-GLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Christianity | M | 2.94 | 2.98 | 2.84 | 2.90 | 3.60 | 3.82 |
| | SD | 0.50 | 0.57 | 0.72 | 0.96 | 0.80 | 0.75 |
| | Cases | 314 | 321 | 323 | 320 | 314 | 313 |
| Buddhism | M | 2.79 | 3.19 | 2.44 | 3.07 | 3.35 | 3.76 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.57 | 0.74 | 1.02 | 0.75 | 0.76 |
| | Cases | 118 | 117 | 120 | 121 | 114 | 121 |
| Confucian-M ism | M | 2.79 | 2.81 | 2.61 | 2.85 | 3.45 | 3.47 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.53 | 0.93 | 0.59 | 0.83 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 17 | 21 | 18 | 20 | 20 | 19 |
| Catholicism | M | 2.91 | 2.94 | 2.73 | 2.64 | 3.39 | 3.44 |
| | SD | 0.64 | 0.63 | 0.91 | 0.91 | 0.89 | 0.76 |
| | Cases | 41 | 41 | 42 | 42 | 38 | 42 |
| Others | M | 2.78 | 3.05 | 2.46 | 2.83 | 3.41 | 3.73 |
| | SD | 0.64 | 0.62 | 0.69 | 0.95 | 0.84 | 0.84 |
| | Cases | 271 | 262 | 279 | 275 | 269 | 271 |
| Total | M | 2.85 | 3.03 | 2.63 | 2.88 | 3.48 | 3.75 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.59 | 0.73 | 0.96 | 0.81 | 0.79 |
| | Cases | 761 | 762 | 782 | 778 | 755 | 766 |

[Table 5.5]

Distribution of Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of Students' Integrative, Instrumental and Academic Motivation.

[A] According to the Universities

| University | | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.84<br>0.62<br>72 | 3.28<br>0.54<br>67 | 2.53<br>0.72<br>73 |
| B | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.90<br>0.45<br>30 | 3.00<br>0.32<br>37 | 3.08<br>0.93<br>32 |
| C | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.90<br>0.54<br>99 | 3.17<br>0.59<br>98 | 2.46<br>0.63<br>100 |
| D | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.90<br>0.52<br>143 | 2.96<br>0.54<br>143 | 2.79<br>0.63<br>144 |
| E | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 3.03<br>0.57<br>105 | 3.19<br>0.59<br>105 | 2.72<br>0.64<br>107 |
| F | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.64<br>0.58<br>95 | 3.16<br>0.56<br>95 | 2.26<br>0.67<br>97 |
| G | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.92<br>0.49<br>126 | 2.73<br>0.59<br>61 | 3.09<br>0.77<br>62 |
| H | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.72<br>0.68<br>126 | 2.84<br>0.65<br>123 | 2.41<br>0.76<br>134 |
| I | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.95<br>0.52<br>66 | 2.99<br>0.59<br>70 | 2.85<br>0.81<br>69 |
| Total | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.86<br>0.57<br>796 | 3.04<br>0.57<br>799 | 2.63<br>0.71<br>818 |

## [B] According to Academic Subiects

| Subject | | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Social Sc | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.87<br>0.58<br>473 | 2.97<br>0.61<br>473 | 2.66<br>0.76<br>487 |
| Natural Sc | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.84<br>0.59<br>320 | 3.14<br>0.56<br>323 | 2.58<br>0.72<br>328 |
| Total | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.86<br>0.58<br>793 | 3.04<br>0.59<br>796 | 2.63<br>0.75<br>815 |

## [C] According to Years

| Year | | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| First | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.77<br>0.58<br>424 | 3.04<br>0.58<br>430 | 2.53<br>0.78<br>438 |
| Fourth | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.95<br>0.58<br>294 | 3.00<br>0.62<br>290 | 2.77<br>0.70<br>298 |
| Total | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.86<br>0.57<br>718 | 3.04<br>0.59<br>720 | 2.63<br>0.74<br>736 |

## [D] According to Gender

| Gender | | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.85<br>0.59<br>493 | 3.06<br>0.61<br>495 | 2.64<br>0.76<br>503 |
| Female | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.86<br>0.56<br>297 | 3.00<br>0.57<br>299 | 2.61<br>0.73<br>309 |
| Total | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.86<br>0.58<br>790 | 3.04<br>0.59<br>794 | 2.63<br>0.75<br>812 |

## [E] According to Age

| Age | | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19-22 | M | 2.79 | 3.06 | 2.50 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.56 | 0.75 |
| | Cases | 431 | 437 | 446 |
| 23-25 | M | 2.95 | 3.06 | 2.76 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.65 | 0.71 |
| | Cases | 275 | 273 | 280 |
| 30-35 (before army duty) | M | 2.95 | 2.93 | 2.95 |
| | SD | 0.54 | 0.53 | 0.75 |
| | Cases | 36 | 36 | 37 |
| 30-35 (after army duty) | M | 2.88 | 2.73 | 2.92 |
| | SD | 0.52 | 0.60 | 0.77 |
| | Cases | 37 | 37 | 38 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.63 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.59 | 0.74 |
| | Cases | 779 | 783 | 801 |

## [F-1] According to Father's Educational Achievement

| Level | | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary Graduate | M | 2.82 | 3.00 | 2.73 |
| | SD | 0.50 | 0.59 | 0.73 |
| | Cases | 94 | 91 | 96 |
| Secondary Graduate | M | 2.81 | 3.03 | 2.58 |
| | SD | 0.56 | 0.57 | 0.75 |
| | Cases | 452 | 464 | 468 |
| Tertiary Graduate | M | 2.98 | 3.09 | 2.71 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.16 | 0.74 |
| | Cases | 19 | 193 | 198 |
| Total | M | 2.86 | 3.04 | 2.64 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.59 | 0.75 |
| | Cases | 741 | 748 | 762 |

**[F-2] According to Mother's Educational Achievement**

|  |  | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary Graduate | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.83<br>0.54<br>179 | 2.97<br>0.59<br>179 | 2.72<br>0.74<br>183 |
| Secondary Graduate | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.83<br>0.58<br>488 | 3.04<br>0.57<br>490 | 2.56<br>0.75<br>501 |
| Tetiary Graduate | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 3.10<br>0.56<br>73 | 3.16<br>0.65<br>76 | 2.87<br>0.67<br>77 |
| Total | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.86<br>0.57<br>739 | 3.04<br>0.59<br>745 | 2.63<br>0.74<br>761 |

**[G] According to Future Needs to Use English**

| Need |  | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job in Korea. | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.77<br>0.54<br>214 | 3.21<br>0.62<br>207 | 2.44<br>0.64<br>215 |
| Kob in Foreign Countries. | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 3.11<br>0.56<br>34 | 3.38<br>0.59<br>33 | 2.90<br>0.59<br>34 |
| Entertainment | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 3.06<br>0.54<br>218 | 3.11<br>0.59<br>219 | 2.73<br>0.67<br>224 |
| No plan yet | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.53<br>0.58<br>119 | 2.75<br>0.56<br>118 | 2.31<br>0.67<br>127 |
| Others | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.86<br>0.60<br>114 | 2.80<br>0.60<br>113 | 2.73<br>0.86<br>116 |
| Total | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.85<br>0.54<br>699 | 3.04<br>0.57<br>690 | 2.58<br>0.69<br>716 |

[H] According to Religions

| Religion | | IntMot | InsMot | AcaMot |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Christianity | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.94<br>0.50<br>314 | 2.98<br>0.57<br>321 | 2.84<br>0.72<br>323 |
| Buddhism | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.79<br>0.61<br>118 | 3.19<br>0.57<br>117 | 2.44<br>0.74<br>120 |
| Confucianism | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.79<br>0.58<br>17 | 2.81<br>0.53<br>21 | 2.61<br>0.93<br>18 |
| Catholicism | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.91<br>0.64<br>41 | 2.94<br>0.63<br>41 | 2.73<br>0.91<br>42 |
| Others | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.78<br>0.64<br>271 | 3.05<br>0.62<br>262 | 2.46<br>0.69<br>279 |
| Total | M<br>SD<br>Cases | 2.85<br>0.58<br>761 | 3.03<br>0.59<br>762 | 2.63<br>0.73<br>782 |

[Table 5.7 A] Mean scores and cases according to father's educational attainment

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Means | 3.77 | 3.71 | 3.78 | 3.74 |
| Cases | 90 | 459 | 197 | 746 |

[B] Mean scores and cases according to mother's educational attainment

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Means | 3.77 | 3.70 | 3.91 | 3.74 |
| Cases | 178 | 494 | 74 | 746 |

[C]

| Father's Educational Level | | Mother's Educational Level | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 1 | 3.72 (76) | 4.04 (14) | 0.00 (0) |
| | 2 | 3.38 (95) | 3.68 (361) | 3.83 (3) |
| | 3 | 3.50 (7) | 3.72 (119) | 3.92 (71) |

[Table 5.6]
Analysis of Variance of the Scores of Students' Integrative, Instrumental and Academic
Motivation According to Universities, Years, Gender, Age, Parents' Educational Attainment,
Needs for English and Religions.

| | Univ. | Subj. | Years | Age | Gend. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | F | F | F | F | F |
| IntMot | 4.29* | 0.68 | 7.01** | 5.00** | 0.04 |
| InsMot | 7.91** | 8.19** | 1.50 | 4.05* | 1.73 |
| AcaMot | 12.88 | 1.78 | 6.59** | 11.78** | 0.17 |

| | Religion | Needs | Father's Ed | Mother's Ed |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 2.76* | 20.06** | 3.50** | 4.75* |
| InsMot | 3.12** | 21.00** | 0.96 | 1.88 |
| AcaMot | 10.35** | 12.98** | 2.31 | 4.9* |

*P < 0.05     ** P < 0.01

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[Table 5.9] Frequency Distribution and Percentages of [A] According To Universities

| University | | NatSpkr | Diff. | Cult. | EngSk | Text | Test | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLR N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | M | 3.03 | 2.69 | 3.18 | 2.81 | 3.07 | 2.63 | 2.32 | 2.82 | 2.92 | 3.18 |
| | SD | 0.63 | 0.60 | 0.41 | 0.60 | 0.45 | 0.60 | 0.54 | 0.41 | 0.76 | 0.49 |
| | Cases | 73 | 72 | 73 | 71 | 70 | 71 | 69 | 64 | 72 | 69 |
| B | M | 3.36 | 2.70 | 3.11 | 2.73 | 2.97 | 2.97 | 2.29 | 2.67 | 2.62 | 2.87 |
| | SD | 0.69 | 0.40 | 0.40 | 0.54 | 0.40 | 0.64 | 0.47 | 0.49 | 0.71 | 0.24 |
| | Cases | 37 | 37 | 37 | 37 | 37 | 36 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 35 |
| C | M | 2.95 | 2.54 | 3.26 | 2.92 | 3.09 | 2.86 | 2.39 | 2.98 | 2.56 | 3.13 |
| | SD | 0.53 | 0.56 | 0.32 | 0.59 | 0.35 | 0.55 | 0.44 | 0.50 | 0.80 | 0.50 |
| | Cases | 97 | 99 | 97 | 97 | 98 | 98 | 96 | 93 | 99 | 94 |
| D | M | 2.97 | 2.65 | 3.27 | 2.67 | 3.15 | 2.90 | 2.36 | 3.09 | 2.78 | 3.19 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.57 | 0.36 | 0.53 | 0.35 | 0.58 | 0.45 | 0.48 | 0.72 | 0.46 |
| | Cases | 140 | 140 | 134 | 143 | 140 | 137 | 131 | 132 | 140 | 138 |
| E | M | 2.91 | 2.75 | 3.22 | 2.77 | 3.06 | 2.58 | 2.38 | 2.75 | 2.77 | 3.12 |
| | SD | 0.52 | 0.60 | 0.35 | 0.60 | 0.36 | 0.60 | 0.64 | 0.54 | 0.81 | 0.37 |
| | Cases | 104 | 103 | 104 | 103 | 103 | 105 | 104 | 103 | 106 | 102 |
| F | M | 2.81 | 2.42 | 3.25 | 2.60 | 3.03 | 2.80 | 2.18 | 2.61 | 2.61 | 2.98 |
| | SD | 0.53 | 0.51 | 0.37 | 0.60 | 0.38 | 0.63 | 0.56 | 0.41 | 0.88 | 0.38 |
| | Cases | 95 | 94 | 91 | 96 | 92 | 95 | 92 | 89 | 94 | 87 |
| G | M | 3.02 | 2.63 | 3.30 | 2.88 | 3.02 | 3.22 | 2.68 | 3.70 | 3.18 | 3.28 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.50 | 0.40 | 0.60 | 0.47 | 0.61 | 0.62 | 0.46 | 0.67 | 0.38 |
| | Cases | 57 | 59 | 55 | 57 | 54 | 57 | 54 | 55 | 61 | 48 |
| H | M | 2.84 | 2.62 | 3.19 | 2.49 | 3.10 | 2.91 | 1.90 | 2.44 | 2.49 | 2.97 |
| | SD | 0.69 | 0.57 | 0.42 | 0.68 | 0.43 | 0.72 | 0.63 | 0.56 | 0.82 | 0.54 |
| | Cases | 130 | 130 | 123 | 131 | 124 | 125 | 127 | 130 | 133 | 120 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I | M | 3.06 | 2.88 | 3.16 | 2.94 | 3.04 | 2.75 | 2.67 | 2.86 | 2.80 | 2.95 |
| | SD | 0.55 | 0.66 | 0.42 | 0.66 | 0.47 | 0.79 | 0.68 | 0.50 | 0.92 | 0.35 |
| | Cases | 70 | 69 | 67 | 67 | 67 | 69 | 69 | 68 | 70 | 67 |
| Total | M | 2.95 | 2.64 | 3.22 | 2.73 | 3.08 | 2.87 | 2.31 | 2.85 | 2.72 | 3.08 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.62 | 0.40 | 0.65 | 0.61 | 0.59 | 0.81 | 0.47 |
| | Cases | 803 | 803 | 781 | 802 | 785 | 793 | 777 | 770 | 812 | 760 |

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**[B] According to Academic Subjects**

| Subject | | NatSpkr | Diff. | Cult. | EngSk. | Text | Test | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Social Sc. | M | 2.95 | 2.66 | 3.25 | 2.73 | 3.09 | 2.91 | 2.31 | 2.90 | 2.69 | 3.11 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.57 | 0.39 | 0.64 | 0.40 | 0.66 | 0.63 | 0.63 | 0.82 | 0.49 |
| | Cases | 473 | 477 | 452 | 474 | 462 | 467 | 459 | 460 | 484 | 449 |
| Natural Sc. | M | 2.96 | 2.62 | 3.19 | 2.71 | 3.05 | 2.79 | 2.30 | 2.77 | 2.77 | 3.04 |
| | SD | 0.59 | 0.58 | 0.37 | 0.58 | 0.40 | 0.63 | 0.57 | 0.50 | 0.80 | 0.44 |
| | Cases | 327 | 323 | 327 | 325 | 320 | 323 | 316 | 309 | 325 | 309 |
| Total | M | 2.95 | 2.64 | 3.22 | 2.73 | 3.07 | 2.87 | 2.31 | 2.85 | 2.72 | 3.08 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.62 | 0.40 | 0.64 | 0.61 | 0.58 | 0.81 | 0.47 |
| | Cases | 800 | 800 | 779 | 799 | 782 | 791 | 775 | 769 | 810 | 758 |

[C] According to years

| Year | | NatSpk | Diff. | Cult. | EngSk | Text | Test | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLR N |
|------|------|--------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|--------|------------|--------|-----------|
| First | M | 2.92 | 2.60 | 3.21 | 2.70 | 3.06 | 2.87 | 2.31 | 2.80 | 2.71 | 3.05 |
| | SD | 0.62 | 0.57 | 0.39 | 0.62 | 0.41 | 0.67 | 0.61 | 0.59 | 0.80 | 0.46 |
| | Cases | 435 | 436 | 428 | 436 | 429 | 434 | 427 | 418 | 440 | 410 |
| Fourth | M | 3.00 | 2.70 | 3.22 | 2.70 | 3.10 | 2.83 | 2.28 | 2.89 | 2.76 | 3.13 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.63 | 0.39 | 0.62 | 0.63 | 0.59 | 0.81 | 0.48 |
| | Cases | 290 | 288 | 274 | 288 | 276 | 279 | 274 | 278 | 291 | 27⁴ |
| Total | M | 2.95 | 2.64 | 3.22 | 2.73 | 3.07 | 2.86 | 2.31 | 2.85 | 2.72 | 3.08 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.57 | 0.38 | 0.62 | 0.40 | 0.65 | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.81 | 0.47 |
| | Cases | 725 | 724 | 702 | 724 | 705 | 713 | 701 | 696 | 731 | 684 |

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[D] According To Gender

| Gender | | NatSpkr | Diff. | Cult. | EngSk | . Text | Test | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | M | 2.97 | 2.62 | 3.20 | 2.79 | 3.03 | 2.81 | 2.39 | 2.91 | 3.08 | 2.86 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.63 | 0.41 | 0.63 | 0.60 | 0.56 | 0.47 | 0.37 |
| | Cases | 494 | 498 | 486 | 494 | 484 | 492 | 479 | 465 | 470 | 466 |
| Female | M | 2.92 | 2.67 | 3.26 | 2.62 | 3.15 | 2.96 | 2.19 | 2.76 | 3.08 | 2.84 |
| | SD | 0.62 | 0.56 | 0.38 | 0.59 | 0.37 | 0.66 | 0.60 | 0.61 | 0.47 | 0.38 |
| | Cases | 303 | 299 | 291 | 302 | 295 | 295 | 293 | 300 | 285 | 282 |
| Total | M | 2.95 | 2.64 | 3.22 | 2.73 | 3.07 | 2.87 | 2.31 | 2.85 | 3.08 | 2.85 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.72 | 0.37 | 0.64 | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.47 | 0.37 |
| | Cases | 797 | 797 | 777 | 796 | 779 | 787 | 772 | 765 | 755 | 748 |

**[E] According To Age**

| Age | | NatSpkr | Diff. | Cult. | EngSk | Text | Test | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19-22 | M | 2.92 | 2.61 | 3.21 | 2.66 | 3.07 | 2.86 | 2.29 | 2.74 | 3.06 | 2.84 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.61 | 0.40 | 0.68 | 0.61 | 0.56 | 0.45 | 0.37 |
| | Cases | 444 | 445 | 437 | 442 | 440 | 443 | 432 | 427 | 422 | 416 |
| 23-25 | M | 2.98 | 2.69 | 3.22 | 2.82 | 3.08 | 2.86 | 2.29 | 2.87 | 3.11 | 2.88 |
| | SD | 0.59 | 0.56 | 0.37 | 0.64 | 0.40 | 0.60 | 0.61 | 0.57 | 0.50 | 0.38 |
| | Cases | 272 | 270 | 261 | 274 | 265 | 266 | 266 | 263 | 260 | 257 |
| 30-35 (before army) | M | 3.12 | 2.61 | 3.30 | 2.81 | 3.13 | 2.91 | 2.27 | 3.26 | 3.20 | 2.84 |
| | SD | 0.63 | 0.60 | 0.43 | 0.71 | 0.41 | 0.66 | 0.55 | 0.52 | 0.48 | 0.34 |
| | Cases | 34 | 35 | 33 | 34 | 33 | 35 | 32 | 31 | 32 | 32 |
| 30-35 (after army) | M | 3.08 | 2.63 | 3.31 | 2.78 | 3.06 | 2.96 | 2.66 | 3.43 | 3.10 | 2.82 |
| | SD | 0.48 | 0.63 | 0.47 | 0.57 | 0.36 | 0.58 | 0.50 | 0.53 | 0.48 | 0.39 |
| | Cases | 36 | 37 | 35 | 36 | 31 | 34 | 33 | 34 | 30 | 32 |
| Total | M | 2.95 | 2.64 | 3.22 | 2.72 | 3.07 | 2.87 | 2.31 | 2.84 | 3.08 | 2.85 |
| | SD | 0.48 | 0.57 | 0.38 | 0.62 | 0.40 | 0.65 | 0.60 | 0.56 | 0.47 | 0.38 |
| | Cases | 786 | 787 | 766 | 786 | 769 | 778 | 763 | 755 | 744 | 737 |

[F] According To Father's Educational Achievement

| Level | | NatSpkr | Diffi. | Cult. | EngSk | Text | Test | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary Graduate | M | 2.95 | 2.66 | 3.24 | 2.82 | 3.08 | 2.90 | 2.43 | 3.08 | 2.73 | 3.03 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.59 | 0.37 | 0.58 | 0.42 | 0.69 | 0.60 | 0.61 | 0.95 | 0.47 |
| | Cases | 91 | 93 | 91 | 93 | 91 | 89 | 88 | 85 | 94 | 83 |
| Secondary Graduate | M | 2.94 | 2.61 | 3.19 | 2.71 | 3.07 | 2.85 | 2.30 | 2.81 | 2.67 | 3.05 |
| | SD | 0.59 | 0.57 | 0.38 | 0.61 | 0.40 | 0.63 | 0.59 | 0.57 | 0.77 | 0.43 |
| | Cases | 462 | 458 | 451 | 461 | 450 | 454 | 443 | 442 | 464 | 444 |
| Tertiary Graduate | M | 2.99 | 2.73 | 3.27 | 2.73 | 3.10 | 2.90 | 2.29 | 2.85 | 2.82 | 3.16 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.59 | 0.39 | 0.65 | 0.39 | 0.67 | 0.65 | 0.60 | 0.81 | 0.48 |
| | Cases | 198 | 198 | 191 | 195 | 192 | 195 | 194 | 193 | 201 | 187 |
| Total | M | 2.96 | 2.65 | 3.22 | 2.73 | 3.08 | 2.87 | 2.31 | 2.85 | 2.71 | 3.08 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.62 | 0.40 | 0.65 | 0.61 | 0.58 | 0.81 | 0.45 |
| | Cases | 751 | 749 | 733 | 749 | 733 | 738 | 725 | 719 | 758 | 714 |

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[G] According To Mother's Educational Achievement

| Level | | NatSpkr | Diff. | Cult. | EngSk | Text | Text | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary Graduate | M | 2.95 | 2.64 | 3.22 | 2.78 | 3.05 | 2.92 | 2.36 | 2.97 | 2.67 | 3.06 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.55 | 0.38 | 0.59 | 0.42 | 0.62 | 0.59 | 0.59 | 0.87 | 0.47 |
| | Cases | 175 | 178 | 171 | 178 | 176 | 172 | 169 | 168 | 180 | 170 |
| Secondary Graduate | M | 2.95 | 2.61 | 3.21 | 2.70 | 3.08 | 2.85 | 2.29 | 2.80 | 2.69 | 3.07 |
| | SD | 0.61 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.62 | 0.40 | 0.64 | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.78 | 0.45 |
| | Cases | 497 | 493 | 486 | 494 | 480 | 489 | 481 | 477 | 499 | 473 |
| Tertiary Graduate | M | 3.03 | 2.86 | 3.24 | 2.81 | 3.11 | 2.93 | 2.40 | 2.91 | 2.96 | 3.21 |
| | SD | 0.51 | 0.61 | 0.41 | 0.65 | 0.41 | 0.77 | 0.73 | 0.64 | 0.76 | 0.41 |
| | Cases | 78 | 77 | 74 | 76 | 76 | 76 | 75 | 73 | 77 | 70 |
| Total | M | 2.96 | 2.64 | 3.22 | 2.73 | 3.07 | 2.87 | 2.32 | 2.85 | 2.71 | 3.08 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.62 | 0.40 | 0.65 | 0.61 | 0.59 | 0.80 | 0.45 |
| | Cases | 750 | 748 | 731 | 748 | 732 | 737 | 725 | 718 | 756 | 713 |

[H] According To Future Needs To Use English

| Need | | NatSpkr | Diff. | Cult. | EngSk | Text | Test | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Job in Korea | M | 2.88 | 2.59 | 3.25 | 2.79 | 3.06 | 2.81 | 2.33 | 2.82 | 2.73 | 3.12 |
| | SD | 0.55 | 0.55 | 0.37 | 0.59 | 0.39 | 0.59 | 0.52 | 0.48 | 0.82 | 0.45 |
| | Cases | 210 | 206 | 204 | 208 | 205 | 207 | 203 | 202 | 211 | 200 |
| Job in Foreign Country | M | 3.00 | 2.55 | 3.27 | 2.83 | 3.15 | 2.79 | 2.21 | 2.86 | 2.72 | 3.32 |
| | SD | 0.68 | 0.76 | 0.33 | 0.55 | 0.37 | 0.66 | 0.63 | 0.67 | 0.78 | 0.49 |
| | Cases | 34 | 34 | 32 | 34 | 34 | 34 | 31 | 33 | 34 | 32 |
| Entertainment | M | 3.02 | 2.65 | 3.22 | 2.71 | 3.09 | 2.89 | 2.29 | 2.82 | 2.73 | 3.15 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.56 | 0.39 | 0.64 | 0.38 | 0.66 | 0.64 | 0.57 | 0.84 | 0.45 |
| | Cases | 213 | 215 | 212 | 215 | 212 | 210 | 212 | 203 | 219 | 209 |
| No plan yet | M | 2.77 | 2.55 | 3.18 | 2.52 | 3.08 | 2.88 | 2.20 | 2.77 | 2.64 | 2.88 |
| | SD | 0.56 | 0.53 | 0.39 | 0.60 | 0.37 | 0.66 | 0.56 | 0.57 | 0.75 | 0.47 |
| | Cases | 125 | 126 | 124 | 127 | 119 | 124 | 122 | 120 | 125 | 115 |
| Others | M | 2.99 | 2.68 | 3.32 | 2.74 | 3.11 | 3.00 | 2.31 | 3.05 | 2.78 | 3.14 |
| | SD | 0.64 | 0.63 | 0.34 | 0.67 | 0.47 | 0.61 | 0.65 | 0.73 | 0.78 | 0.51 |
| | Cases | 113 | 114 | 106 | 112 | 109 | 112 | 105 | 109 | 114 | 105 |
| Total | M | 2.93 | 2.61 | 3.24 | 2.71 | 3.08 | 2.88 | 2.28 | 2.85 | 2.72 | 3.11 |
| | SD | 0.58 | 0.57 | 0.37 | 0.62 | 0.39 | 0.63 | 0.59 | 0.58 | 0.81 | 0.46 |
| | Cases | 695 | 695 | 678 | 696 | 679 | 687 | 673 | 667 | 703 | 661 |

| Religion | | NatSpkr | Diff. | Cult. | EngSk | Text | Test | Lesson | Instructor | Policy | ATENGLRN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Christian | M | 3.02 | 2.70 | 3.25 | 2.77 | 3.11 | 2.95 | 2.41 | 3.05 | 2.79 | 3.19 |
| | SD | 0.57 | 0.57 | 0.38 | 0.57 | 0.41 | 0.65 | 0.56 | 0.60 | 0.75 | 0.40 |
| | Cases | 313 | 317 | 302 | 318 | 309 | 307 | 299 | 301 | 319 | 301 |
| Buddh. | M | 2.93 | 2.59 | 3.22 | 2.72 | 2.98 | 2.77 | 2.33 | 2.74 | 2.68 | 3.07 |
| | SD | 0.55 | 0.57 | 0.35 | 0.73 | 0.43 | 0.67 | 0.63 | 0.50 | 0.84 | 0.47 |
| | Cases | 121 | 120 | 118 | 118 | 120 | 117 | 120 | 115 | 121 | 117 |
| Conf. | M | 2.97 | 2.80 | 3.21 | 2.91 | 3.05 | 2.74 | 2.49 | 2.70 | 2.38 | 2.76 |
| | SD | 0.77 | 0.48 | 0.32 | 0.56 | 0.43 | 0.71 | 0.60 | 0.43 | 0.58 | 0.36 |
| | Cases | 21 | 20 | 20 | 19 | 20 | 19 | 18 | 18 | 20 | 20 |
| Cath. | M | 3.07 | 2.65 | 3.13 | 2.67 | 3.01 | 3.10 | 2.28 | 2.69 | 2.63 | 2.97 |
| | SD | 0.62 | 0.60 | 0.38 | 0.70 | 0.37 | 0.78 | 0.67 | 0.58 | 0.74 | 0.48 |
| | Cases | 42 | 40 | 39 | 41 | 41 | 42 | 41 | 39 | 41 | 34 |
| Others | M | 2.88 | 2.59 | 3.22 | 2.68 | 3.10 | 2.80 | 2.20 | 2.69 | 2.70 | 3.01 |
| | SD | 0.63 | 0.59 | 0.40 | 0.64 | 0.37 | 0.60 | 0.63 | 0.56 | 0.89 | 0.51 |
| | Cases | 268 | 269 | 266 | 269 | 259 | 271 | 265 | 262 | 274 | 255 |
| Total | M | 2.96 | 2.65 | 3.22 | 2.73 | 3.08 | 2.87 | 2.31 | 2.84 | 2.72 | 3.09 |
| | SD | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.38 | 0.63 | 0.40 | 0.65 | 0.61 | 0.56 | 0.81 | 0.46 |
| | Cases | 765 | 766 | 745 | 765 | 749 | 756 | 743 | 735 | 775 | 728 |

[Table 5.15]

Distribution of Mean Scores of the Variables Within the Instructors' Attitudes Questionnaire According to Institution, Teaching Career, Length of Experience of Oversees Study and Major Subjects.

[A] According to the Institutions

| University | | Text | Mcdi | Cult | Prep | Encor | StdPrf | PrcStud | ATENTCH |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | M | 3.00 | 2.33 | 2.72 | 3.33 | 3.67 | 2.00 | 3.13 | 3.13 |
| | SD | 0.16 | 0.51 | 0.25 | 0.63 | 0.29 | 0.50 | 0.33 | 0.23 |
| | Cases | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| B | M | 3.11 | 3.17 | 3.00 | 3.25 | 4.75 | 2.00 | 3.07 | 2.56 |
| | SD | 0.16 | 0.71 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.35 | 0.00 | 0.09 | 0.44 |
| | Cases | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| C | M | 3.00 | 3.50 | 2.92 | 3.50 | 3.75 | 2.75 | 3.10 | 3.13 |
| | SD | 0.63 | 0.24 | 0.12 | 0.71 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.14 | 0.18 |
| | Cases | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| D | M | 2.83 | 3.50 | 3.33 | 3.38 | 3.75 | 2.25 | 3.30 | 2.88 |
| | SD | 0.39 | 0.71 | 0.24 | 0.18 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.33 | 0.53 |
| | Cases | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| E | M | 2.78 | 3.00 | 2.33 | 3.75 | 4.00 | 2.00 | 2.93 | 3.63 |
| | SD | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Cases | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| F | M | 2.56 | 3.67 | 2.67 | 3.75 | 3.50 | 3.00 | 3.33 | 2.75 |
| | SD | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Cases | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| G | M | 3.17 | 2 33 | 3.17 | 3.63 | 4.25 | 2.75 | 3.13 | 3.00 |
| | SD | 0.79 | 0.24 | 0.59 | 0.53 | 1.06 | 0.35 | 0.33 | 0.71 |
| | Cases | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| H | M | 3.00 | 2.00 | 2.33 | 3.75 | 4.00 | 2.00 | 3.20 | 3.25 |
| | SD | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Cases | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| I | M | 3.33 | 3.33 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 2.00 | 2.80 | 2.63 |
| | SD | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Cases | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Total | M | 2.99 | 2.93 | 2.89 | 3.52 | 3.97 | 2.30 | 3.12 | 2.98 |
| | SD | 0.35 | 0.42 | 0.51 | 0.52 | 0.53 | 0.38 | 0.24 | 0.43 |
| | Cases | 14 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 |

[Table 5.15 A-1]

| Institution | Text | Mcdi | Cult | Prepa | Encor | StdPrf | PrcStud | ATENTCH |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| National | 3.33 | 3.33 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 2.00 | 2.80 | 3.00 |
| Private | 3.00 | 2.33 | 2.72 | 3.33 | 3.67 | 2.00 | 3.13 | 2.99 |

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[Table 5.15 B] According to Period of Teaching Career

| Years | | Text | Medi | Cult, | Prepa | Encor | StdPrf | PrcStud | ATENTCH |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | M | 2.89 | 3.33 | 3.17 | 3.38 | 4.25 | 2.25 | 3.03 | 2.75 |
| | SD | 0.47 | 0.94 | 0.24 | 0.18 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.05 | 0.71 |
| | Cases | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 6-10 | M | 3.17 | 2.83 | 3.00 | 3.61 | 3.75 | 2.50 | 3.00 | 3.31 |
| | SD | 0.39 | 0.71 | 0.00 | 0.53 | 0.35 | 0.71 | 0.28 | 0.88 |
| | Cases | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 11-15 | M | 3.09 | 2.67 | 2.89 | 3.67 | 4.00 | 2.25 | 3.12 | 3.00 |
| | SD | 0.19 | 0.52 | 0.69 | 0.34 | 0.55 | 0.42 | 0.25 | 0.52 |
| | Cases | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| 16-20 | M | 2.83 | 2.78 | 2.61 | 3.50 | 3.67 | 2.33 | 3.31 | 2.92 |
| | SD | 0.39 | 0.77 | 0.10 | 0.66 | 0.29 | 0.76 | 0.17 | 0.14 |
| | Cases | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Above 21 | M | 2.78 | 3.67 | 2.92 | 3.12 | 4.25 | 2.25 | 3.07 | 2.94 |
| | SD | 0.31 | 0.00 | 0.12 | 0.18 | 0.00 | 0.35 | 0.09 | 0.09 |
| | Cases | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Total | M | 2.99 | 2.93 | 2.89 | 3.52 | 3.97 | 2.30 | 3.12 | 2.98 |
| | SD | 0.30 | 0.63 | 0.50 | 0.42 | 0.55 | 0.53 | 0.22 | 0.44 |
| | Cases | 14 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 |

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[Table 5.15 D] According to Academic Subjects at Postgraduate Courses

| Subject | | Text | Medi | Cult | Prepa, | Encor | StdPrf | PreStud | ATENTCH |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Literature | M | 2.88 | 3.08 | 2.75 | 3.69 | 3.75 | 2.25 | 2.97 | 3.09 |
| | SD | 0.33 | 0.57 | 0.32 | 0.31 | 0.29 | 0.50 | 0.25 | 0.48 |
| | Cases | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Linguistics | M | 3.15 | 2.67 | 2.91 | 3.50 | 4.11 | 2.28 | 3.21 | 2.90 |
| | SD | 0.14 | 0.55 | 0.53 | 0.45 | 0.60 | 0.51 | 0.17 | 0.41 |
| | Cases | 8 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 |
| English | M | 2.56 | 3.83 | 3.08 | 3.25 | 3.75 | 2.50 | 3.30 | 3.13 |
| | SD | 0.00 | 0.24 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.35 | 0.00 | 0.05 | 0.18 |
| | Cases | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Total | M | 2.99 | 2.93 | 2.89 | 3.52 | 3.97 | 2.30 | 3.12 | 2.98 |
| | SD | 0.21 | 0.54 | 0.48 | 0.41 | 0.52 | 0.48 | 0.19 | 0.42 |
| | Cases | 14 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 |

[Table 5.18]

**Distribution Of Means And Standard Deviations Of The Scores Of The Variables Within The Instructors' Motivation Questionnaire.**

[A] According to Instructors' Institution

|  | National Ins Means | Private Ins Means | Total Means |
|---|---|---|---|
| Prof | 3.67 | 3.39 | 3.53 |
| Intrst | 3.50 | 3.28 | 3.48 |
| MOTENTCH | 3.38 | 2.79 | 3.09 |

[B] According to Length of Teaching Career

|  | 1-5 Years M | SD | 6-10 M | SD | 11-15 M | SD | 16-20 M | SD | 21- M | SD | Total M | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Prof | 3.67 | 0.24 | 3.67 | 0.24 | 3.56 | 0.39 | 3.28 | 0.25 | 3.33 | 0.24 | 3.50 | 0.32 |
| Intrst | 4.17 | 0.94 | 3.17 | 0.24 | 3.97 | 0.56 | 3.61 | 0.35 | 3.83 | 0.47 | 3.80 | 0.48 |
| MOTENTCH | 3.31 | 0.44 | 2.56 | 0.27 | 3.06 | 0.56 | 3.12 | 0.33 | 2.75 | 0.00 | 3.00 | 0.45 |

[C] According To Length Of Foreign Study

|  | No Stay M | SD | Below 1 M | SD | 1-2 Years M | SD | 3-5 Years M | SD | 6- Years M | SD | Total M | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Prof | 3.92 | 0.35 | 3.33 | 0.00 | 3.38 | 0.23 | 3.66 | 0.19 | 3.00 | 0.00 | 3.50 | 0.24 |
| Intrst | 4.08 | 0.59 | 4.17 | 0.00 | 3.79 | 0.38 | 3.67 | 0.81 | 3.50 | 0.00 | 3.80 | 0.56 |
| MOTENTCH | 3.13 | 0.53 | 2.13 | 0.00 | 3.09 | 0.37 | 2.94 | 0.53 | 3.25 | 0.00 | 3.00 | 0.44 |

[D] According to Majoring Subjects

|  | Literature<br>M     SD | Linguistic<br>M      SD | EnglishEd<br>M      SD | Total<br>M      SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Prof | 3.67   0.14 | 3.46   0.37 | 3.33   0.24 | 3.50   0.32 |
| Intrst | 3.54   0.42 | 3.98   0.54 | 3.50   0.00 | 3.80   0.49 |
| MOTENTCH | 2.97   0.49 | 3.04   0.50 | 2.88   0.18 | 3.000.48 |

[Table 5.19]

Analysis Of Variance Of The Scores Of Instructors' Motivation According To Uni., Length Of Teaching Career, Length Of Foreign Study And Major Subjects.

|  | Uni<br>F | Job<br>F | For<br>F | Sbj<br>F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Prof | 0.54 | 0.79 | 3.77 | 0.98 |
| Intrst | 2.78 | 1.50 | 0.36 | 1.55 |
| MOTENTCH | 0.37 | 0.93 | 1.22 | 0.11 |

[Table 5.21]
Distribution of Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of Instructors' Satisfaction with the Profession of Teaching and Teaching of English According to Instructors' Institution, Teaching Career, Length of Overseas Study and Major Subject.

[A] According to Institutions

|  | National Ins<br>M | Private Ins<br>M | Total<br>M      SD |
|---|---|---|---|
| GenProf | 5.00 | 4.33 | 4.33   0.60 |
| EngProf | 4.00 | 4.00 | 4.00   0.65 |

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[B] According to Teaching Career

| | 1-5 Years M | SD | 6-10 M | SD | 11-15 M | SD | 16-20 M | SD | 21- M | SD | Total M | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| GenProf. | 4.00 | 0.00 | 5.00 | 0.00 | 4.33 | 0.52 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.50 | 0.71 |
| EngProf. | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.50 | 0.71 | 4.00 | 0.63 | 3.67 | 0.58 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.00 | 0.56 |

[C] According to Length of Foreign Study

| | No Stay M | SD | Below 1 M | SD | 1-2 Years M | SD | 3 - 5 Years M | SD | 6 - Years M | SD | Total M | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| GenProf. | 4.50 | 0.71 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.29 | 0.49 | 4.50 | 0.58 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.33 | 0.54 |
| EngProf. | 4.50 | 0.71 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 3.17 | 0.49 | 4.25 | 0.50 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.00 | 0.52 |

[D] According to Majoring Subjects

| | Literature M | SD | Linguistic M | SD | English Ed M | SD | Total M | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| GenProf | 4.50 | 0.58 | 4.33 | 0.50 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.33 | 0.50 |
| EngProf | 4.25 | 0.50 | 3.89 | 0.60 | 4.00 | 0.00 | 4.00 | 0.55 |

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[Table 5.22]

Analysis of Variance of the Scores of Instructors' Motivation by Level of the University, Length of Teaching Career', 'Length of Foreign Study' and 'Majoring Subject'.

|  | Uni<br>F | Job<br>F | For<br>F | Sbj<br>F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| GenProf. | 0.40 | 2.05 | 0.35 | 0.67 |
| EngProf. | 0.45 | 0.66 | 1.23 | 0.60 |

**Table 5.28 [A] According To English Proficiency**

|  | Age of 25<br>M    SD | Age of 35<br>M    SD | Above 45<br>M    SD | Total<br>M    SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 2.64  0.35 | 2.76  0.66 | 2.57  0.61 | 2.66  0.46 |
| InsMot | 3.15  0.55 | 3.03  0.17 | 3.04  0.65 | 2.96  0.59 |
| AcaMot | 2.67  1.03 | 2.00  1.00 | 2.50  0.71 | 2.27  0.95 |
| Intrst | 2.83  0.52 | 3.00  0.50 | 2.00  0.76 | 2.68  0.76 |
| MOTENGRN | 3.02  0.37 | 3.25  0.2ɔ | 2.94  0.09 | 3.15  0.43 |

**[B] According To Length Of Working Career**

|  | 10 Years<br>M    SD | 20 Years<br>M    SD | 30 Years<br>M    SD | Total<br>M    SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot ⁚ | 2.71  0.33 | 2.31  0.46 | 2.89  0.79 | 2.66  0.44 |
| InsMot | 2.95  0.54 | 2.58  0.74 | 3.35  0.81 | 2.96  0.57 |
| AcaMot | 2.31  0.84 | 1.83  0.94 | 2.40  1.67 | 2.27  0.93 |
| Intrst | 2.75  0.57 | 2.71  0.84 | 2.50  0.71 | 2.68  0.69 |
| MOTENGLRN | 3.24  0.27 | 2.95  0.65 | 3.50  0.53 | 3.15  0.41 |

**[C] According to Graduate Institutions: National and Private**

|  | National Uni<br>M    SD | Private Uni<br>M    SD | * Total<br>M    SD |
|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 2.74  0.57 | 2.71  0.32 | 2.67  0.44 |
| InsMot | 3.03  0.82 | 2.83  0.58 | 2.97  0.58 |
| AcaMot | 2.50  1.08 | 2.25  0.97 | 2.29  0.93 |
| Intrst | 3.00  0.53 | 2.71  0.54 | 2.69  0.66 |
| MOTENGLRN | 3.24  0.47 | 3.16  0.33 | 3.18  0.37 |

* 'Total' is represented by nine different universities in Pusan, Taegu and Seoul.

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[F] According To Having Foreign Acquaintances

|  | Yes (N=17) M SD | No (N=56) M SD | Total (N=73) M SD |
|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 2.93 0.40 | 2.61 0.46 | 2.66 0.45 |
| InsMot | 3.03 0.70 | 2.92 0.56 | 2.94 0.59 |
| AcaMot | 3.23 0.60 | 2.15 0.83 | 2.32 0.80 |
| Intrst | 3.08 0.79 | 2.60 0.68 | 2.68 0.70 |
| MOTENGLRN | 3.23 0.24 | 3.13 0.46 | 3.15 0.43 |

[G] According to the Nationality of English Instructors at Schools

|  | Korean (N=70) M SD | British (N=2) M SD | American (N=12) M SD | Total (N=84) M SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| IntMot | 2.63 0.47 | 2.86 0.40 | 2.79 0.38 | 2.66 0.46 |
| InsMot | 2.94 0.60 | 2.67 1.06 | 3.15 0.50 | 2.96 0.59 |
| AcaMot | 2.20 0.94 | 3.50 0.71 | 2.50 0.52 | 2.27 0.89 |
| Intrst | 2.62 0.67 | 3.75 0.35 | 2.83 0.83 | 2.68 0.69 |
| MOTENGLRN | 3.11 0.45 | 3.25 0.18 | 3.35 0.25 | 3.15 0.42 |

[H] According to Religion

| Religions | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Christianity | 325 | 39.3 |
| Buddhism | 121 | 14.6 |
| Confucianism | 21 | 2.5 |
| Catholic | 42 | 5.1 |
| Others | 279 | 33.8 |
| Total | 788 | 95.3 |