UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN QUEENSLAND

Native English-Speaking Teachers' Perspectives on Korean University Students' Learning of English as a Foreign Language

A Dissertation presented by

Christian Youngwan Shin

For the Award of

Doctor of Education

2014

ABSTRACT

It is widely recognized among English language teaching scholars that there is a pedagogical gap between English as a foreign language (EFL) students and native English-speaking teachers (NESTs). However, little research has attempted to identify contributing factors and elucidate them from an NEST perspective in the Korean higher education context. This study explored NESTs' perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning in an effort to bridge the gap. Attention was also drawn to NESTs' pedagogical approaches and methods in the course of ascertaining their perspectives on the students' learning. The study was carried out through a mixed methods approach encompassing a questionnaire survey, in-depth interviews, classroom observations, and field notes. Fifty-four NESTs completed questionnaires, and a subsample of six teachers further participated in naturalistic inquiry. The study shed light on what attributed to the effectiveness of students' EFL learning through exploration of the following from the teachers' perspectives: learner motivation; knowledge base; language skills; needs and expectations; in-class behaviors; study habits; learning strategies; and prior learning experience. The teachers acknowledged that the students could not take full advantage of the services rendered by NESTs while EFL classes taught by NESTs were deemed apposite, necessary, and beneficial. The teachers were consulted about ways of narrowing the gap to improve the effectiveness of EFL learning and teaching. Based on the findings, recommendations are made to close the gap and improve the quality of EFL education.

CERTIFICATION OF DISSERTATION

I certify that the ideas, experimental work, results, analyses, software, and conclusions reported in this dissertation are entirely my own effort, except where otherwise acknowledged. I also certify that the work is original and has not been previously submitted for any other award, except where otherwise acknowledged.

_____   _____
Signature of Candidate   Date

ENDORSEMENT

_____   _____
Associate Professor Jeong-Bae Son, Principal Supervisor   Date

_____   _____
Dr. Ann Dashwood, Associate Supervisor   Date

DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to my mother who believes in me.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

English has been widely regarded as the language of opportunity for education, employment, and career advancement in the Republic of Korea (called Korea hereafter) for the past few decades (S. Kim, 1998). The country's education system ranging from nurseries to graduate schools has been swept through by the demand for English education. Jeong (2004) described the degree of nationwide infatuation with learning the language as follows: "Currently, it is no exaggeration to say that the Korean peninsula is overwhelmed by a zest for English. The whole country seems to be in the grip of 'English fever'" (p. 40). Interests in the English language as a means of communication have surged to such an extent that the phenomenon earned other descriptions, such as 'English craze' (Hart, 2006) and 'English hegemony' (S.-R. Lee, 2011).

Although English education begins for some Korean students as early as in their infancy, it usually first takes place in the middle of elementary schools (e.g., the third grade) and continues on to the end of their high school years for Korean students in the mainstream school system. By the time most Korean students graduate from high school, they have had approximately ten years of English education, or so-called 'first foreign language' education, in schools. (English is called first foreign language. Other foreign languages taught at the secondary level of education, including Chinese, Japanese, French, and German, are labeled as the 'second foreign language' collectively.) At school, Korean students normally have two to four contact hours of English per week.

English as a foreign language (EFL) education has been provided and promoted in school on the premise of developing language skills for communication in principle. In reality, it has aimed at preparing students for test taking. The test-driven English learning and teaching is a result of the education system in which school grades and high-stakes exam results together can literally determine the student's chance of acceptance (or rejection) to a prestigious university.

The extent and types of English education that individual Korean students receive vary considerably, depending on diverse factors such as their parents' socioeconomic and educational backgrounds. In addition to English education offered at school, a significant number of Korean students take some type of English class at private academies (called *hagwon*) for several years. A relatively small proportion of Korean students are also known to receive private English tutoring at home.

The surge of interest in EFL education has been accompanied with an influx of native English speakers in the educational landscape. The influx has been largely fueled by a popular belief that the introduction of native English speakers to the classroom is the long-sought panacea for the formal education system's failure to develop communicative skills of Korean students (Jeong, 2004). Native English speakers are believed to be capable of exposing Korean students to the language and culture of English speakers (e.g., Y.-S. Choi, 2008; Gang, 1999; K. J. Kim, 2006;

Kwon, 2000; S.-R. Lee, 2007; J.-K. Park, 1999; Won, Lee, & Jeong, 2009). The perceived importance of native English-speaking teachers (called NESTs hereafter) seems to have grown in other EFL settings outside Korea as well.

Nowadays, NESTs are nearly ubiquitous throughout Korea including rural areas, especially with efforts by the former administration to provide equal access to English education for elementary and middle school students who would not have access to NESTs otherwise (H. S. Lee, 2008). This interest to make use of NESTs has also been spurred in many Asian countries by the status of English as an international language coupled with the demand for globalization (Jeon & Lee, 2006).

Korean universities have also employed a substantial number of NESTs with the intention of further developing the students' communicative skills in the last few decades. This is based on a widespread notion that NESTs are the ultimate authority of English teaching (K. J. Kim, 2006). The notion of NESTs as the authority seems to have stemmed from their ability to speak English fluently rather than their credentials or expertise (M. Kwon, 2007). Many tertiary institutions require students to take EFL classes taught by NESTs as part of graduation requirements.

To fully capitalize on NESTs' knowledge of English and ability to use it, a majority of Korean universities have put NESTs in charge of classes that focus on the development of speaking skills, while Korean faculty members have conducted listening and reading classes (S.-R. Lee, 2010). Although there is no clear pattern as to how much of the classes designated for the development of writing skills are taught by NESTs, the role of NESTs in writing skill development is likely to increase.

At most tertiary institutions in Korea, NESTs are generally entrusted with the responsibility of teaching EFL classes by themselves (H. Kim, 2005) even though team-teaching with Korean teaching staff used to occur sparingly (H.-J. Chang, 2009). Considering that NESTs are in charge of conducting half of EFL education at the institutions (Gang, 1999), they have inadvertently taken significant roles in EFL education in higher education (C. Y. Shin, 2011a). NESTs will likely to remain important players in EFL education for the foreseeable future, in and outside Korea.

1.2 Research Aims and Questions

The present study aimed to investigate perspectives of NESTs in Korea related to (a) what advantages and difficulties that Korean university EFL students have in EFL learning; (b) how NESTs deal with students' EFL learning and why they handle it in the way they do; and (c) what can be improved in students' EFL learning (or NESTs' teaching) to help students achieve a higher level of proficiency. The following research questions formed the basis of data collection and analysis:

1. What strengths and weaknesses do NESTs see in Korean university students' EFL learning?
2. How do NESTs address the learning issues of Korean university students in EFL classes?
3. What pedagogical changes could help improve the Korean university students' EFL learning?

The first question was intended to explore NESTs' perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning. The second question aimed to examine the NESTs' ways of dealing with and facilitating the students' EFL learning. It should be noted that the aim of this question was not to identify and illuminate NESTs' teaching practices per se. The question was intended to help further reveal and contextualize their perspectives on the students' EFL learning by taking their pedagogical approaches and methods into account. The teachers' perspectives can manifest in their ways of teaching the students and dealing with them in the classroom. The third question was intended to delve further into NESTs' perspectives by asking what they thought could be improved in the students' learning (and by extension what they could change in their teaching) to improve the quality of EFL education. In essence, the first question was to extract the NESTs' perspectives on the students' EFL learning directly; the other two questions were to further capture, clarify, and confirm the perspectives.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Findings of the present study have a considerable significance as they make invaluable contributions to the ongoing body of research on EFL education. By exploring NESTs' perspectives, the study enhances our understanding of the following: the students' EFL learning; NESTs' teaching; and university EFL education. The study is of great value since a deep understanding of the educational context and its players within the context is vital to deliver successful language education (Kwon, 2009).

First, the study enhances our understanding of Korean university students' EFL learning. It provides in-depth insights into the students' EFL learning in the higher education context. There are two reasons why the insights are of particular value. NESTs have first-hand knowledge of the students and EFL education of which they have been part. At the same time, NESTs hold different perspectives in some aspects from Korean educators and scholars involved in English education (C. Y. Shin, 2014). The insights can ultimately help Korean educators and scholars make improvements to EFL education, improvements which cater to, or effect changes in, the students' learning.

Second, the study adds to our understanding of NESTs' teaching practices and the rationales underlying those practices. It touches upon NESTs' pedagogical approaches and methods employed to address students' learning in EFL classes, even though in-depth examination of NESTs' teaching is not at the center of the study. An understanding of NESTs' teaching practices can give rise to instructional improvements at the individual teacher level and beyond. Instructional improvements can be realized as the study sheds light on perspectives of NESTs on effective ways of conducting EFL classes and developing language skills of students. Insights present an opportunity for NESTs at large to reflect on their own values, beliefs, and assumptions that are deeply-held but rarely-challenged at the conceptual level.

When there exists a gap between students' EFL learning and NESTs' teaching (Dengen & Absalom, 1998; Liu & Zhang, 2007; Xiao, 2006), reflection can help NESTs align their teaching with the students' learning needs, expectations, and styles. A pedagogical alignment can, in turn, have a positive impact on the students'

motivation, performances, and achievements (Brown, 1994). It can improve the quality of EFL education in the end (Han, 2005a; S.-R. Lee, 2011; J.-K. Park, 1999).

Third, a greater understanding of NESTs' teaching practices can promote a more inclusive environment for NESTs to work in collaboration with Korean educators and scholars involved in EFL education. The understanding enables Korean educators and scholars to recognize differences in perspective between themselves and NESTs concerning EFL Education. In other words, it equips Korean educators and scholars to see where NESTs' perspectives diverge from and converge on their own perspectives, enlightening them as to NESTs' pedagogical practices and reasoning. By bringing Korean EFL educators and scholars a step closer to understanding NESTs' teaching, the study enables those engaged in and overseeing EFL education to work more effectively with NESTs.

Fourth, the study furnishes insights that can help improve EFL education in connection with the students' EFL learning. The study sheds light on what NESTs find in EFL education advantageous to, or problematic in, the development of the students' English language skills. Reconsidering ways in which EFL education is provided from different angles (e.g., NESTs' perspectives as in this study) can help obtain a more complete picture of EFL learning and teaching than a picture portrayed from the standpoints of Korean EFL educators and scholars alone (Chang, 2004). Hence, findings of the study can help reevaluate EFL education.

1.4 Terms and Definitions

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to language teaching rooted in a notion that the main reason of learning second and foreign languages is to communicate with individuals who use the target language. Thus, language teaching should provide materials and opportunities for learners to practice and develop their language skills through meaningful negotiation (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). CLT is a popular approach in the contemporary circle of NESTs mainly because it is in sync with the teachers' belief in 'learning by doing' through in-class tasks and activities, such as problem-solving tasks and role plays. As CLT emphasizes authentic language use, the use of genuine materials is usually promoted (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Long & Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1991), which should ideally reflect particular interests, learning styles, needs, and aspirations of individual students (Savignon, 1991).

College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT), also called College Scholastic Aptitude Test (C. J. Lee, 2005), is a nation-wide college entrance exam that is government-orchestrated and administered annually to Korean college/university applicants. Being a major determining factor in college admission (C. J. Lee, 2005), CSAT is an extremely competitive and high-stakes examination (Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2005). CSAT consists primarily of multiple-choice type questions. A great deal of attention has been paid to CSAT, fueled by the desire of Korean parents to do everything in their power to make sure that their children enter a prestigious university (Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2005). Since English and mathematics are two major subjects that can largely determine the success or failure of students taking the entrance examination, CSAT has had a profound impact on English education in Korea (Jeong, 2004). Although multiple-choice type questions in the English test may have been designed to

evaluate the test takers' productive skill, writing and speaking, indirectly, the English portion of CSAT mostly assesses the receptive skills, reading and listening, of test takers.

English as a foreign language (EFL) is a term for English education for learners who are scarcely exposed to the language in their natural environment outside the English classroom; as compared to English as a second language (ESL) that refers to English education for learners who come to, and are expected to, live in an environment where English is commonly used on a daily basis. For most Korean students, English is rarely heard outside English classes and seldom spoken. Most encounter the language only in English class. An implication of not having had real chances to hear or use the language as a means of communication is that Korean EFL students may feel that English is an academic subject rather than a language that people use to communicate and interact with others.

Native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) speak English as a native language, generally coming from one of the following English-speaking countries: Australia, Canada, England, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, and the United States. They are employed to teach English language across private and public sectors in Korea. Different definitions for the characteristics of NESTs seem to exist (Davies, 1991; Medgyes, 2001). Some Korean educators, school administrators, and parents apparently expect to see English-speaking Caucasians when they refer to NESTs (J.-W. Lee, 1996); the majority of NESTs working in EFL programs at Korean colleges and universities largely consist of Caucasians (J.-W. Lee, 1996). While work experiences and educational backgrounds, such as having a Master's degree or having studied a discipline related to teaching English, are scrutinized at universities, they are still of no particular concern for typical private academies and schools, as long as NESTs have an undergraduate degree.

Perceptions refer to perceptual interpretations of surroundings. As a response to environmental stimuli, individuals can form thoughts about and opinions on certain aspects of reality. On the other hand, *perspectives* refer to frames of reference (Stewart, Danielian, & Foster, 1998) or points of view based on the individual value and belief systems, as people generally have preconceived notions about matters. Perspectives are not necessarily formed as a direct result of reality experienced and observed by individuals. Because perceptions and perspectives are intertwined with considerable overlap, it seems that the former is used as an umbrella term among Korean educators and scholars. However, the latter has more to do with the internal system constructed over one's life time rather than a response to the type, strength and duration of external stimuli.

TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) and *TOEIC* (Test of English for International Communication) are two standardized English tests that are widely used in Korea to assess the ability of English learners for various purposes (Gang, 1999; S.-W. Kim, 2001). Both tests have been designed and are administered by the English Test Service (ETS) based in the United States for specific purposes. TOEFL was originally developed and is still used to a large degree to evaluate the English proficiency of international students who want to do their undergraduate or graduate studies in the United States. The intended purpose of TOEFL has been to determine the readiness of international students for academic work to be conducted in the

English language. TOEIC, on the other hand, was developed to measure the ability of non-native English speakers working in the business world. Strong performance on the standardized tests has become of paramount importance for university students and graduates (Jeong, 2004) because domestic employers of all sizes and types have used test scores for assessment of English ability of prospective employees (S.-A. Choi, 2002; Jeong, 2004; Y. J. Lee, 2000). The largest number of people taking TOEIC worldwide may have been Koreans (T. H. Kim, 2005). *TEPS* (Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University) is another standardized test that has recently been used in Korea.

1.5 Structure and Format of the Dissertation

In the beginning of this chapter, a brief overview has been provided on the status given to English education and the role of NESTs in the Korean educational landscape. Next, the aims of the study have been presented. Then, the research questions have been posed to address the aims covering the following issues: Korean university students' EFL learning, NESTs' ways of dealing with the students' EFL learning, and potential areas of pedagogical improvement in EFL learning and teaching. The significance of the study has been outlined for various members of the EFL learning and teaching community in Korea, including the students, NESTs, Korean EFL educators, and possibly Korean university administrators. Recurrent terms are listed and briefly defined.

Chapter 2 presents a review of selected literature on NESTs, university students' EFL learning, and EFL education in the context of Korean higher education. The first section covers past studies on NESTs, their role at universities, their typical teaching styles, and their perceptions and perspectives. Pedagogical compatibility is considered between NESTs and the students as part of the review. A review is also provided of the following: the students' motivation for EFL learning; language skills; study habits; learner needs and expectations; and culturally-defined roles. Literature on EFL education at Korean universities is reviewed.

Chapter 3 delineates the methodology employed to address the research questions. Since the study adopted mixed methods, the rationale behind the use of the research methodology is given. The profiles of NESTs who participated in the study are presented. The instruments used in the study are described, including self-reported questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and field notes. Then, it is explained why interviews were chosen as the primary method and how interviews and other instruments were combined to address the research questions. An account of quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis is given. Ethical considerations of the study are presented, as well.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. The responses of NESTs who participated in the study to the questionnaires are presented, followed by presentation of qualitative data obtained from a subsample of NESTs through interviews, classroom observations, and field notes. More specifically, NESTs' perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning based on the questionnaires are covered first as follows: the students' general characteristics; motivation to learn EFL; knowledge and ability to use English; EFL learning behaviors; and needs and expectations. The NESTs' perspectives on their ways of teaching the students are also described,

followed by their perspectives on the EFL learning and teaching environment. Next, findings gained from the qualitative research methods are presented. The findings are described at length to give a more complete picture of perspectives of the subsample of NESTs on the following: the students' general characteristics; motivations; learning behaviors; and needs and expectations. In addition, teachers' teaching practices are covered in relation to the students' EFL learning. Also, teachers' perspectives are described as to how students' EFL learning (and their own teaching) could be changed.

Chapter 5 includes discussion of the findings of the study. The findings gained from the interviews, observations, and field notes are discussed in response to the research questions, with references to the questionnaire results when appropriate. Teachers' perspectives on students' EFL learning are discussed first, with special attention paid to: the students' motivation; knowledge base; in-class learning behaviors; general approaches to learning; and needs and expectations. The students' EFL learning environment is also considered in terms of their past learning context and exposure to English. Second, the teachers' ways of dealing with students' EFL learning are discussed in terms of pedagogical approaches and practices. Third, the teachers' perspectives on potential areas of improvement are discussed by considering the students' compatibility with NESTs and highlighting pedagogical differences between NESTs and the students. In addition, a possible means of resolving the differences is discussed. When possible, the findings are compared and contrasted with the results of previous studies in order to keep the findings in perspective.

Chapter 6 highlights the findings of the study in response to the research questions. Contributions of the study to EFL education and research are highlighted in the context of English learning and teaching at Korean universities. Recommendations are made to better prepare students for EFL teaching conducted by NESTs and improve their proficiency in English without incurring considerable expenses. Limitations of the study are considered. Possible directions for future research are suggested which can deepen our understanding of Korean university students' EFL learning.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature review is provided in this chapter. First, literature that covers the NESTs' roles is reviewed in the context of university EFL education. Consideration of their roles can help delineate the educational context within which NESTs perform their teaching duties. A brief review is also carried out on the NESTs' impact on EFL education at Korean universities. Attention is given to literature that deals with NESTs working at Korean universities and addresses their perceptions and perspectives.

Then, consideration is given to Korean university students as EFL learners. Attention is paid, in particular, to the students' motivation, language skills, learning needs, study habits, and culturally-defined roles. The review of previous studies on the students' EFL learning provides grounds for putting into perspective the present study's findings concerning NESTs' perspectives on the students' learning. Next, the students' EFL learning styles and preferences are considered, in relation to the NESTs' typical teaching methods, to consider compatibility between the students and the teachers.

Lastly, literature on the students' learning environment in higher education is considered briefly. In essence, as the study aimed to explore NESTs' perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning, a literature review is provided encompassing NESTs, Korean university EFL students, and the context in which EFL education takes place. The findings of previous studies were linked to the present study's quantitative instrument by denoting matching questionnaire items (see Appendix A).

2.1 English Language Teaching

The prominent role of English in the world was once thought as a trace of British colonialism or a symbol of American cultural imperialism (Shaw, 1981). However, globalization and the emergence of information technology have led to "an explosion in the demand for English worldwide" (Nunan, 1992, p. 2). English language has become the most prominent international language in the world (Alptekin & Alptekin, 1984; Jenkins, 1998; Kachru, 1982; Smith, 1983), especially in the areas of international trade and diplomacy, science, and technology (Shaw, 1981).

More than two thirds of English speakers are estimated to be non-native speakers (Crystal, 1992), with an ever-increasing number of non-native English speakers. The growing body of non-native English speakers has caused a paradigm shift in the ownership of English. The idea that has propagated over the past three decades is that the British, the United States, and other Anglophone countries no longer have exclusive rights to English; rather, everyone who uses it can claim ownership (Talebinezhad & Aliakbari, 2001). English has been widely regarded as a language that serves as a vehicle for communication between people across nations and cultures.

English has been studied by more people than any other language as a second or foreign language (Smith, 1983), with millions of students learning it (Honna, 2005). The proliferation of English was described by Honna (2005): "English has conspicuously spread among non-native speakers as a sizable number of Asian, African, Pacific, and other countries designate it as their official, associate official, or working language" (p. 73). English has become a pre-eminent language for international communication in Asia (Honna, 2005): "Throughout the region, English is the language of education, culture, business and, above all, regional cooperation" (p. 77).

With the growing importance of English in the world, native English speakers have assumed a central role in English teaching. They used to be considered as the authentic and reliable source of linguistic data (Chomsky, 1965) for English being their native language (Medgyes, 2001) or being born in an English-speaking country (Davies, 1991). A popular notion was that native English speakers were the ideal teachers of English. This notion, called 'the native speaker fallacy' by Phillipson (1992), went largely unchallenged until the 1990s (Moussu & Llurda, 2008), and remains a contentious issue among English language teaching (ELT) scholars today.

Scholarly debates on the competence and effectiveness of NESTs versus non-NESTs notwithstanding, a strong preference for NESTs still exists in the EFL/ESL teaching field (Medgyes, 2001). For example, a number of Asian countries, including China, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, and Singapore, have implemented national policies to promote students' proficiency in English by involving NESTs in English education.

2.2 Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTs) at Korean Universities

How NESTs have come to play a major part in EFL education at Korean Universities is described, followed by their current standing at the institutions. It is pointed out below that some measures should have been taken at the administrative level in the process of staffing EFL programs with NESTs in order to ensure the quality of EFL learning and teaching. The merits and shortcomings of NESTs should have been taken into account.

In consideration of roles and impacts of NESTs, the strengths that they supposedly have are examined in terms of language skill development and confidence-building effect, while their shortcomings are seen in their professional capacity. The effectiveness of NESTs as language teachers is regarded largely from the perspectives of Korean educators and scholars. External factors are identified that have influenced the teachers' effectiveness. Studies on the perceptions and perspectives of NESTs teaching at Korean universities are reviewed.

2.2.1   Places in English as foreign language (EFL) Education

Despite the history of NESTs in Korea for more than 130 years, they have only become noticeable in their role of teaching conversational skills at tertiary institutions in the past three decades (Y.-S. Choi, 2008; Gang, 1999; I.-D. Kim, 2000; K. J. Kim, 2006; O. Kwon, 2000; S.-R. Lee, 2007). In the 1990s, Korean universities began hiring native English speakers "by the dozens", as O. Kwon (2000, p. 58) put it, for their restructured English programs. Along with government initiative to push

for both communicative competence enhancement in Korean students (Oak & Martin, 2003) and English teaching through English (H.-J. Lee, 2001), native English speakers were actively sought out to teach Korean students at tertiary institutions (O'Donnell, 2006).

In the frenzy to meet the surge of demand in the 1990s, Korean universities began to hire native English speakers to teach EFL. Native English speakers have been employed at times without due consideration for their teaching experience, educational background, and/or other relevant qualifications. Hiring decisions were often based solely on one's ability to speak English (M. Kwon, 2007). It has been widely accepted that native English speakers could teach English well, as the language was their mother tongue (Hong & Jung, 2006).

Although the idea of native English speakers as ideal English teachers is no longer embraced universally (S. Y. Bae, 2006; Han, 2003; Todd, 2006), many NESTs were (and are still) hired based on the status of being native English speakers. The public may still believe (and unconditionally accept) that native English speakers are the ideal teachers of English. NESTs taught (and still do) with academic degrees irrelevant to EFL teaching, and some of them had no prior EFL/ESL teaching experience before they assumed the role of teachers (Han, 2005a; Kim, 2001; S.-R. Lee, 2011). Ide (1982) put it as follows:

> One glaring aspect of this [sudden push for the development of communicative competence] is the hiring of unqualified foreigners to teach English merely because the person is a native speaker. In most cases these individuals have little or no knowledge of how to teach English as a foreign language. (p. 73)

In addition, there was neither adequate planning nor systematic execution in employment of NESTs (H.-J. Lee, 2001). Opportunities were not seized to examine the effectiveness of NESTs teaching within EFL educational contexts before inviting them to take over a large part of EFL education at Korean universities. Serious discussions were not held either on the potential merits and shortcomings of NESTs with helping Korean university EFL students achieve a higher level of proficiency in English. Without fully considering past performance and capabilities of native English speakers as EFL teachers, decisions were made and executed by Korean educators and administrators to place native English speakers in charge of teaching EFL in higher education (H.-J. Lee, 2001).

The unstructured approach to hiring NESTs, combined with the native speaker fallacy, undoubtedly contributed to employment of inexperienced and unqualified NESTs (Han, 2005a). Naturally, NESTs who were not well-prepared to teach EFL turned out to be ineffective as EFL teachers (H.-J. Lee, 2001; Lee & Dash, 2003; Lee & Im, 2005; Suh, Pai, Yoo, & Park, 1999) and even unprofessional in their conduct (H. Kim, 2005). Simply put, those who were unprepared, or ill-prepared, to teach were given the title 'teacher' and the authority that normally came with the role to a large extent.

Implications of bringing in NESTs to EFL programs could have been discussed before they assumed their role in EFL education. Foresight could have helped maximize the benefits that NESTs were realistically able to offer, and address any

shortcomings that the teachers might bring into EFL programs. The discussion is long overdue. The implications should be considered, especially in light of the following situations in higher education. NESTs have become ubiquitous on Korean university campuses nowadays (C. Y. Shin, 2010a). There has also risen a new trend where NESTs have begun teaching major-related and content courses in English, in addition to EFL classes (J. Y. Park, 2011).

2.2.2　Roles and Impacts

It is documented in literature that NESTs could help develop the Korean students' English language skills by engaging them in dialogue and providing them immediate feedback on their English use. NESTs can carry on conversations with students (M. Kwon, 2007). Direct exposure to NESTs can be a motivating factor for students to use English (Chung, Min, & Park, 1999) since English is (or is presumed to be) the only language that NESTs know. NESTs can also help improve students' listening skills (H.-J. Lee, 2001) by increasing their exposure to authentic language input.

Besides the students' verbal skills development, NESTs can help allay students' fears related to the use of English. NESTs supposedly boost the students' confidence in using English while mitigating learner anxiety for conversing with English speakers (Y. Choi, 2001; Chung, Min, & Park, 1999; H.-J. Lee, 2001; S.-O. Park, 1988; Suh, Pai, Yoo, & Park, 1999). As students in the mainstream education system have rarely come into contact with English speakers, it can be refreshing for them to have NESTs in class to talk to and interact with in English.

If decreasing anxiety in students is the main benefit of having NESTs in EFL classes, one or two semesters of having NESTs would be adequate (S.-O. Park, 1988). It has seemed that the merit of reducing the students' anxiety about English may have been overemphasized by Korean EFL educators and administrators to justify the use of NESTs, in light of the opinion among Korean educators and scholars that NESTs have not contributed to developing the students' language skills (J.-W. Lee, 1996; G.-P. Park, 1999).

It has been documented that shortcomings in NESTs can interfere with EFL learning and teaching. Many university EFL programs that have relied on NESTs to develop the students' language skills have shown signs of faltering (Ju, 2002). Some Korean educators and scholars have accounted for the students' low proficiency in English with a viewpoint that NESTs cannot teach (J.-W. Lee, 1996; G.-P. Park, 1999). NESTs have been accused of unsuccessful EFL education on the grounds that language teachers are a highly influential factor, if not the most important factor, in achieving the success of foreign language learning in the classroom (J.-E. Park, 1997; Hong & Jung, 2006; You & Lee, 2008).

More specifically, NESTs have been blamed for (a) being unqualified; (b) using ineffective teaching methods; (c) not providing and/or working with instructional content befitting the students' ability and needs; (d) having negative attitudes toward the students and Korean colleagues; (e) showing little appreciation of Korean language and culture; (f) being stubborn; and (g) refusing to cooperate with Korean administrators (e.g., Kim & Jeong, 2008; H.-J. Lee, 2001; Lee & Dash, 2003; Lee & Im, 2005; J.-K. Park, 1999).

These alleged shortcomings seem to be interconnected. This is because NESTs' knowledge and understanding can influence their effectiveness as language teachers (B. Yoo, 1999) as much as their commitment to and attitudes toward teaching (H.-J. Lee, 2001). The overall impression of NESTs in and outside the classroom has not been favorable, as pointed out by J.-K. Park (1999):

> There have been formal and informal reports about the educational, socio-political, legal, and socio-cultural concerns and issues [that are] raised in and out of the classroom settings between these foreign guests and the different Korean host groups such as students, teachers, school administrators, and community members. (p. 15)

Some Korean educators and scholars have been skeptical and even apprehensive about the continued reliance on NESTs. Their discomfort was understandable when their expectations of seeing dramatic improvement in students' English conversation ability had not been met, in spite of substantial investments in EFL programs (Ju, 2002). As a reflection of students' low proficiency in English, the NESTs' involvement in EFL education has not been seen as totally satisfactory (H.-J. Lee, 2001). Based on the perceived ineffectiveness of NESTs as language teachers, B. S. Chang (1997) put forth that the role of NESTs in EFL education should be questioned and reassessed.

There have been attempts to gauge the NESTs' effectiveness from the students' perspectives with mixed results. Such attempts have an important place in education research considering that students are the ultimate beneficiaries of the educational services offered (Lee & Kim, 2002). Nevertheless, issues related to the students' value judgments can make it difficult for them to be reliable sources of information and informed opinions. For example, NESTs' pedagogical philosophies and practices may not be fully known to students if they had only one or two EFL classes taught by NESTs (H.-J. Lee, 2001; C. Y. Shin, 2011a).

The suggestion to reevaluate the NESTs' role in EFL education also has to do, in part, with confirmation from the academic community that Korean faculty members can do a better job of teaching English to Korean students than NESTs. A study was conducted by administering a set of English tests to students in classes taught separately by Korean faculty members and NESTs (S. Kim, 1998). When test results of the students were compared, the study indicated that the students taught by Korean faculty members outperformed the students taught by NESTs.

The findings obtained in the study (S. Kim, 1998) were hardly conclusive even though it has been frequently cited as evidence of the pedagogical superiority of the Korean faculty. They were inconclusive because there was not any incentive or any particular reason for NESTs to teach their students in the manner that the students could perform well on the tests administered, either written or verbal. In contrast, Korean faculty members might have been more conscious of teaching to the test as they had been educated and conducted their teaching chiefly in a test-oriented environment. The study could have generated quite a different outcome if improvement in overall communicative ability of the students were assessed instead. A question has to be asked regarding how much improvement could be realistically

expected of students after only one semester of learning (I.-D. Kim, 2000; G.-P. Park, 1999), regardless of who taught them and how well.

Among those who have questioned the NESTs' role and their continued presence at Korean universities, some have held a view that NESTs are being kept merely as 'props' or 'status symbols' (H.-J. Lee, 2001). Foreigners with a pale complexion on university campus are thought to symbolize renowned academicians from the Western world, and it could explain preference for Caucasians over darker-skinned applicants at post-secondary institutions (Kim & Jeong, 2008; J.-K. Park, 1997, 1999). There may have been a mindset that foreign faculty members on campus represent to the public that tertiary institutions are both internationalized and ready to offer an education geared toward success in the global village. The mindset also might have induced many Korean tertiary institutions to invest heavily in the recruitment and retention of NESTs for the sake of keeping their image of being at the forefront in the eyes of the public. The view that NESTs play the role of "window dressing" is recognized among NESTs too, as evident in the study done by S.-R. Lee (2011).

The dim view of NESTs at Korean universities may prove unhealthy since their perceived roles influence how they conduct themselves in and outside the classroom. Depending on the teacher's perceptions of his/her roles and responsibilities, their instructional approach and classroom management behavior can change (Burns & Olson, 1989; Nunan, 1995; Richards, 1995; Tajino & Tajino, 2000). To examine NESTs' thoughts on their ability to teach EFL and develop the students' language skills, two questionnaire items were prepared for the present study (Items 16 and 35).

Additionally, students' attitudes toward and expectations of the teacher can also affect how he/she approaches teaching and handles classroom management (Christison & Krahnke, 1986; M. Li, 2003; McCargar, 1993). After all, teaching does not happen in a vacuum but is largely context-dependent (M. Li, 2003). In essence, the perceptions, attitudes, and expectations of different stakeholders involved in EFL education can influence and shape how NESTs carry themselves and conduct their classes.

Also, the environment in which NESTs have taught can impact how they carry out their responsibilities of teaching. If NESTs are asked to do their job in an environment that keeps them from doing their job well or that fails to reflect their needs in their professional capacity, then they might not perform as well as they otherwise could (Ahn & Dickey, 1999; Breen, 1998; Y.-S. Choi, 2008; O'Donnell, 2006; K. J. Kim, 2006; S.-R. Lee, 2007; Won, Lee, & Jeong, 2009). C. Y. Shin (2011b) recommended that Korean administrators and supervisors help create and foster an environment conducive to language learning and teaching as follows:

> [Local] administrators and supervisors should take heed of the NESTs' input and strive to work with the teachers toward providing the very best education that our students deserve. After all, it is largely incumbent on the school management to identify and remove any obstacles to teaching, obstacles which might dampen the teachers' enthusiasm and/or hinder them from fully focusing on their primary task, i.e., to develop our students' language skills. (C. Y. Shin, 2011b, p. 196)

Although the EFL learning and teaching environment in higher education has not necessarily been hostile to NESTs in particular, it has not been perfectly aligned with their teaching, either. EFL education at Korean universities has not undergone fundamental changes since the 1990s, even though there were several noticeable changes made in university EFL curriculums, such as the addition of English conversation classes. However, in the whole scheme of EFL education, it appears that the system has not restructured significantly enough to accommodate NESTs' teaching since NESTs began assuming a prominent role.

Not only did most Korean universities rush into hiring unqualified NESTs to teach in their EFL programs but many programs were also put together in a hurry to make use of NESTs (H.-J. Lee, 2001). Implementation of EFL programs staffed by NESTs took place with little prospect of appropriate measures being taken to provide a productive environment for the teachers. Objectives for EFL courses have not evolved in line with NESTs' teaching ability and expectations (H.-J. Lee, 2001). Since university EFL classes have been designed and operated mostly by Korean faculty members whose academic background lie in English literature or linguistics, course objectives and settings are not in line with pedagogical approaches, methods, and materials with which NESTs are familiar and comfortable (O. Kwon, 2000).

Expecting NESTs to enhance the students' communicative skills without having provided a suitable environment for them to do so is akin to expecting them to perform miracles. In this regard, criticisms on the NESTs' capacity in relation to low communicative competence of students are not wholly deserved (You & Lee, 2008). The opinion that NESTs are liable for the students' low proficiency in English seems to be primarily based on the observation that a growing body of NESTs have not contributed to alleviating the lingering problem of low communicative competence.

If the EFL education system has not improved significantly or proven to be more conducive to the enhancement of the students' communicative competence, it might be unfair to single out NESTs and place blame on them for ineffective EFL education. Instead of focusing on NESTs, a balanced and holistic examination of various aspects of EFL learning and teaching may be sensible. Although NESTs have been recruited to converse with students, they can be a great asset to help identify and address areas of improvement in the system as valuable partners (J.-K. Park, 1999).

2.2.3 Teaching Styles

NESTs' teaching is not perfectly suited to students' EFL learning. Students have grown accustomed to lecture-oriented methods since typical teaching styles (used by Korean teachers of English in the mainstream school system) have evolved around knowledge dissemination. Thus, most students would naturally come to their EFL classes in expectation of seeing NESTs follow suit (K. J. Kim, 2006), as described below:

> [Korean university EFL] students expect their [native English-speaking] teachers to talk most and lead the class…, while students remain silent and take notes waiting for the teacher to deliver lectures in exact accordance with the course syllabus. (K. J. Kim, 2006, p. 38)

However, NESTs have been presented no reason to conform to the conventional standards of teaching with which the students are familiar. NESTs believe strongly that dialogical learning is a pedagogical cornerstone; therefore, they will promote discussion in the classroom (Ryu, Hwang, Nam, & Lee, 2006). Small group discussion is immensely popular, for example (Lee & Dash, 2003). The NESTs' constant and heavy reliance on discussion may have elicited an adverse effect (Lee & Dash, 2003):

> … [There existed] native English speaking teachers' obsession with the group-, debate- and discussion-type or interactive teaching styles that Korean students did not find meaningful or relevant to their learning. These teaching techniques, if used sparingly and properly, could be very effective in developing students' language competence, but the Korean students could not accept them being used as major teaching methods. (p. 110)

Lee and Dash (2003) do not seem to claim that NESTs' teaching is inherently faulty. On the contrary, their study indicates that the utilization of various interaction patterns can be beneficial to the students' language learning (see Item 11). However, NESTs' teaching can be problematic if they overuse interaction patterns that the students do not find meaningful or relevant. On this account, NESTs should refrain from over-utilizing unfamiliar interaction patterns. It is possible that students consider various activities and interaction patterns pointless and irrelevant because they have not grown familiar with the NESTs' ways of teaching (C. Y. Shin, 2011a).

NESTs' teaching may produce unwanted influences on students (S.-R. Lee, 2011; Lee & Dash, 2003; Miller, 2001; Yom, 1997). When NESTs impose their teaching methods on students repeatedly, students can feel coerced to "obey the teachers['] commands" against their will and find the teachers' incessant demands "intolerable" (Lee & Dash, 2003, p. 111). NESTs can virtually repel the students and induce resistance from the students (S.-R. Lee, 2011) by insisting on pedagogical methods based on their 'culture-centric' concepts (Han, 2005a).

Even a sense of frustration and hostility might be evoked in individual students (Y. Kim, 2004), especially "when they feel pressured to perform seemingly meaningless, irrelevant and stressful activities on a regular basis" (C. Y. Shin, 2011a, p. 100). Pent-up frustration could lead to unhealthy behavior of the students in the classroom (C. Y. Shin, 2011a), distracting them from language learning (J.-E. Park, 1997). Depending on individual students' personalities as well as teacher character and classroom management styles, students could act up, stop responding to NESTs' instructions, or conduct themselves in another manner unbecoming to the students (C. Y. Shin, 2011a). Lee and Dash (2003) described how some students behaved in classes where there was a mismatch between the students' learning and NESTs' teaching.

> In a class where such a mismatch exists, the students tend to be bored and inattentive, show poor performance on tests, get discouraged about the course contents, and may conclude that they are not good at the subjects of the course and give up the idea of learning further. (p. 102)

An important distinction to be made here rests in that the issue is not about whether or not NESTs' teaching materials and methods are intrinsically flawed; rather, about how pedagogically compatible NESTs' teaching practices are with students' learning in the educational context. NESTs' teaching could be perceived ineffective by students and Korean EFL educators because the educational context or culture of the host country largely dictates desirable teaching practices (Y. Kim, 2004).

Students' perspectives on EFL learning and teaching can determine whether NESTs are effective as language teachers or not (Gress & Ilon, 2009). The Korean educational culture forms "the values, beliefs, attitudes and even the perceptions of" students, all of which can in turn influence "what they see as 'natural' or 'normal'" (Williams, 2005, p. 24). In other words, the educational context of the host country largely dictates preferable teaching practices. A successful teaching approach in one context (e.g., in an English-speaking country) may not work well in another context (e.g., in Korea and neighboring countries) (Y. Kim, 2004; M. Li, 2002).

When base expectations held by students are violated by NESTs, it can be perceived as "a demonstration of incompetence" in the teachers (Gress & Ilon, 2009, p. 190). The students could come to the conclusion that NESTs' teaching is not carefully planned and delivered (Lee, 1999), as observed by K. J. Kim (2006):

> Furthermore, the Korean students might think that native-speaking teachers' emphasis on students' spontaneous participation… and small group work, along with neglection [*sic*] of students' feelings … indicated disorganization and a lack of teaching structure. (pp. 38-39)

Not only does pedagogical incompatibility potentially lead to dissatisfaction among students (S.-R. Lee, 2011; Lee & Dash, 2003; Miller, 2001; J.-E. Park, 1997; C. Y. Shin, 2011a; Yom, 1997) but it may also cause discomfort in NESTs (Y. Kim, 2004; Lee & Dash, 2003). NESTs, especially inexperienced teachers, may be prone to annoyance when students remain unresponsive and seemingly indifferent to the teacher's invitation to take an active role in the classroom (J.-K. Park, 1999). NESTs might even become "overtly critical of their students" (Lee & Dash, 2003, p. 102) and blame them for not making an effort to learn EFL.

Pedagogical misalignment can dispirit NESTs and stop them from striving to create and foster an atmosphere conducive to EFL learning and teaching (Y. S. Kim, as cited in Choi, 2008), jeopardizing the chance of achieving desirable educational outcomes (Kumaravadivelu, 1991). Hence, it is crucial to identify what lies behind the misalignment, and take appropriate measures to narrow the gap between students' learning and NESTs' teaching (Nunan, 1988; Klopf, 1992).

Some recommendations have been made on how NESTs should carry themselves. NESTs should be understanding of students and take on a caring role in the classroom. Lee and Kim (2002) made the following point: The students are heavily "concerned with the way they are treated when being taught" because the ego of the "students … is fragile and their anxiety level … is higher [in EFL classes] even at the university level" (p. 570). NESTs need to address what concerns the students. Students with a weak or moderate language ego need to feel safe enough to use the target language (Brown, 2002).

NESTs should have empathy and a caring attitude for their students: "What students seek in English classrooms [*sic*] are understanding, advice, guidance, and attention on the part of the instructors" (Lee & Kim, 2002, p. 570). A caring attitude or agreeable personality of NESTs can affect English learning and teaching positively (H.-J. Lee, 2001). According to K. J. Kim (2006), teacher personality is the most important factor in predicting the success of language learning and teaching in consideration of various characteristics, such as teacher qualification, professional ethics, and classroom management skills.

NESTs' demeanor can also play a significant role. According to Han (2005a), a touch of humanity from NESTs is deeply appreciated by students: "Korean learners tend to value the teacher's touch of humanity more than the teacher's knowledge" (p. 204). Some signs of humanity expected of NESTs are as follows: (a) showing (but not necessarily verbally expressing) affection, encouragement, and compassion toward students; (b) being understanding of learning difficulties; (c) having patience with slow learners; and (d) offering students assistance and consultations after class (Han, 2005a).

Since the literature does not fully reveal the nature of interaction between NESTs and students inside and outside the classroom, it is not clear whether NESTs show humanity as described by Han (2005a). It would be interesting to find out how NESTs display their humanity and how students perceive NESTs' demeanor in and outside the classroom. A questionnaire item was prepared for this study to examine NESTs' thoughts on whether extra help should be provided to students in need (Item 32).

2.2.4 Perceptions and Perspectives

It has been recognized that cognitive dimensions do influence how language teachers plan, execute, and assess their classroom practices; and, thereby, impact the nature of language education (Freeman, 1989; Johnson, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Nunan, 1990; Williams & Burden, 1997). A growing body of research has focused attention in the past few decades on the teachers' cognitive elements that underlie and govern their classroom practices to ascertain the true nature of language education instead of deriving meaning directly from their classroom behavior (Calderhead, 1996; Carter, 1990; Chou, 2003; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 1999). In line with emphasis on cognitive dimensions of language teachers, studies have been carried out in education research to explore their perceptions and perspectives.

Korean educators and scholars have also conducted studies addressing cognitive dimensions of NESTs working at Korean universities. However, many studies have been geared to assess the effectiveness of one or more EFL programs (I.-D. Kim, 2000; K. J. Kim, 2006). As a result, NESTs' thoughts have been explored on a rather wide range of issues that are loosely related; however, they have not been examined closely enough, making in-depth coverage of their real concerns virtually impossible (I.-D. Kim, 2000; K. J. Kim, 2006).

While the coverage of diverse issues pertinent to NESTs and their teaching environment has yielded worthwhile findings, its downfall is that it has resulted in an

overly simplistic treatment of complex issues (Choi, 2008; Hong & Jung, 2006). According to C. Y. Shin (2010a), the lack of depth in the studies has stopped real insights from coming into focus while deep insights into what affects and concerns NESTs can help Korean faculty members and administrators in their working with NESTs.

> An in-depth account of concerns these [native English-speaking] teachers might have about teaching Korean students, performing teaching-related duties, and working with Korean teaching and administrative staff members is scarcely provided. This shortcoming inevitably forces Koreans involved in running English programs to depend [solely] on their own intuitions and experience in interacting with and supervising … [NESTs], as opposed to relying on concrete understanding of the teachers' specific needs and wants in their professional capacity. (C. Y. Shin, 2010a, p. 148)

The lack of clear insights into what concerns NESTs can lead to misunderstandings between Korean faculty members involved in EFL education and NESTs, and tensions between the two parties may become heightened. NESTs could inadvertently come into conflict with Korean EFL educators and administrators, as put forth below:

> Our understanding of what these [native English-speaking] teachers think of their teaching duties and other job-related tasks is shallow at best. Because little is known about what aspects of their work please or trouble them, Korean colleagues, supervisors and administrators may find themselves being baffled at times as to what might have driven NESTs to express dissent or refuse to cooperate. (C. Y. Shin, 2011b, p. 178)

A thorough understanding of NESTs and their realities can help address and resolve undesirable situations stemming from differences in cultures and/or interpersonal communication approaches. It can also help anticipate and prevent such situations. However, only a relatively small number of studies on NESTs have given full attention pertaining to one or a few related issues. For example, the following topics have been investigated: class size (C. Y. Shin, 2011a); multimedia use (Shin, Kang, & Kim, 2010); stresses and strains (Won, Lee, & Jeong, 2008); and teaching-related administrative practices (C. Y. Shin, 2010a, 2011b).

When it comes to NESTs' perspectives, a paucity of research is even more acutely felt. Scant attention has been given to exploration of their perspectives on students and university EFL education (C. Y. Shin, 2011a). There are conspicuously limited studies that have come close to examining NESTs' perspectives on students and their learning. For example, Chang's study (2004) set out to explore NESTs' perspectives on two issues: the constraints involved in teaching students and strategies adopted by NESTs to overcome the constraints. For another example, Won, Lee and Jeong (2008) touched upon NESTs' perspectives while evaluating the degree of various work-related stress factors encountered.

Considering that teacher beliefs and values can have a major effect on how teaching is conducted and how teachers work with students (Pajares, 1992; Williams & Burden, 1997), it is troublesome that the picture provided in the literature is sketchy

and shows only glimpses of NESTs' perspectives on EFL education and its stakeholders. In this light, research is warranted to gain a more in-depth understanding of NESTs' perspectives. By exploring NESTs' perspectives on students' EFL learning, the present study addresses an important area that has called for attention.

2.3 Korean University Students' English Learning

How NESTs think of students' learning can influence how they conduct EFL classes. Here is an example. As Korean students have been known to be visual learners (Lee & Dash, 2003; C. Park, 1997, 2002; Reid, 1987), C. Park (1997, 2002) recommended that English teachers make active use of realia and visual materials such as pictures, charts, and maps in the classroom. NESTs' decisions to take advantage of visual aids or not can affect the effectiveness of EFL learning and teaching since having low-frequency words and key lesson content written down on the board (i.e., blackboard or whiteboard) may enhance students' understanding of the teacher instructions, explanations, and questions. A questionnaire item was prepared to examine NESTs' thoughts on students being visual learners (Item 10).

2.3.1 Motivation for Learning English

Students generally study English to meet social demand, such as a need to prepare themselves for employment upon graduation or, more specifically, to do well on standardized English tests, such as TOEIC and TOEFL (Chong & Kim, 2001; H.-J. Lee, 2001; Lee & Im, 2005; Lim, 2001; Suh, 2000). The current emphasis on such tests may be abnormal (G. Y. Park, 2004), but many students seem to have one or more standardized tests at the top of their priority list for studying English, while the rest of them are not entirely free from pressure of the tests.

Standardized English tests could have beneficial effects. O. Kwon (2000) put forward that "development in language assessment (with such tests as TOEIC, TOEFL, and TEPS) will provide a positive washback effect on English education" (p. 80). According to him, increased interest in language skill assessment can lead to skill development. However, it is also possible that the tests could develop more of students' test tasking strategies rather than their language skills (Y. J. Lee, 2000).

Based on the recognition that scores on standardized English tests do not necessarily correlate with test takers' communicative competence, employers in Korea started demanding job applicants to take an accompanying speaking test, such as the TOEIC speaking test, and submit its score as well (J. Y. Park, 2011). Moreover, moving away from reliance on the tests, tourism and hospitality-related companies began to interview prospective employees to assess their conversational skills (Kim & Jeong, 2008). Students are concerned with different means of English assessment.

While preparation for English assessment is the top reason for many students' English studies, there are other reasons for students to study English (Jung, 2011). Some students want to be better prepared for their major area of study and their future careers (Suh, 2000), especially if they project a heavy use of English in their chosen field of study, such as English language and literature, nursing, and international business. Others want to prepare for studying or working abroad when

they complete their undergraduate study (Suh, 2000).

Then, there are students who want to study English to be able to interact with English speakers (Chong & Kim, 2001). These students also like to learn about the cultures of English-speaking people, such as different ways of thinking and negotiating (Lee & Im, 2005; Lim, 2001; Suh, 2000). Students who have a relatively high level of proficiency in English are also interested in learning about different cultures (Han, 2005a). Since intercultural competence is required for successful personal interaction and business dealings with people within the global village, it is only reasonable that students aspire to learn how foreigners see, interpret, and respond to the world (Han, 2005a).

Motivational reasons found in the aforementioned studies need to be understood carefully in context. In the studies, students were asked to either choose the top motivational factor or rank several motivational factors specified in surveys, for example, as conducted by Chong and Kim (2001) and Suh (2000). While findings obtained this way are helpful, they should be interpreted with caution. This is largely because it is possible that several motivational factors might come into play for individual students concurrently.

In addition, the motivation levels of students can change over time (Jung, 2011). According to Jung (2011), the level of motivation is relatively high in the students' first year but declines in their second and third years. However, it begins to pick up again in the second term of the third year. It remains high throughout their final year as they prepare themselves for employment. With regard to the students' motivation level, there seems to be a gender difference. Female students tend to have a higher level of motivation to learn English than male students in general (Jung, 2011).

Relatedly, there may be a gender difference in students' EFL learning. Male students are not as motivated as female students (Jung, 2011). However, male students have a higher level of self-efficacy, and female students have a higher degree of anxiety (Jung, 2011). In other words, male students may be relatively self-assured while female students feel self-conscious in EFL classes. The findings indicate that there are some gender differences in terms of the students' motivation levels and affective states. Two questionnaire items were prepared dealing with student gender differences from NESTs' perspectives (Items 24 and 25).

Of significant note, a great number of students have appeared to have no clear reason for studying English, as evident in surveys where a large proportion of students chose not to express their reason (Chong & Kim, 2001; Suh, 2000). For these students, English could have been irrelevant in their lives (Lee & Im, 2005). It is possible that a number of students have no interest. The possibility is ironic when students generally acknowledge that English is an important language to learn (C. H. Kim, 1995).

There are students who are not motivated to learn EFL or who have lost interest in EFL learning (Jung, 2011; J. Y. Park, 2011). The literature reviewed does not show clear evidence of these students being recognized. It appears as if examination of EFL learning and teaching has been conducted with disregard of students' motivation. Also, the literature has not fully addressed the needs and expectations of less

motivated students. Additionally, instructional suggestions are not available that can help motivate these students and engage them in EFL learning.

EFL learning has become associated with stress resulting in students' very low interest in learning it (J. Y. Park, 2011) and their aversion to work with it (Jung, 2011). According to J. Y. Park (2011), it will not be easy for NESTs to raise students' interest in learning EFL once they have lost it. A questionnaire item was prepared to examine NESTs' perspectives on their awareness of student needs (Item 20).

Regardless of how motivated or unmotivated students are, they are known to do what they are asked of in EFL classes (Suh, 2000). However, it appears doubtful that those who are not highly motivated will put in their best work. Two questionnaire items were prepared to explore the teachers' thoughts on students' motivation to learn English for communicative purposes (Items 12 and 34).

2.3.2 Language Knowledge and Skills

Students have been found to have a relatively strong foundation of grammar (H.-J. Lee, 2001). A questionnaire item was prepared to examine NESTs' thoughts on the students' grammar knowledge (Item 2). Despite students' grammar knowledge, they usually have trouble putting their knowledge to use. In other words, students have trouble expressing themselves properly even though they can explain the rules of English (Han, 2005a). It is not unusual. Students from neighboring countries, such as Taiwan, experience a similar difficulty (Han, 2005a). Thus, despite their grammar knowledge, students are generally known to have a low level of proficiency.

Students' productive skills are poorly developed in general (Lee & Im, 2005; Miller, 2001; Suh, 2000). Their underdeveloped productive skills are linked to how CSAT has traditionally placed a heavy emphasis on receptive skills (S.-R. Lee, 2011). Students' speaking is found to be the weakest of skills even though 'speaking' is on top of their list of desirable skills to acquire (with listening, reading, and writing skills following in order) (Lee & Im, 2005; Lim, 2001). Y. J. Lee (2000) found it worrisome that students have to learn how to use spoken greetings in their university English classes. The recent addition of a speaking requirement to TOEIC is expected to have increased students' interest in developing their speaking skills as they are "eager to boost their scores to appear more attractive to recruiters" (Hart, 2006, p. 340).

While speaking skills are given some attention in school as an influence of CLT, writing skills are utterly ignored in the formal school system (O. Kwon, 2000). In the study conducted by Lim (2001), students' writing skills are perceived to be the weakest. What is interesting is that students are not interested in developing writing skills (Lim, 2001), suggesting that they have a tendency to place minimal value upon the importance of writing skills and neglect to develop them.

This finding is unsettling because students generally take a view that university EFL education should enhance their overall communicative ability (Lee & Im, 2005). Students express a preference for the whole language approach that embraces a balanced development of the four macro language skills (i.e., speaking, listening, writing, and reading), as opposed to harnessing a specific skill (Lee & Im, 2005; Lim,

2001). The whole language approach has been embraced in principle, but not adopted in actuality. In other words, students have little interest in developing different language skills together in an integrated manner. O. Kwon (2000) raised an interesting point:

> Communicative competence has often been misconstrued in the 90's to mean only 'oral/aural competence'. Koreans will realize that global ELT scholars have never intended such a limitation, and that a lack of English literacy and composition skills would undermine the 'English-as-an-international-language effort'. (p. 80)

As stated by O. Kwon (2000), the whole language approach should have been promoted and pursued to enhance students' communicative competence (H.-J. Lee, 2001). For example, the concurrent development of reading and writing skills can help improve the students' understanding of language structures. The macro language skills are complementary in nature (Pica, 1994). Some Korean EFL educators still believe that a particular language skill (e.g., reading) is more important (G. Y. Park, 2004), and think that language skills should be developed separately. A questionnaire item was prepared to check NESTs' thoughts on the whole language approach (Item 6).

Since the development of reading proficiency has been the most emphasized at the secondary level of education, reading skills have been perceived to be the strongest by students (Lee & Im, 2005). Students continue giving the most attention to reading skill development (Suh, 2000). As a remnant of grammar translation method that had been the primary English teaching approach prior to the 1990s, close reading (i.e., careful reading) of text has been promoted widely. Students tend to do close reading automatically, regardless of what the given task calls for (O'Donnell, 2006).

Another remnant of grammar translation method has been that students remain overly concerned with meaning of individual words. Most students are inclined to break apart and translate the language input provided, and also formulate what they want to convey first in Korean and then translate it into English before articulating themselves (Song, 1994; You & Lee, 2008). While this translation and back-translation can be necessary in the beginning of foreign/second language acquisition to some extent, this way of comprehending and articulating English does prove to be optimal, especially if it persists over time.

2.3.3 Learner Attitudes and Study Habits

When students are asked to account for their proficiency in English (or the lack thereof), they are inclined to blame themselves. Students believe that their shortcomings have hindered them from being successful EFL learners. They attribute the relatively low level of proficiency to their not having: (a) a great deal of industry; (b) know-how for language study; (c) basics of English grammar; and (d) interest in learning English (in decreasing order) (Kim, Shin, Yang, & Kim, 1999). The first three reasons are related to their learning behaviors and knowledge base, whereas the last reason has to do with their motivation. It would be interesting to find out when and how students lost their interest.

In other words, regardless of their proficiency in English, students tend to blame themselves for their lack of zeal and effort to learn English (Lee & Im, 2005; Lim, 2001; Shin, Kim, Yang, & Kim, 1997; Suh, 2000). Although this tendency can be considered as a self-reflective criticism, it can also be interpreted that the students underestimate themselves as learners when low self-efficacy can interfere with their language learning (Suh, 2000).

Students have been recognized in literature, who feel that they do not have basics or language skills needed to keep up with other students in their EFL classes (Suh, 2000). Students whose English knowledge and proficiency are not comparable to other students are at a disadvantage if they feel out of place taking an active role in EFL classes. Recommendations have been made, including level-placement of students according to level of proficiency, development of course materials suitable for them, and tailoring lessons to meet their specific needs (J. Y. Park, 2011; Suh, 2000).

Most students are known to place special meaning in attending class while leaving the impression that they do not care for actual learning very much (You & Lee, 2008). For example, some students are in the habit of coming to class without their stationery and textbook, taking a passive role, and falling asleep (You & Lee, 2008). The students' behaviors could be interpreted as a sign of disrespect for the NEST and disinterest in his/her teaching (even though it is not salient to draw conclusions solely based on their behaviors). A questionnaire item was prepared to examine NESTs thoughts on whether students take ownership over their learning (Item 4).

Most students are also known to spend little time outside the classroom studying EFL (H.-J. Lee, 2001). A suggestion has been made that NESTs should give more homework so that students can have something to work with outside the classroom (H.-J. Lee, 2001). A questionnaire item was prepared to explore NESTs' thoughts on homework assignment (Item 26). Although homework can help students review and preview lesson materials, the merit of assigning it for the sake of giving them something to do on their own is questionable. It would be revealing to gain an understanding of NESTs' thoughts on students' study habits and find out how NESTs address their habits.

2.3.4 Learner Needs and Expectations

The students generally have a low level of confidence in using English (Miller, 2001; You & Lee, 2008). The root cause underlying the low level of confidence is that students have had no opportunities to practice English in and outside the classroom (C.-Y. Shin, 2011b). According to J.-K. Park (1999), students' "exposure to English is so limited that the knowledge and skills the students acquire in their classrooms cannot be reinforced nor retained" (p. 5). A questionnaire item was prepared to examine NESTs' thoughts on students' exposure to English (Item 5).

The students have psychological needs related to their confidence level. When students' proficiency in English is low (Kim & Jeong, 2008) and when their confidence is low (Miller, 2001; You & Lee, 2008), there is a pressing need for them to understand NESTs and be understood. It is understandable that students do not want to feel left out or completely lost in the classroom.

Considering that students have minimal exposure to NESTs as English teachers (or foreigners in the real world) (Miller, 2001), they are unfamiliar with NESTs and their teaching. A questionnaire item was prepared to examine NESTs' thoughts on student exposure to English (Item 5). Thus, students do not know what to expect of NESTs and how to work with them. Two questionnaire items were prepared to address NESTs' perspectives on student readiness for EFL classes taught by NESTs (Items 30 and 33).

Students' not knowing how to interact with NESTs is not optimal since teacher-student interaction is vital in language classes (Long, 1981; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987; Seliger, 1977). When students' emotional needs are overlooked, there might well be negative consequences. For example, anxiety in students can increase causing their withdrawal from class and hindering CLT (K. J. Kim, 2006; J. Y. Park, 2011).

H.-J. Lee (2001) classified students in mixed-level classes into three groups according to proficiency level. According to her study, low-level students often find NESTs' teaching satisfactory for the following reasons: (a) NESTs usually make English classes more fun and stimulating than Korean faculty members; and (b) NESTs make class work less burdensome by assigning less homework. Surprisingly, mid-level students are not satisfied with NESTs and their teaching in general because their expectations are not met, possibly in comparison to high-level students who have better interaction with NESTs. High-level students' satisfaction varies significantly, depending on how well-prepared and passionate NESTs are. Thus, quality of teaching became an important aspect for high-level students who can understand NESTs and interact with them; whereas NEST's 'touch of humanity' takes a greater importance for low-level and mid-level students.

In addition to inadequate exposure to real English usage, another explanation for the lack of confidence in students has to do with heavy emphasis on CSAT and other standardized English tests. This overemphasis on 'exam English' has interfered with students' acquisition of language skills required for real communication (Han, 2005b). Not only have the tests been major hindrances to EFL education but they have also influenced how students approach learning the language. Students do not study to learn to use EFL as they are used to studying English to perform well on written tests. For many students, English education has been a means of ensuring access to graduate study and employment (S. Kim, 1998).

Students' interest in test scores (or their final grade) in EFL classes appear to be excessive while their attention to the actual learning process is scant and hence troubling (S.-R. Lee, 2011). A questionnaire item was prepared to address NESTs' thoughts on students' fixation with their grade (Item 21). Unless the focus of EFL education can be shifted to reflect the fact that English is a language in use, rather than an academic subject, the students' perception of English as a subject will continue to remain as a barrier to learning English as a tool for communication (Finch, 2003; Hong & Jung, 2006).

Exam-oriented English education seems to have done more harm than good as it has discouraged students from making an effort to learn English as a language (C. Y.

Shin, 2011b), while their level of proficiency is relatively low. Also, students have not enjoyed much success in the past, in terms of communicative competence, despite a great deal of time and effort spent studying the language (C. Y. Shin, 2011b). A recommendation made by C. Y. Shin (2011a) is that a copious opportunity should be provided to students to learn English as a means of communication as follows:

> Although it is naïve to believe that all students can successfully become fluent and acquire intercultural competence upon graduation and that each and every one of them will regularly use English after graduation, their educational prerogatives should however be, at the tertiary level of education, to have an adequate opportunity to learn and improve their English skills to an extent which they can successfully communicate with people from around the world. (p. 97)

There has been an expectation in students of NESTs to deal with their errors. In other words, students expect to have their errors identified and corrected so that they can improve their linguistic (and cultural) knowledge (K. J. Kim, 2006): "The Korean [university] students generally" expect "their English teachers to point out student errors and correct them" (p. 39). This particular expectation also exists in many other Asian students (Evans, 1997; McCargar, 1993).

In this regard, there seems to be a gender difference. According to K. J. Kim (2006), female students feel more strongly about the expectation than male students. In other words, female students may like to see that NESTs identify student errors and offer feedback, possibly because they are motivated to learn English and perform well.

However, it might be the case that NESTs have not met the particular expectation of the students. NESTs are generally known to tolerate learner mistakes and errors and leave them uncorrected (Medgyes, 1994). For example, NESTs do not provide error correction: NESTs seem "to consider that correcting student errors is not teaching, instead, they may regard it as editing in case of writing because of the students' tendency to fix their errors mindlessly based on teachers' correction" (K. J. Kim, 2006, p. 39). A reason provided by K. J. Kim (2006) seems to be that NESTs do not see the value of error correction.

There could be other reasons, as well, that can account for NESTs' reluctance to identify and correct student errors in their speaking and writing. Whatever the reasons may be, it is clear that there is a gap in expectation concerning error correction and, by extension, feedback. It would be worthwhile to find out when and why NESTs avoid dealing with student errors. A questionnaire item was prepared to examine NESTs' perspectives on error correction (Item 14). In addition, it would be beneficial to assess any influence of NESTs' proclivity to overlook student mistakes and errors on EFL learning even though this issue is beyond the scope of the present study.

Students are known to have a preference for North American accents (Lee, 2005) or, more specifically, for U.S. English dialect (Kim & Jeong, 2008). This preference is not desirable as insisting on American or British English as standards is not appropriate in EFL settings (Honna & Takeshita, 2001). Two questionnaire items

were prepared to examine NESTs' perspectives on students' pronunciation ability and preference (Items 17 and 19).

About 80 percent of regular users of English are non-native English speakers (Kachru, 1996). Neither American nor British English is considered the standard by English language teaching (ELT) scholars in the world any longer, but they are merely possible varieties of English as an international language (EIL) or a lingua franca (McKay, 2002). This point is succinctly put by Han (2005a): "Standard English seems to be an arbitrary concept created by Anglo-centric ideas and focused only on a narrow version of either U.S. or U.K. English" (p. 201).

2.3.5 Culturally-Defined Student Roles

In a broad cultural frame, Confucian principles has played a considerable role "as a foundation of educational philosophy and practice" in Korea according to Han (2005a, p. 202). She supposed the following: NESTs are prone to interpret Korean students as "silent, spoon-fed recipients rather than active, responsive seekers or generators of new knowledge" (p. 202). Students' passive and silent learning may stem from role definitions in the Confucian heritage cultures: "the teachers deliver knowledge, and the students receive" (Han, 2005a, p. 202). A questionnaire item was prepared to examine NESTs' perspectives on students' general silence in the classroom (Item 15).

To enhance the effectiveness of EFL learning and teaching, it is necessary for NESTs to recognize the students' culture (Byram, 1991; Fleet, 2006; M. Li, 2003) and how their culture has impacted their learning. An awareness of the culture and culturally-defined behaviors can help NESTs conduct themselves with sensitivity. It is crucial for NESTs to have the awareness to be successful. Several implications of the student role definitions are described below.

Students are accustomed to a rigid hierarchical teacher-student relationship where the teacher is the authority figure (Oak & Martin, 2003; O'Donnell, 2006; Midgley, 2008). Therefore, students are not used to challenging the source of knowledge or being critical of knowledge imparted by the teacher (Han, 2005a). In other words, Korean students have learned to receive and embrace knowledge imparted by the teacher without challenging the source of knowledge or the knowledge itself.

In addition, students prefer a formal, structured, and instruction-based education to an informal, unstructured, and dialectics-based class (C. Park, 1997, 2002), possibly owing to their familiarity with the former. They have not been involved in presentation, debate, and speech in school (Kong, 1996; Song, 1994; You & Lee, 2008). As they have not been encouraged to take the floor without the teacher's permission in school, they do not generally voice their ideas and thoughts in the classroom until they are explicitly invited by the teacher (You & Lee, 2008). Moreover, students are reluctant to share their thoughts and opinions freely, in fear of losing face by making any linguistic mistakes or giving factually incorrect information (Jung, 2011; Song, 1994; You & Lee, 2008; see Item 23). They also tend to restrain themselves from being forthcoming because they do not want to display an appearance of showing off (Jung, 2011).

Cooperative learning has not been fostered in school. In Confucian tradition, students are supposed to study knowledge disseminated by the teacher individually (Kong, 1996; Song, 1994; You & Lee, 2008). The competitive nature of the Korean education system has not helped in this regard, which often comes down to individual class ranking based on test scores (C. Park, 1997, 2002). In other words, a rather individualistic approach to learning has been promoted in school, as opposed to a cooperative approach.

As a result, students are not adept at engaging in discussion with their classmates and interacting with one another in class (Song, 1994; You & Lee, 2008). Students are not familiar or comfortable with the pair-work and group-work frequently adopted in the classroom in English-speaking countries (C. Park, 1997, 2002; Reid, 1987). The students' presentation, debate, and speech skills are not developed. Simply put, students are not comfortable with and skilled in working together with others in the classroom.

However, students' discomfort with group activities and class discussion could be misinterpreted as their dislike for them in EFL classes taught by NESTs (H.-J. Lee, 2001). Students are flexible and can readily learn to enjoy working with their classmates and the teacher. Group projects, presentations, and study sessions being promoted in university classes can foster cooperative learning.

Students are not comfortable in expressing ideas that differ from their classmates (O'Donnell, 2006; C. Y. Shin, 2011a) and the teacher. How criticism is regarded and handled by students deserves attention. It can help explain interaction dynamics. The students generally avoid confrontation and criticism in pursuit of a harmonious relationship: "Friends … do not criticize their fellow friends. Due to the culture, it is also hard to encourage Korean students to involve in constructive criticism and open discussion in the class" (Han, 2003, ¶ 3). If students are put in a situation where they have to voice disagreement or disapprove of their classmate's opinion, they are hesitant to do so, a situation which could be misinterpreted as their unwillingness to share their thoughts or their being like-minded (C.Y. Shin, 2011a).

The manner through which praise is given by NESTs and received by students also deserves attention. Students are not used to NESTs' ways of presenting compliments verbally or with gestures (Han, 2003). NESTs' seemingly extravagant praises can startle students at first and raise suspicion in them as to the true intention (Y. Kim, 2003). It could take some time getting used to praises and unfamiliar gestures from NESTs. Questionnaire items were prepared to examine NESTs' thoughts on their ways of conducting themselves (Items 8, 9, 13, and 27).

2.4 EFL Education at Korean Universities

From the 1950s to the late 1980s, English teaching at Korean universities had aimed to develop students' reading proficiency (O. Kwon, 2000). In this regard, it had resembled English teaching at the secondary level of education (Kim, Song, Kim, Lee, & Byeon, 1993). There was no surprise that most students were unable to articulate themselves in English (Kim, Lee, Ha, & Lee, 1991), considering the lack of attention paid to the development of productive skills.

In the early 1990s, university English education expanded significantly to enhance students' communicative competence while maintaining its focus on literacy proficiency. There were some major changes, such as employment of NESTs in vast numbers. By the late 1990s, criticism was leveled at university English programs for the failure to help students achieve a high level of proficiency (C. T. Choi, 1997). The question was raised as to why the issue of low proficiency persisted despite the considerable efforts made to improve the quality of EFL teaching in Korea (Y. Choi, 2001; Kim, Lee, Ha, & Lee, 1991).

Several issues that came under attack in the late 1990s are considered below. The issues have not yet been resolved. The review of the issues can help contextualize students' learning and shed light on constraints imposed on NESTs in their professional capacity, constraints which might well have interfered with their teaching responsibility. Four issues are briefly covered below, namely class size, level placement, contact hours, and management of EFL education.

Relatively large class sizes and improper course level placement have affected university EFL education in Korea (Chin, 2002; Chong & Kim, 2001; Hong & Jung, 2006; Ju, 2002; Kim, Shin, Yang, & Kim, 1999; Koh, 2000; Lee & Im, 2005; Suh, 2000). Since meaningful teacher-student and student-student interaction plays a vital role in classes taught by NESTs (C. T. Choi, 1997; J.-E. Park, 1997; G.-P. Park, 1999; S.-O. Park, 1988; C. Y. Shin, 2011a; Yom, 1999), the two issues have had a major impact on EFL learning and teaching in the classes. Nonetheless, as lectures have been the main mode of instruction in English classes taught by Korean faculty members, it appears that a reduction in class size has not been advocated (C. Y. Shin, 2011a).

Unlike the class size matter, the issues regarding students' proficiency levels in English classes have been addressed in literature frequently. The issue has been discussed in the following contexts. It is difficult to find suitable a textbook to meet student needs and deliver lessons to satisfy student expectations when their proficiency levels varied widely (C. T. Choi; S.-W. Kim, 2001). Although level placement takes place at some universities now, it appears that level placement according to proficiency level has not been implemented in general (Kim, Lee, Ha, & Lee, 1991; J.-S. Lee, 1993). Level placement can help improve the effectiveness of university EFL education (Kim, Lee, Ha, & Lee, 1991; J.-S. Lee, 1993).

Another related concern is owing to a heavy reliance on standardized English tests as indices of general English proficiency (Gang, 1999; Kim, Song, Kim, Lee, & Byeon, 1993; S.-W. Kim, 2001). There is a viewpoint that such tests have not been designed to serve the purposes of assessing students' proficiency for level placement. Other means, such as the national college entrance exam, can be used (J.-E. Park, 1997). It is also possible to interview students individually or in group to level-place them.

Class time allotted to EFL learning and teaching has been insufficient (C. T. Choi, 1997; Lee & Im, 2005; J.-S. Lee, 1993; Y. J. Lee, 2000; G.-P. Park, 1999). In conjunction with a limited course offering, contact hours in each EFL course are not sufficient in general (Kim, Lee, Ha, & Lee, 1991; J.-S. Lee, 1993). A few contact hours per week, as in typical EFL classes, are not substantial enough even if classes meet for the duration of 12 to 14 weeks (out of a typical 16-week semester term).

J.-S. Lee (1993) stated that he had a feeling that EFL classes offered at Korean universities were chiefly to keep up the institutions' image of doing something about English education. A reason given to support his feeling was that not enough time was allotted for students to develop their language skills. While his conveyed impression might have been created by the educational context of the early 1990s, contact hours have not increased significantly. His feeling that tertiary institutions did not take EFL education seriously seems to be applicable to date.

As university EFL programs have been put together and managed entirely by Korean faculty members, it is questionable whether there is a good fit between EFL curriculums and NESTs' teaching. A questionnaire item was prepared in this regard (Item 18). Korean faculty members in English literature and language departments are often in charge of planning, organizing, managing, and evaluating EFL curriculums and classes; as such, it has taken its toll on the quality of EFL education (C. T. Choi, 1997; Kim, Lee, Ha, & Lee, 1991; J.-S. Lee, 1993; J.-E. Park, 1997). This is because Korean faculty members, whose academic background is in English literature or linguistics, are found to lack a deep understanding of or special interest in teaching English as a language (Lee & Im, 2005).

Kim, Lee, Ha, and Lee (1991) explicitly linked the EFL curriculum and course management by the people who are not specialized in language education to the stunted development of EFL teaching material and methods (for classes taught by Korean faculty members). Moreover, the manner in which EFL classes have been offered and managed does not reflect a realistic view of EFL teaching provided by NESTs. It would be of great value to explore how EFL curriculums and programs managed by Korean faculty members are perceived by NESTs. It could lay the groundwork for finding measures to align EFL education closely with NEST needs and expectations where appropriate.

2.5 Summary

This literature review has covered three topics pertinent to the NESTs' perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning: NESTs at Korean universities; students' EFL learning; and university EFL education. First, the literature on NESTs teaching students has been considered. After drawing attention to the emergence of NESTs as key players in the Korean educational landscape in the 1990s, a brief explanation has been provided on the circumstances in which a large influx of NESTs were invited to teach EFL in higher education.

The roles and impact of NESTs have been reviewed, as perceived largely by Korean EFL scholars and educators. The NESTs' merits and shortcomings documented in the literature have been highlighted, and their effectiveness as language teachers considered. A review has been carried out to see whether the students' learning and NESTs' teaching are pedagogically compatible and identify what aspects of EFL education provided with the help of NESTs underlie incompatibility.

A review of past studies has been undertaken with focus on the perceptions and perspectives of NESTs, which sheds light on their teaching in relation to students' learning. This review indicates that there is a lack of research that fully explores

NESTs' perspectives on university EFL education in general and their perspectives on students' EFL learning in particular.

Then, the review has encompassed various aspects of students' EFL learning in terms of motivation, language skills, study habits, and learner needs and expectations, as documented largely by Korean educators and scholars. In addition, the culturally-defined roles expected of students have been reviewed to further contextualize their learning.

Lastly, EFL education at Korean universities has been considered. To contextualize an environment where the students' learning takes place, a description of some key parameters in EFL education has been given pertaining to class sizes, level placement, contact hours, and program management. The review indicates that the environment where EFL education takes place can be further improved to facilitate EFL learning and teaching in higher education.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Rationale for Mixed Methods Research

Quantitative and qualitative research paradigms have different merits. Numbers yielded by quantitative methods can be quite persuasive while 'stories' obtained by qualitative methods can be more easily remembered and repeated (Gorard & Taylor, 2004). By combining different methods from the two paradigms judiciously, a researcher can take advantage of the merits that each method may offer, as supported by the claim made by Gorard and Taylor (2004): "both approaches have strengths" individually but "even greater strength can come from their appropriate combination" (p. 1). Mixing methods from the paradigms is gaining popularity in education research (Lichtman, 2011). It is referred to as mixed methods (e.g., Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003), integrated research (Creswell, 2003), or combined research (Gorard & Taylor, 2004).

There is a concern that quantitative and qualitative paradigms should not be combined for triangulation or cross-validation purposes, primarily based on a notion that "the two paradigms do not study the same phenomena" from the same perspective (Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002, p. 43). However, an appropriate mix of quantitative and qualitative data can furnish "a more coherent, rational and rigorous whole" (Gorard & Taylor, 2004, p. 4). A combination of methods from the paradigms may reflect the diverse ways of knowing and thinking about research problems (Greene & Caracelli, 2003). A combination of research methods can help achieve a greater understanding by providing a complete picture encompassing issues in question as well as people being studied (Dennis, 2012).

Specifically, naturalistic inquiry was adopted as a main mode of data collection. It was the most suitable framework for conducting the study. Walker-Gibbs (2004) put forth that the research methodology should reflect its framework. Since naturalistic inquiry mainly focuses on enhanced understanding of specific and complex human issues (Marshall, 1998), this interpretive approach was deemed well suited for probing and getting in-depth insights into perspectives of NESTs on Korean university students' EFL learning.

Naturalistic inquiry can help provide a greater understanding of the students and their EFL learning (Park, 2003). It can also help gain a better understanding of NESTs' ways of addressing students' learning and dealing with the context in which EFL education takes place. By encouraging study participants to reconstruct their experience, naturalistic inquiry presents an opportunity for them to paint reality as they see it (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993). It also allows them to paint reality the way they like "others to know of it" (Atkinson, 1998, p. 8). Either way, each account of reconstructed experience can give a rich and truthful description of reality (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Naturalistic inquiry can also reveal who NESTs are and how they project themselves as EFL teachers based on their perspectives (articulated by them and observed by the researcher). Because perspectives of people cannot be observed directly (Patton,

1980), naturalistic inquiry is of great value to gather and make sense of NESTs' perspectives. When it comes to cross-cultural and intercultural context, the approach is especially effective. This is because it can provide contextual clues (Holliday, 2007; K. Richards, 2003) and shed light on blind spots created by a cognitive bias stemming from cultural differences between the researcher and the researched (C. Y. Shin, 2014).

A self-reported questionnaire survey was accompanied by follow-up interviews and classroom observations. Dörnyei (2007) discusses the benefits of combining a questionnaire survey and follow-up interviews as follows:

> … although the questionnaire survey is a versatile technique that allows us to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short time, it also suffers from an inherent weakness: the respondents' engagement tends to be rather shallow and therefore we cannot explore complex meaning [of some results] directly with this technique…. Adding a subsequent qualitative component to the study can remedy this weakness. In a follow-up interview … we can ask the respondents to explain or illustrate the obtained patterns, thereby adding flesh to the bones. (pp. 170-171)

Along the line of reasoning given by Dörnyei (2007), quantitative and qualitative research methods were combined. Specifically, a questionnaire survey was used to capture the perspectives of a relatively large number of teachers, with comparatively little time spent on individual teachers. Qualitative methods provided deep and rich insights into the issues under investigation by exploring perspectives of several participants in depth.

Although numerical representations of NESTs' perspectives from the questionnaire could serve as points of reference for future studies, it was not the researcher's intention to seek survey results that were meant to be generalized to Korean university students' EFL learning and, by extension, NESTs' teaching. While every effort was made to ensure the validity and reliability of the survey instrument, it was not a primary concern to design and administer it in a way that could represent perspectives of all NESTs.

The usefulness of the questionnaire survey for the study was fourfold. First, individual teachers' response patterns shown in the questionnaires facilitated the process of selecting a subsample of potential NESTs to be involved in naturalistic inquiry. In consideration of the nature of the research questions and resource constraints, it was necessary to identify a small group of NESTs who could offer deep insights. Second, the questionnaire presented a chance for the prospective NESTs to preview and think about issues pertinent to the research topics well before interviews. Third, similarities and irregularities in pattern found in questionnaire results helped guide subsequent data collection. Lastly, the questionnaire survey was to serve as a source of triangulation and could help supplement naturalistic inquiry. Additional methods of data collection can generally help tackle the problem (Hramiak, 2005), and enhance the study's creditability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and trustworthiness (Golafshani, 2003). In essence, the survey was used to facilitate and support naturalistic inquiry.

3.2 Participants

Participant sampling was carried out as follows. The researcher contacted NESTs whom he knew personally and worked together to solicit their participation. Some of the NESTs, in turn, passed on the questionnaire to their colleagues at their universities and professional organization(s). For example, the researcher was told that an NEST sent a request to her colleagues in an organization that has had the largest number of NESTs as members (http://www.koreatesol.org). Initially, 29 NESTs responded to the invitation. The process of inviting NESTs was eventually repeated to elicit involvement of more NESTs.

A total of 54 questionnaires filled out by NESTs were returned via e-mail or by surface mail (see Section 3.3.1 for questionnaire preparation and administration). All NESTs chose to affiliate themselves with four-year universities. It should be noted that 2 teachers were apparently not teaching at a Korean tertiary institution at the time of study but had taught at one or more Korean universities until recently.

Due to a lack of information regarding the exact figures of NESTs working in Korea (M. Kwon, 2007), whether the teachers were a representative sample of NESTs teaching students in higher education could not be determined. There were 35 male and 19 female teachers. The age of the teachers was in the range of 26 to 64. The average age of the teachers was 39. The number of teachers in each age category is shown in Table 3.1. The largest group of the teachers belonged to the 30 to 39 age category.

Table 3.1
Number of the Teachers According to Age

Age (years old)	Male	Female	Total
20 – 29	5	7	12
30 – 39	13	7	20
40 – 49	8	3	11
50 +	9	2	11

Except for those 2 teachers previously noted, it appears that all other teachers were teaching EFL at Korean universities throughout the mainland. According to contact information provided by 35 teachers (64.8%) who expressed interest in further involvement in the study, they were teaching at 11 different universities. The teachers' geographical locations of employment covered Seoul and five provinces as follows: 9 NESTs from Seoul; 1 from Gyeonggi; 2 from Gangwon; 15 from Chungcheon; 1 from Jeonlla; and 7 from Gyeongsang. Hence, it is safe to say that the teachers' perspectives were not limited to Korean EFL students at one or few universities but encompassed EFL students at about a dozen or more universities across different geographical regions.

Almost all NESTs identified their nationality as one of the seven countries listed in the questionnaire. A teacher wrote down two countries possibly having dual citizenships (the country he wrote first was used as his nationality for data analysis). As shown in Figure 3.1, the participant pool included 2 teachers from Australia, 10 from Canada, 6 from England, 1 from New Zealand, 1 from South Africa, and 31 from the United States of America (U.S.A.). North Americans and the British made up a large portion (76%).
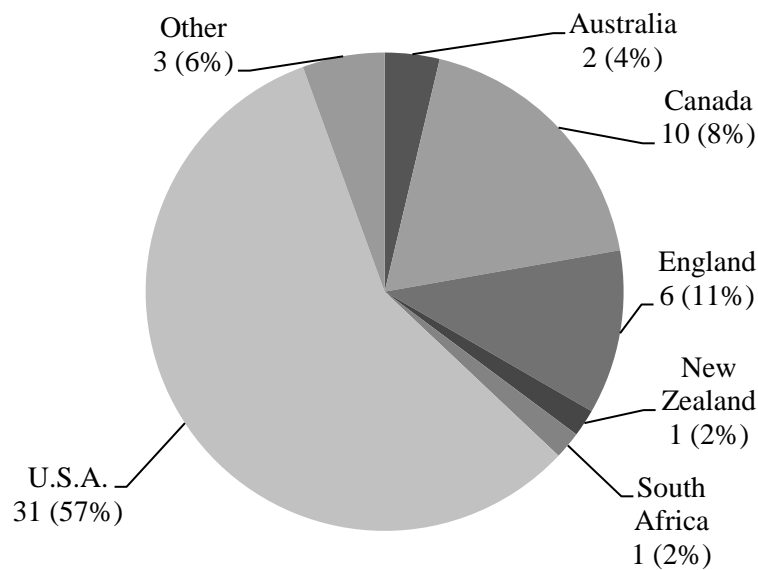
Figure 3.1. Teachers' nationalities

It should be noted that 'England' was used in the questionnaire, instead of the United Kingdom, to be in line with the public perception in Korea where Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland usually went unrecognized in discussion of English-speaking countries. It could explain why 3 teachers marked their nationality as 'others', possibly coming from Wales and Scotland (their nationality remains unknown). None of the teachers marked Ireland (or Northern Ireland).
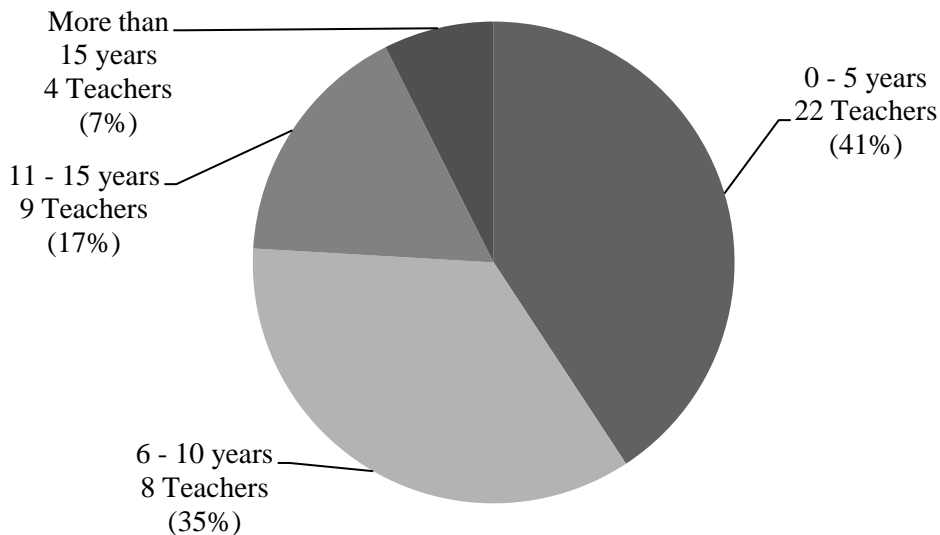
Figure 3.2. Teachers' total years of teaching

In terms of teaching experience, the teachers had an average of 8 years of teaching. The period of teaching experience was sorted into four groups: equal-or-less-than five years; between 6 and 10 years; between 11 and 15 years; and equal-or-greater-than 16 years. As shown in Figure 3.2, 22, 19, 9, and 4 teachers had taught EFL for 1 to 5, 6 to 10, 11 to 15, and more than 15 years, respectively. Out of 54 teachers, 30

had taught only in Korea with teaching experience in the range of 1 to 16 years, with an average of about 6 years. The rest of the teachers had a total experience of approximately 12 years on average and spent about half their time (47.4%) teaching elsewhere outside the country.

In the secondary phase of data collection, 35 teachers who expressed their interest for further participation in Section 2 of the questionnaire were viable for consideration. Although the researcher believed that all 35 teachers could shed light on the research topics, it was necessary to subsample owing to resource constraints. In the process of selecting a subsample of the teachers to be involved in naturalistic inquiry, the teachers' biographical information was considered, such as gender, teaching experience, age, and geographical location.

First, a relatively equal representation of gender was sought. Second, consideration was given to the teachers with a minimum of 10 year teaching experience in total and more than three years of teaching Korean university EFL students. Third, at least one teacher was to be chosen from each of the four age groups: 20 to 29; 30 to 39; 40-49; and 50 or older. Fourth, the teachers were to be sampled to cover a relatively wide range of geographical regions provided that the interview and classroom observation sites were within a three-hour driving distance.

Moreover, during the selection process, an effort was made to screen for one or two teachers whose survey responses differed from other teachers' (regardless of teaching experience and other criteria). To get a general idea of teachers' response patterns, questionnaire data (i.e., the numeric values of 1 to 5) from Section 3 were entered in a spreadsheet and color-coded for a quick visual representation of data distribution (see Appendix B). The effort was hoped to help further ensure the coverage of diverse perspectives of NESTs working at Korean universities.

In the end, a subsample of 6 NESTs were chosen for in-depth interviews and classroom observations to clarify and expand on their responses to the questionnaire. The following pseudonyms were assigned to these teachers: Aaron, Cecilia, James, Kate, Max, and Tina. Except Kate, who had three years of EFL teaching experience in Korea, all other teachers had more than 10 years of EFL/ESL teaching in and outside Korea (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2
Teachers' Profiles in the Interviews and Classroom Observations

Name*	Gender	Nationality	Age (years old)	Exp. in Korea (years)	Total Exp. (years)
Aaron	Male	U.S.A.	41	5	13
Cecilia	Female	Australia	38	6	11
James	Male	Canada	49	6	15
Kate	Female	U.S.A.	28	3	3
Max	Male	U.S.A.	51	14	20
Tina	Female	U.S.A.	39	4	12

Note. * All names are pseudonyms.

Aaron was in his early forties and from the U.S.A. He had a Master's degree in the teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) from the U.S. He had been teaching EFL in Korea for the past five years. Before he came to Korea to teach, he

taught EFL in other countries, including Japan, for a total of eight years. He had spent time learning Japanese as a second language while teaching in Japan. He preferred to work with teenagers and adults rather than children under 13 years of age. Besides his experience of working with university students during his stay in Korea, he had also taught Korean teachers of English in refresher training courses. He was teaching at a university in Chungcheon Province and had been teaching English conversation courses and a few other content-based classes related to American history and culture. He enjoyed living and teaching EFL in Korea. He was, however, thinking of leaving Korea and wanted to continue his EFL teaching career in a country where his expertise was more valued and could be developed further. He currently teaches EFL students at a university in Japan.

Cecilia is an Australian with a Master's degree in TESOL. She taught in few countries, including Mexico, for five years before coming to Korea. She has been teaching EFL at a Korean university in Gyeongsang Province for five years. Before she started working at her current university, she also taught at another Korean university for a year. She said that she was fluent in Spanish and had a good working knowledge of Korean. She was an active member of a well-known EFL teacher community and well-respected by her colleagues in and outside the community. She had taught EFL courses that were intended to develop EFL students' conversation skills as well as other language skills at the university where she was currently employed. At the university, she was also involved in hiring NESTs and overseeing part of the EFL program which was delivered with the help of over 40 NESTs. She was seriously considering the possibility of leaving the country and finding an opportunity to continue teaching EFL in another country. She teaches university EFL students in South America at present.

James, a Canadian, has an educational background in English literature and had received postgraduate education at a doctoral level. He had taught ESL and EFL for 15 years. Specifically, he taught ESL and EFL in Canada and Japan, respectively, for nine years before coming to Korea. He used to speak Japanese in Japan. He had spent the past several years learning Korean and had some rudimentary knowledge of Korean language. He had taught EFL at different types of places, including private academies. He taught English conversation classes that were mostly counted towards the fulfillment of the general education requirements at a university for four years before he found employment at his current university. Both universities are in Seoul. At the university where he was employed at the time of study, he had been working mainly with students in the English Language and Literature Department and teaching some content-based courses. He took English teaching seriously as he considered it his vocation and would like to continue teaching English until retirement age when he would most likely go back to Canada. He still teaches students at the same university.

Kate came to Korea about three and half years ago to teach EFL with her boyfriend, who was also teaching English at another Korean university at the time. Before she came to Korea, she graduated from a top-ranking university in the U.S. where she had some experience with teaching. She studied several foreign languages as a student. She taught Korean children and teenagers at private academies before she started teaching university students. She said that she had a clear idea of how EFL education was provided at different levels of education in the Korean educational

context. She had conducted EFL classes at the university where she was teaching, which was located in Gyeongsang Province. She hoped to find employment at a university where she and her boyfriend could work together. Although she wanted to stay and teach EFL in Korea for the time being, she was willing to relocate outside Korea if she and her boyfriend were not able to find suitable employment. She obviously did not mind leaving Korea as she knew that the EFL market in the world had been growing steadily and that there were ample EFL teaching opportunities outside Korea.

Max was a school teacher and taught for six years in the U.S. before coming to Korea. In Korea, he had taught EFL at various places, including several universities, for the past 14 years. He had a broad experience of working with Korean university students in different settings. In addition, he also had some experience of managing a few university EFL programs staffed by NESTs for several years. Therefore, he had in-depth knowledge of NESTs and their teaching practices in the Korean higher education context. He had been teaching at a university in Seoul for the last six years. At the university, he taught conversation courses and was involved in some extracurricular activities, such as running an intensive English study program for elementary school students in the neighborhood. Having studied French as a foreign language in school and taught various subjects, including ESL, in the States, he was comfortable teaching young students of different ages. Although he did not have a plan to leave Korea anytime soon, he said that he started thinking in the recent years about going back to his home country permanently. He teaches students at the same university to this day.

Tina did her Master's in TESOL at a university in the U.S. She had been involved in EFL teaching in Japan and Korea for 12 years in total, and it was her fourth year in Korea. English was not the only language she taught previously; she spoke French and taught it in various settings some years ago. She was teaching at a university in Chungcheon Province. She liked her students at the university and enjoyed the challenges of getting them to remain focused on tasks and activities in her classes. She had been married to Aaron, who was her classmate at graduate school. She and Aaron often discussed any difficulties that they experienced in their classes and worked together to find effective ways to deal with the difficulties. She was interested in helping EFL learners develop their language skills, as opposed to improving her classroom management skills. She talked about her plan to leave Korea at the end of the year and continue her teaching career in another country where she could grow further as a professional. She now teaches EFL students at the same Japanese university where Aaron works.

3.3 Data Collection

3.3.1 Self-Reported Questionnaires

A questionnaire (Appendix A) was developed for this study. It consists of three sections. The first section was used to collect basic biographical information on the participants, including their gender, age, nationality, and teaching experience, to contextualize questionnaire results. Information regarding the participants' academic qualification (e.g., academic degree and certificate course work), employment status, and employer information was sought out.

NESTs with a bachelor degree used to have no problem finding university employment in Korea a decade ago. However, a majority of Korean universities have increasingly begun to require a master's degree from NESTs even though their fields of study were not of particular concern. NESTs were allowed to continue working with a bachelor degree given that they had 4 (or 6) years of prior teaching experience at the university level. Considering the typical academic qualities of NESTs working at Korean universities, it was surmised that NESTs who participated in the survey had a bachelor degree or a master's degree.

NESTs have been given similar employment status at most Korean universities. NESTs were employed on a full-time basis on a one or two year contract, often with an option of renewing the contract. (Some universities hired NESTs on a part-time basis to teach elementary school students for two to six weeks during summer and winter.) NESTs have recently been given one of the following titles: full-time instructors, visiting professors, or assistant professors. Irrespective of the title, a great majority of them had little or no chance of acquiring academic tenure or upward mobility in general.

While a small number of NESTs took supervisory roles as program coordinators at some universities, they often served as a go-between with other NESTs and Korean faculty members. NESTs, including program coordinators, have made an insignificant impact on university English curriculums and programs on the whole. It can be said that NESTs were basically full-time lecturers or teaching professors who had insignificant influence outside the classroom.

Information on place of employment was not asked in the hope of eliciting participation from a larger number of NESTs – by ensuring their anonymity and keeping time needed to complete the questionnaire to a minimum. In retrospect, while measures taken to induce a greater level of involvement from NESTs could have been of help, additional information pertaining to their training and work situations could have been of value to better comprehend the participants and their work environment.

The second section presented an opportunity for those who were interested in elaborating their responses to indicate their interest in further involvement. Interested individuals were instructed to provide contact information including their name, telephone number, e-mail address, and geographical location. An invitation to participate in naturalistic inquiry was extended to prospective teachers using the contact information provided.

The third section was designed to gather thoughts and opinions of NESTs. This section contained 35 five-point Likert-type scale items pertaining to the research questions and closely-related issues. The questionnaire items were largely developed from a combination of the researcher's experience of working with NESTs in Korea and pertinent literature review, as indicated in Chapter 2. The questionnaire items were largely based on previous studies, reducing the researcher bias and thereby enhancing the validity of the instrument.

As stated earlier, the first research question of the present study aimed to extract NESTs' perspectives on Korean university EFL students and their learning. The second and third questions were intended to have another look at the NESTs' articulated perspectives from slightly different angles. Thus, a majority of questionnaire items were intended to tap into the NESTs' perspectives directly, while the remaining 34 percent of items were reserved to examine the teachers' perspectives on their ways of teaching and university EFL education (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3
Distribution of the Questionnaire Items

Subject Areas	Questionnaire Items
Korean university EFL students and their language learning	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 15, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 31, 32, 34
NESTs' ways of teaching Korean university EFL students	8, 9, 13, 14, 16, 27, 35
EFL education environment in relation to Korean university EFL students	5, 18, 29, 30, 33

Efforts were made to use plain English. NESTs were asked to express how intensely they felt about each questionnaire item on a scale of 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree). It was expected that it would take approximately 15 to 20 minutes for an NEST to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was first given to two NESTs for field-testing. It took less than 15 minutes for them to fill it out. Afterward, a discussion on the readability and appropriateness of the questionnaire items was held with the individuals. Based on brief explanations provided for their responses, it was ascertained that the meaning that the teachers got out of each item was close to the researcher's intended meaning.

After the field-testing, the questionnaire accompanied by the Letter of Invitation (Appendix C) was distributed. The documents were distributed via e-mail or in person to the researcher's colleagues who were teaching Korean university EFL students or had taught them. Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire anonymously at their convenience and return it via e-mail or surface mail. Participants were informed that they could contact the researcher by phone or e-mail provided in the Letter.

In addition, a request was made in the letter for those who received the questionnaire to pass it on to their colleagues who had taught or were teaching EFL at Korean universities. NESTs were asked to help redistribute the questionnaire to their colleagues and friends. The request to redistribute the questionnaire was an attempt to involve a significant number of NESTs in the study. While the request served the purpose, it rendered calculation of response rate impractical.

It is known that NESTs do not take education research seriously in general. Shiozawa, Simmons, and Noda (1993) observed that attempts to get NESTs to participate in professional and academic surveys were generally met with disinterest, apathy, and/or suspicion. NESTs' unwillingness could partially explain the relatively

small sample sizes of past studies involving NESTs teaching at Korean universities. For example, the number of NESTs involved in research were 34 (K. J. Kim, 2006), 54 (M. Kwon, 2007), 9 (H. J. Lee, 2001), 14 (Miller, 2001), 19 (J.-E. Park, 1997), and 26 (Won, Lee, & Jeong, 2009).

3.3.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

For interviews, a list of open-ended questions was compiled (Appendix D). The questions were developed from a combination of the researcher's experience and literature review. Not all of the questions were meant to be used during interview sessions; rather, these questions were intended to lead the interviews and help cover key topics. The researcher's intention was not to adhere to the exact wording or order of the questions during interviews, but be guided by the questions to address the research questions adequately (Merriam, 1998).

Also, using the questions as a rough guide, a climate was fostered where the participants felt comfortable enough to freely discuss and explain matters that they deemed important and relevant. In addition to the questions prepared specifically for interviews, attention was also drawn to some of the questionnaire items to elicit elaboration where appropriate by using the teachers' own responses as retrospective prompts (Dörnyei, 2007).

Purposeful or purposive sampling was carried out to select participants for naturalistic inquiry based on "their characteristics relative to the phenomenon under study" (Wiersma, 2000, p. 200), in anticipation of rich data that participants might offer in relation to the research questions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This is because naturalistic inquiry does not often seek the generalizability of results (Trochim, 2006) as it is geared toward enhancing understanding of complex human issues in a particular context (Marshall, 1998). Purposive sampling is not uncommon in qualitative research.

Following the selection process of participants for naturalistic inquiry (see Section 3.2), the Letter of Consent (Appendix E) was sent out to the prospective teachers via e-mail so that they could have a chance to read the letter in advance. Meeting times and venues for individual face-to-face interview sessions were arranged to accommodate the teachers' schedules and convenience. At the outset of the first meeting with each teacher, information given in Letter of Consent was briefly explained, especially the study's purposes, procedures, and implications. An opportunity was given to the teachers to ask any questions about interview procedures and any other aspects of the study prior to asking for their informed consent. A signed copy of the letter was later scanned and forwarded electronically to the teachers. During the individual interview sessions, each teacher was encouraged to talk about matters that he/she perceived to be relevant and important as well as the topics on the agenda, as stated earlier.

The interview sessions typically lasted for approximately two hours. They were recorded with permission. During the individual interview sessions, the researcher, as the interviewer, took notes on key points and any noteworthy cues observed of the teachers in the field notes. The researcher also made memos on matters that would require clarification from the teachers in the field notes. By encouraging the teacher

to elaborate his/her perspectives and come up with examples and personal anecdotes to support his/her points, in-depth insights were further sought out during the interviews and afterward.

At the end of each interview, the individual teachers were debriefed. With Aaron, Cecilia, James, Max, and Tina, follow-up interviews were arranged individually at a time and place convenient to them, which lasted for one to two hours. Following the interview session(s), a thank-you note was sent out via e-mail to individual teachers reminding them to contact the researcher if they had any questions, comments, or suggestions.

3.3.3   Classroom Observations

In conjunction with each individual interview session, observations of each teacher in action were conducted in terms of how he/she talked to and treated his/her students in the classroom. The teacher's demeanor and manner toward his/her students can tell much about what he/she thinks of them as learners and what kind of personality he/she chooses to have in the classroom. It was conceived how the teachers carried themselves while talking to and interacting with their students in the classroom (and also outside the classroom) could help substantiate their verbalized perspectives.

There were other benefits associated with the use of classroom observations. How the teachers conduct themselves can reveal dissonance between the teachers' articulated perspectives and their conduct manifested in the classroom (Medgyes, 2000), opening doors for the researcher to address any discrepancies. To put it another way, in case any participant's behavior appeared to contradict his/her words, observation data could be used to elicit further clarification to account for the discrepancies (Denzin, 1978).

Classroom observations could serve another useful purpose. By observing the teachers in action, some issues could be brought up for discussion, which had not been fully explored during the interviews. For instance, the teachers' pedagogical rationale could be further examined after classroom observation as to why the teachers employed certain instructional methods and why they chose certain teaching materials over others (S.-J. Shin, 2004).

Classroom observations served as supplementary data to corroborate, challenge, and expand on the perspectives articulated in the questionnaire and interviews. A chart (Appendix F) was prepared to help observe the teachers working with their students in the classroom and record what was observed. While the chart helped recognize the noteworthy words or actions of individual teachers, it was not meant to be used to record everything that transpired in the classroom.

Each teacher was asked beforehand whether it would be okay for the researcher to sit in one of his/her EFL classes for the purpose of observation, and all teachers gave permission to do so. The teachers were individually observed during one of their class sessions, and observations lasted for one to two hours approximately. While sitting quietly in the back corner of the classroom (or in the least conspicuous place), the researcher paid attention to noteworthy behaviors of, and words exchanged

between, the teacher and students in the chart.

The charts were reviewed to highlight points of interest. Attempts were made to address questions that arose during classroom observations with individual teachers to gain a greater understanding of their perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning. After a preliminary analysis of interview transcripts, the charts were reviewed again to find classroom observation data that supported and, more importantly, questioned data obtained from other sources.

3.3.4 Field Notes

Information, which was acquired in the field over the course of data collection but not recorded as part of interviews or observations, was entered in the researcher's field notes as needed. For instance, some thoughts and feelings shared by the teachers with the researcher before/after the interviews were jotted down in the field notes as soon as possible, if not immediately, especially when they seemed to provide insights into their perspectives or raise questions. Pertinent exchanges of ideas shared via e-mail between the researcher and teachers were also included. The field notes were a medium for the researcher to write down pertinent information that was not recorded or captured elsewhere.

Any noteworthy observations made in the field were also documented in the field notes on a visit base. For example, a teachers' office setting was described and sketched roughly to indicate what conditions appeared to facilitate lesson preparation and interfere with it. Such information gathered in the field was useful for preserving the details (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983) and recalling facts (Agar, 1986), as contextual information helped relive interview situations at a later time (S.-A. Han, 2005a). The field notes were kept to serve as another source of supplementary data.

In addition, during the data collection stage, the researcher's reflection on the teachers' words and actions was entered in the researcher journal as part of the field notes. The researcher's reflection could serve the purposes of helping (a) keep track of important points that warranted further examination; (b) recall thoughts and feelings that occurred while listening to and observing the teachers; and (c) facilitate the process of reflection and introspection through writing.

Furthermore, the researcher journal helped keep the perspective of the teachers separate from those of the researcher. It allowed the researcher to remain aware of influences of the teachers' words and behaviors on his understanding (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). The awareness was of value considering the researcher's familiarity with Korean university EFL students and the educational context in which the teachers taught and worked. The researcher journal helped keep the subjectivity of the researcher in check through reflexivity that is defined as "reflection with self-critical analysis" (Somekh & Lewin, 2005, p. 348). Although it could have been integrated as a part of the inquiry (Dörnyei, 2007), it was primarily used in this study as accounts of internal dialogue (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995) and a means of putting study findings into perspective.

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 Quantitative Analysis

Statistical tests were applied primarily to seek patterns that could guide further inquiry through other instruments rather than establish whether the results were statistically significant or conclusive. Quantitative data helped facilitate the analysis and interpretation of data subsequently collected through naturalistic inquiry, as discussed in Section 3.1. They could also triangulate qualitative data, increasing the reliability of the study.

Responses to the questionnaire were tabulated and analyzed using descriptive statistics, such as means (M) and standard deviation (SD), in order to examine frequency distribution. Pearson correlation analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between the teachers' responses to the questionnaire items. For group comparisons, one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests was performed. One-way MANOVA helped investigate influences of biographical data of NESTs on their responses to the questionnaire items.

3.4.2 Qualitative Analysis

To code and categorize qualitative data, the marginal remark approach, discussed by Miles and Huberman (1994), was adopted. For interview data, the recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim, read, and reread several times by the researcher to extract key topics that were then noted in the margin. Next, the researcher coded and categorized the key topics to identify emergent and recurring themes and patterns while taking "adequate account of contextual conditions" (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993, p. 82).

Reliability of coding was maintained by triangulation of data gained from other methods. Emergent themes were, where appropriate, compared to data obtained through other methods (e.g., in-class and field observations) in order to build upon, confirm, and challenge study findings in an iterative process. Concurrently, an effort was made likewise to seek out pertinent topics in other qualitative data such as observations and field notes (see Table 3.4).

Considering the amount of interview data being collected, it seemed that it would take a considerable amount of time to transcribe the interviews alone and longer to interpret and make sense of all the data. Instead of member checking to build credibility (Linclon & Guba, 1985), all the notes taken in the field notes were reviewed by the researcher following each interview/observation, and parts of audio recordings were listened to, as needed, in order to address any potential sources of misunderstanding and promptly deal with unanswered questions.

By this way the researcher was able to present opportunities for the teachers to clarify and further explain their words and behavior when needed, leaving little room for researcher bias. In essence, rather than sending out the whole interview transcript or the interim findings for individual teachers to read and comment on, the researcher actively sought out potential areas of misunderstanding and attempted to resolve them early on.

Table 3.4
Research Checklist

Research questions	Data collection techniques	Data analysis techniques	How the data collection and analysis will enable the research questions to be addressed?
Question 1 What strengths and weaknesses do NESTs see in Korean university students' EFL learning?	Questionnaires, interviews, & field notes	(a) Descriptive and inferential statistics for quantitative data; and (b) data coding and analysis for qualitative data	By obtaining and examining the NESTs' perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning
Question 2 How do NESTs address the learning issues of Korean university students in EFL classes?	Questionnaires, interviews, observations, & field notes	Statistics and data coding and analysis	By making inference from the NESTs' words and their classroom behavior
Question 3 What pedagogical changes could help improve the Korean university students' EFL learning?	Questionnaires, interviews, observations, & field notes	Statistics and data coding and analysis	By identifying what NESTs regard as shortcomings in the students' EFL learning (and their own teaching)

To maintain coding reliability, triangulation of data obtained from different collection methods was carried out where appropriate. Moreover, the subjectivity of the researcher and its impact on data collection and analysis were taken into account. The issue of subjectivity deserved close attention as the researcher carried out the study from an emic, or insider, perspective. It should be noted that the researcher has worked with NESTs teaching Korean university EFL students over a period spanning nearly a dozen years. For this, reflexivity was maintained to conduct "careful, self-conscious analysis to uncover various 'truths'" (Walker-Gibbs, 2004, p. 177).

In addition, the participants' words were presented as spoken, whenever possible, by using embedded and block quotations, in order to fully convey the range of emotions expressed. Besides, the teachers' words can help convince the reader of "the believability of that world" by "drawing her or him into the world of the participants" (Hustler, 2005, p. 17). Out of respect for the teachers, the researcher made every effort to represent their voices true to their intended meaning.

3.5 Ethical Consideration

There was no potential risk for the participants, but every precaution, such as the use of pseudonyms, was taken to ensure the wellbeing of the teachers who participated in the study. Informed consent was received from all teachers who took part in

naturalistic inquiry prior to their participation, whereas tacit consent was assumed for the teachers who took part in the survey. The teachers made their decisions to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. They were also informed that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time and that there would be no adverse effects on them for withdrawing their consent.

From the outset, the teachers knew how to contact the researcher for further information or to ask any questions that they had with regard to the logistics of the study and their involvement in the study. They were also provided with contact information for the USQ Human Research Ethics Committee. Every effort was made to adhere to the ethical guidelines of the Committee, with due regard to recognized principles for the ethical conduct of research.

3.6 Summary

As the present study adopted mixed methods as its research methodology, this chapter has provided a brief coverage of the methodology at the outset. Ethical consideration has been discussed at the end even if there was no potential risk for the participants. A description of research methods has been given in the chapter as below.

The design, administration, and collection of the questionnaire that constituted the first phase of data collection have been presented. The chapter has described the second phase of data collection, which involved a subsample of survey respondents to help clarify and elaborate on their questionnaire responses and pertinent issues through semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and field notes. A point has been made that interviews were the primary sources of data for the study while other data, quantitative and qualitative, were used to complement and supplement interview data.

Data analysis has been described. Quantitative data from the questionnaires were summarized using descriptive statistics and analyzed using inferential statistics including correlation and MANOVA analyses. Qualitative data were coded and categorized taking the marginal remark approach to identifying emergent and recurring themes and patterns. Efforts were made to represent the participants' voices true to their intended meaning by keeping the researcher's bias and subjectivity in check.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

In this chapter, quantitative and qualitative results are presented. Questionnaire results are shown (Section 4.1), followed by a description of findings from semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and field notes (Section 4.2). The chapter primarily covers the following: (a) Korean university students' EFL learning from perspectives of NESTs; (b) the teachers' teaching in relation to the students' learning; and (c) desirable changes involving the students and NESTs.

4.1 Results from the Questionnaires

The 54 teachers' responses to the questionnaire (Appendix A) are presented below with explanatory comments when appropriate. The teachers' perspectives on the students' EFL learning are examined in the following areas. The students' motivation, knowledge, and ability are presented (Section 4.1.1). Then, consideration is given in Section 4.1.2 to the students' EFL learning behaviors, along with the teachers' preferences for student genders (i.e., male or female) and class make-up (i.e., single-sex or coed).

Next, student needs and expectations are considered (Section 4.1.3). After the teachers' affinity for the students is presented, attention is given to the students' attitudes toward and readiness for EFL classes taught by NESTs (Section 4.1.4). The teachers' thoughts on their own pedagogical approaches and methods are also considered (Section 4.1.5), followed by their perspectives on university EFL education (Section 4.1.6).

4.1.1   Students' Motivation, Knowledge, and Ability

To the statement whether the students had a strong desire to learn to express themselves in English (Item 34), 23 teachers (43%) did not disagree nor agree, while there was a split between the rest of the teachers as 17 and 14 teachers disagreed and agreed, respectively (see Table 4.1). The results seemed to indicate that there were mixed feelings among the teachers about the level of the students' motivation to learn English for communicative purposes. If there were a large number of unmotivated students and if the teachers felt that it was their responsibility to get these students to participate in class, it could have been regarded as a major hurdle to get over, making language teaching less enjoyable.

Table 4.1
Teachers' Responses to Items on the Students' Motivation

| | Response frequency[a] (in percentage) | | | | | | |
#	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
12	1 (1.9)	16 (29.6)	28 (51.9)	7 (13.0)	2 (3.7)	2.87	.80
34	4 (7.4)	13 (24.1)	23 (42.6)	11 (20.4)	3 (5.6)	2.93	.99

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Twenty-eight teachers (52%) did not disagree or agree with the following statement: "The students are not serious about developing English skills for communicative purposes" (Item 12). The result seemed to suggest that the teachers had reservations about how serious the students were as a whole. However, there might have been other factors at play that led to a large number of neutral responses, possibly including their unwillingness to generalize the students. Whatever reason(s) might be behind the teachers' neutral responses to Item 12 could also have elicited a similar response to Item 34, as shown by a strong relationship between Items 12 and 34 ($r = .655, p < .05$).

Although 9 teachers (17%) thought that the students were not serious about language skill development (Item 12), the rest of them believed that the students took it rather seriously (see Table 4.1). The result that the students seemed serious about learning might appear to be inconsistent with the result regarding how the teachers had varying opinions about the students' desire to learn English. To put it another way, while 74 percent of the teachers clearly thought that the students were far from being highly motivated and enthusiastic about learning EFL, there was a general consensus among the teachers that most students took EFL learning seriously. The seemingly contradictory results were noted to be further examined.

Grammar has been explicitly taught in English classes, and grammar knowledge of students rigorously tested (especially in high school). When the teachers' perspectives were gauged to find out whether they thought that the students had a strong foundation in grammar (Item 2), 17 teachers (32%) agreed, and 19 teachers (35%) disagreed, leaving 18 teachers (33%) who chose not to agree or disagree (see Table 4.2). The results indicate that the teachers had quite different perspectives when it came to the students' knowledge about English grammar, and it called out for further examination of why the teachers differed in this regard.

Table 4.2
Teachers' Responses to Items on the Students' Knowledge and Ability

#	Response frequency[a] (in percentage)					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
2	3 (5.6)	16 (29.6)	18 (33.3)	15 (27.8)	2 (3.7)	2.94	.98
17	1 (1.9)	6 (11.1)	19 (35.2)	22 (40.7)	6 (11.1)	3.48	.91

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

An item was also included in the questionnaire to see whether the teachers believed that the students had an ability to learn to pronounce English well during their study in higher education: that was, provided that the students "do their best during their study, they can learn to pronounce English well enough to be understood with ease by a native English speaker" (Item 17). Twenty-eight teachers (52%) thought that the students were able to learn to pronounce English successfully while 7 other teachers were distinctly doubtful whether the students could (see Table 4.2). This implied that the teachers thought that the students could still improve their pronunciation significantly even in their twenties.

4.1.2 Students' Learning Behaviors

To the question whether the teachers regarded the students' silence as a lack of interest (Item 15), 40 teachers (74%) did not see it that way (see Table 4.3). It would be interesting to find out what the students' silence could have meant to those who did not regard the students' silence as a sign of disinterest. Five teachers answered positively to the question. Considering that 3 out of these 5 teachers had several years of EFL teaching experience in and outside of Korea, it would also be interesting to examine the rationale behind the results.

Forty-three teachers (80%) thought that students were generally afraid of making mistakes in the classroom (Item 23) while 5 teachers disagreed (see Table 4.3). There was a consensus among the teachers that students at large were concerned about losing face in front of others, and this perspective could affect the ways the teachers conducted their classes and handled teacher-student and student-student interaction.

Table 4.3
Teachers' Responses to Items on the Students' Learning Behaviors

#	Response frequency[a] (in percentage)					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
3	24 (44.4)	20 (37.0)	9 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.9)	1.78	.86
4	7 (13.0)	21 (38.9)	19 (35.2)	6 (11.1)	1 (1.9)	2.50	.93
15	17 (31.5)	23 (42.6)	9 (16.7)	4 (7.4)	1 (1.9)	2.06	.98
21	14 (25.9)	16 (29.6)	15 (27.8)	6 (11.1)	3 (5.6)	2.41	1.16
23	0 (0.0)	5 (9.3)	6 (11.1)	31 (57.4)	12 (22.2)	3.93	.84
26	1 (1.9)	4 (7.4)	8 (14.8)	32 (59.3)	9 (16.7)	3.81	.87
28	4 (7.4)	17 (31.5)	28 (51.9)	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)	2.43	.94

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Except for 7 teachers (13%) who agreed with the statement that the students tended to be responsible for their own learning (Item 4), all others shared the perspective that the students were largely irresponsible when it came to EFL learning (see Table 4.3). The results showed that nearly all teachers thought that the students did not assert ownership to their learning. For instructional purposes, it would be worthwhile to discover in what areas the students failed to exercise ownership from the teachers' perspectives.

A majority of teachers thought that the students did not spend time learning EFL on their own outside the classroom, a study habit which was not propitious for language learning. The finding was supported by the teachers' responses to Item 26, as 41 teachers (76%) agreed with the statement that homework was necessary for the students to review and/or preview lessons. For those who placed importance on homework, it was likely that they were in the habit of assigning it to engage the students in learning outside the classroom.

Moreover, all teachers but one felt that the students did not make use of the teachers' office hours (Item 3), and this finding was disturbing in that the office hours could provide much needed opportunity for students to have face-to-face interaction with English speakers. There was a moderate inverse relationship between Item 26 and Item 3 ($r=-.257$, $p<.05$), suggesting that students who studied on their own would

also take advantage of office hours, and vice versa.

Nevertheless, the aforementioned results did not necessarily mean that most teachers felt that they had to force the students to study English. Evidently, 30 teachers (56%) disagreed with the statement that the students did their best when they were under pressure, such as with quizzes and tests, (Item 21). Fifteen teachers (28%) showed reservations about it (see Table 4.3). The results indicate that the teachers as a group did not think that external pressure was crucial to see the best of the students performance-wise. It should be noted that the teachers' responses were not clustered closely around the mean, possibly indicating that the teachers as a whole had ambivalent feelings about the questionnaire item.

The teachers' responses to Item 21 had a moderate inverse relationship with the responses to Item 26 ($r = -.317$, $p < .05$), and a moderate relationship to Item 4 ($r = .334$, $p < .05$). The relationships indicate that the students fell short of claiming ownership in learning because they did not know how to do so, as opposed to their refusal to put in extra time and effort to study EFL.

Nearly all teachers took the view that the students' language learning behavior was ineffective. To Item 28 that asked the teachers whether they viewed that the students' language learning behavior was effective, only 2 teachers answered positively (see Table 4.3). There was a moderate relationship between Item 28 and Item 21 ($r = .270$, $p < .05$). The relationship could be interpreted as the teachers shared the following view: The students who were motivated enough to perform well in the absence of external stimuli could have been using effective learning behaviors already.

Table 4.4
Teachers' Varying Responses According to Age

| Age group | N | Responses averaged[a] | | |
		Item 4	Item 21	Item 28
20 - 29	12	3.08	2.83	2.17
30 - 39	20	2.25	2.10	2.65
40 - 49	11	2.64	3.18	2.91
50 +	11	2.18	1.73	1.82

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Depending on the age of the teachers, their perspectives on the students' learning seemed to differ slightly, as suggested in their responses to Item 4 ($F = 2.854$ (3, 50), $p < .05$), Item 21 ($F = 4.749$ (3, 50), $p < .05$), and Item 28 ($F = 3.630$ (3, 50), $p < .05$). The teachers' responses were tabulated in Table 4.4 and represented in Figure 4.1. However, it should be noted that the sample size was not large enough to draw conclusive inferences.

With regard to Item 4, the teachers in their fifties and sixties had a relatively negative feeling toward the idea of the students taking ownership of their own learning (see Figure 4.1). In other words, the teachers who were 50 or older did not think that the students exercised ownership over their own learning. Incidentally, the teachers in their twenties mostly had a positive feeling toward the idea in comparison to the teachers in other age groups.
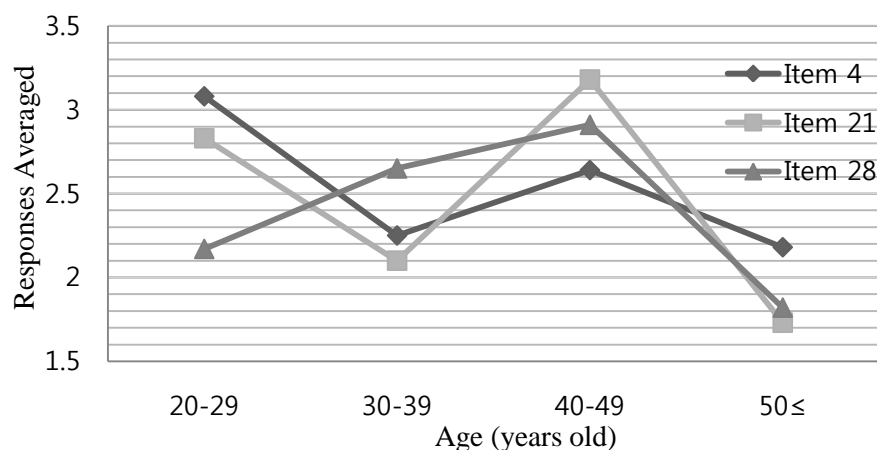
Figure 4.1. Teachers' varying responses according to age

For Item 21, the teachers in their thirties and fifties apparently shared a feeling that the students did not do their best under external pressure, such as quizzes and tests. However, the teachers in other age groups remained relatively reserved, and the results could be interpreted as their being either wary of overgeneralizing the students or uncertain of the exact impact of external pressure on the students' performance. Concerning Item 28 that had to do with the effectiveness of the students' language learning behaviors, the teachers in their thirties and forties were on the positive side (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.5
Teachers' Responses to Items on Roles of Student Genders

#	Response frequency[a] (in percentage)					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
24	5 (9.3)	16 (29.6)	18 (33.3)	12 (22.2)	3 (5.6)	2.85	1.05
25	2 (3.7)	14 (25.9)	21 (38.9)	14 (25.9)	3 (5.6)	3.04	.95

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

With regard to the teachers' preference regarding student gender, there was a relatively wide dispersion of the teachers' responses, as suggested by the SD. Only 15 teachers (28%) agreed that the female students were easier to work with than their male counterparts (Item 24), while 21 teachers (39%) disagreed and 18 teachers (33%) chose 'neither disagree nor agree'. The results indicate that a majority of the teachers (72%) did not find it easier to work with female students (see Table 4.5).

It could be said that 15 teachers who agreed with the statement had a gender preference, even if it was unclear what gender traits made female students easier to work with in the mind of these teachers. Nonetheless, the other 39 teachers' choices needed to be interpreted carefully as they could suggest two possibilities. The teachers who did not agree with the statement could have preferred to work with male students to female students. Another possibility was that they simply did not have a particular preference for either gender.

When asked whether it was helpful to have both genders present in the classroom to induce the students to talk more (Item 25), the teachers differed in their opinion.

While 21 teachers seemed to refrain from taking a position by choosing 'neither disagree nor agree', 17 and 16 teachers agreed and disagreed with the item, respectively (see Table 4.5). Sixty nine percent of the teachers did not seem to regard having both male and female students together in the classroom as a major contributing factor that could help elicit a greater level of engagement.

To put it another way, it appeared that the teachers thought students in a single-sex class could be as talkative as students in a coed class. The teachers' responses to Items 24 and 25 had a moderate relationship ($r=.259$, $p<.05$). A significant number of the teachers did not seem to think much of gender differences when it came to EFL learning and teaching.

Table 4.6
Teachers' Varying Responses According to Nationalities

| Nationality | N | Responses averaged[a] | |
		Item 24	Item 25
Australia	2	3.00	3.00
Canada	10	2.60	3.10
England	6	4.17	3.67
New Zealand	1	1.00	1.00
South Africa	1	3.00	5.00
U.S.A.	31	2.74	2.84
Others	3	2.67	3.67

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

When the teachers' perspectives were considered by nationality, a trend was found that suggested that the teachers from different countries had different perspectives concerning Item 24 ($F=2.677$ (6, 47), $p<.05$) and Item 25 ($F=2.864$ (6, 47), $p<.05$). One noteworthy piece of information from Table 4.6 was that teachers from England tended to agree with these items more than those from North America (i.e., Canada and the United States of America). However, the small sample size made it difficult to make conclusive inferences from the teachers' responses.

4.1.3 Student Needs and Expectations

As shown in Table 4.7, 43 teachers (80%) felt that they were well aware of student needs in EFL learning (Item 20). The other teachers could also have been aware of the needs to an extent. The teachers' perspectives on some of student needs and expectations are considered below. However, since a clear understanding of student needs constitute a gateway to success, it would be of interest to further explore the teachers' perspectives in depth.

All but 2 teachers agreed that the students preferred American English to other varieties of English (Item 19). This strong consensus seemed to suggest that the teachers thought that the students regarded English as a foreign language that belonged exclusively to North Americans and, by extension, the British (see Table 4.7). Notwithstanding whether or not the students preferred American English, the teachers believed that the students had a strong preference for it. The belief could have affected how pronunciation teaching was approached and how English was enunciated by those who were not from North America. Moreover, given that the

teachers were correct in their view, the students had not come to realize yet that English was more of an international language than a foreign language.

As to the issue of students being visually-oriented (Item 10), 15 teachers (28%) agreed, and 7 did not. Interestingly, 29 teachers (54%) avoided agreeing or disagreeing with the statement. Since the teachers had lived and worked in two or more countries, it was possible that the students were regarded by the teachers as visual learners but not any more than university students outside Korea. A cause for alarm was that 7 teachers not seeing the students as visual learners could conduct their class with minimal use of the board or handouts.

Forty-two teachers (78%) thought that a diverse assortment of tasks and activities could help captivate the students' interest (Item 11). However, there were 3 teachers who did not think so (see Table 4.7). It was possible that the teachers who disagreed with Item 11 had an extremely high opinion of the students to a point that they saw no need for using a variety of tasks and activities to pique the students' interest. More likely, it could have been the case that the teachers had a low opinion of incorporating a wide range of tasks and activities into language teaching. Although it was not clear what was going through the minds of teachers who disagreed, it could be speculated that the teachers in disagreement would less likely employ a variety of tasks and activities in class.

In terms of working with language skills, 45 teachers (83%) thought that all four major skill areas should be developed in a balanced way (Item 6) while NESTs had been put in charge of EFL courses designed to improve the students' conversation or speaking skills in particular (see Table 4.7). Five teachers disagreed with the statement, and it would be interesting why these teachers responded in a way that seemed to oppose the whole language approach.

Table 4.7
Teachers' Responses to Items on the Student Needs and Expectations

| # | Response frequency[a] (in percentage) | | | | | M | SD |
	1	2	3	4	5		
6	1 (1.9)	4 (7.4)	4 (7.4)	15 (27.8)	30 (55.6)	4.28	1.02
7	4 (7.4)	15 (27.8)	14 (25.9)	17 (31.5)	4 (7.4)	3.04	1.10
10	1 (1.9)	6 (11.1)	29 (53.7)	9 (16.7)	6 (11.1)	3.07	1.15
11	0 (0.0)	3 (5.6)	8 (14.8)	27 (50.0)	15 (27.8)	3.94	.98
19	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (3.7)	21 (38.9)	31 (57.4)	4.54	.57
20	0 (0.0)	6 (11.1)	5 (9.3)	16 (29.6)	27 (50.0)	4.19	1.01
31	0 (0.0)	12 (22.2)	22 (40.7)	15 (27.8)	5 (9.3)	3.24	.91
32	1 (1.9)	8 (14.8)	20 (37.0)	22 (40.7)	3 (5.6)	3.33	.87

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Items 7 and 31 had to do with the teachers' perspectives on students' expectations of teacher-student interaction. To the question that asked the teachers whether they thought that the students wanted to have a one-on-one conversation with the NEST in the classroom (Item 7), there was a nearly even split as 21 teachers agreed with the item and 19 teachers disagreed with it (see Table 4.7). The teachers who agreed would likely initiate teacher-student conversation, whereas those who disagreed could be prone to avoid engaging with individual students.

When asked whether the teachers thought that students wanted to interact with NESTs outside the classroom (Item 31), 20 teachers (37%) thought so, and 12 teachers (22%) seemed doubtful. The teachers' mixed perspectives on the students' wants to interact with NESTs deserved attention as interaction with NESTs could be beneficial for the students.

There was a strong relationship between Item 7 and Item 31 ($r = .444$, $p < .01$), as the teachers who thought that the students wanted to interact with the NEST in the classroom also wanted to do so outside the classroom. In addition, a strong relationship was found between Item 31 and Item 34 ($r = .482$, $p < .05$), and this relationship indicates that those who had a strong desire to learn EFL would also like to seize opportunities to practice English with NESTs.

With the statement that there was an expectation of the NEST to provide help to struggling students (Item 32), 25 teachers (46%) agreed and 20 teachers (37%) expressed their reservations (see Table 4.7). Almost half the teachers recognized that it was expected of them to identify students in need and provide help as needed. The recognition of the particular expectation could prompt them to take measures to meet the expectation. Interestingly, male teachers seemed to feel stronger toward Item 32 than female teachers ($F = 6.373$ (1, 52), $p < .05$). This result could indicate that the former was more inclined to extend special attention to students in need.

With respect to several items dealing with the teachers' perspectives on the student needs and expectations, the SD values were rather high. There were two patterns that could explain relatively high SDs. First, as shown in Table 4.7, the teachers' responses to Items 6 and 20 were skewed to the right, reflecting strength of their feelings about merits of the whole language approach and their awareness of the students' needs, respectively. A second pattern in the teachers' responses to some other items (e.g., Items 7 and 10) was that the teachers' typical responses did not cluster closely around the mean but were spread over, possibly showing differences in their perspectives.

4.1.4 Students' Attitudes toward and Readiness for EFL Learning

As to whether students had respect for NESTs (Item 1), 34 teachers (63%) thought so (see Table 4.8). The results indicated that a large number of the teachers thought that students were respectful. However, 7 teachers (13%) disagreed, raising the question as to what reasons that they had for thinking that students were disrespectful of NESTs. For these 7 teachers, it was not clear whether it was either their response to the students' actual behaviors or the case of their idealized expectations not being met of how students should carry themselves.

Twenty-six teachers (48%) agreed with the statement that they enjoyed teaching the students (Item 22). It seemed that the teachers enjoyed teaching in general and were also fond of the students (see Table 4.8). The teachers' thoughts seemed to differ in this regard, as suggested by the SD value. On the other hand, 18 teachers (33%) neither disagreed nor agreed, and 10 teachers (19%) disagreed. With regard to the teachers who did not agree with the statement, a simple interpretation that they disliked teaching students could be made. Considering that even the teachers who did

not agree with the statement had taught the students for several years by choice, a more reasonable interpretation was that the teachers did not like some aspects of teaching students.

Table 4.8
Teachers' Responses to Items on General Sentiments about the Students

| # | Response frequency[a] (in percentage) | | | | | M | SD |
	1	2	3	4	5		
1	0 (0.0)	7 (13.0)	12 (22.2)	31 (57.4)	3 (5.6)	3.50	0.93
22	3 (5.6)	7 (13.0)	18 (33.3)	14 (25.9)	12 (22.2)	3.46	1.14

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

With the statement that students could have plenty of exposure to English outside the classroom if they liked (Item 5), 32 teachers (59%) concurred (see Table 4.9). As shown in the table, the teachers' responses were distributed widely on the whole. Although the students might not have had extensive exposure to English being spoken in everyday life, the teachers seemed to think that the lack of exposure in their natural environment did not necessarily exclude opportunities for the students to have greater exposure if they chose to. In other words, it appeared that the teachers thought that the students could place themselves in situations where they could hear and speak EFL.

Thirty-two teachers (59%) disagreed with the statement that most students were already familiar with NESTs' teaching methods (Item 30). To put it another way, close to 60 percent of the teachers thought that students were unfamiliar with NESTs' ways of teaching. The acknowledgement could stem from the teachers' personal experience of having encountered a significant number of students who were unfamiliar with their ways of teaching. Only 7 teachers thought otherwise while 15 expressed reservations (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9
Teachers' Responses to Items on the Students' Readiness

| # | Response frequency[a] (in percentage) | | | | | M | SD |
	1	2	3	4	5		
5	4 (7.4)	7 (13.0)	10 (18.5)	24 (44.4)	8 (14.8)	3.41	1.22
30	14 (25.9)	18 (33.3)	15 (27.8)	7 (13.0)	0 (0.0)	2.28	1.00
33	8 (14.8)	22 (40.7)	19 (35.2)	4 (7.4)	1 (1.9)	2.41	.90

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

While 5 teachers had a feeling that first year students were ready to get the most of EFL classes taught by NESTs, 30 teachers (56%) thought that fresh-out-of-high-school students were not ready (Item 33), as shown in Table 4.9. If the students took EFL classes taught by the NEST for the first time, they would possibly experience some difficulties given that NESTs had teaching styles that differed considerably from Korean English teachers', in addition to a language barrier. An implication was as follows: Without guidance and time to help students become accustomed to the NESTs' teaching, the students would not be able to get the most out of the classes.

4.1.5　Teachers' Methods and Strategies for EFL Teaching

All teachers agreed with the statement that a friendly and comfortable class atmosphere was ideal for language learning and teaching (Item 8). Not only all teachers agreed but 39 teachers (72%) also felt strongly about the item (see Table 4.10). It seemed that the teachers thought that a somber and highly-controlled class setting was far from ideal to have students use English freely.

Table 4.10

Teachers' Responses to Items on an Ideal Class Atmosphere

#	Response frequency^a (in percentage)					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
8	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	15 (27.8)	39 (72.2)	4.72	.45
9	0 (0.0)	1 (1.9)	9 (16.7)	22 (40.7)	22 (40.7)	4.20	.79

Note. ^{a}1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Furthermore, 44 teachers (81%) also thought that it was largely their responsibility to create an environment conducive to language learning and teaching (Item 9). Only 1 teacher did not share the view that NESTs were responsible for setting an amicable atmosphere (see Table 4.10). There was a strong correlation between Item 8 and Item 9 ($r = .428$, $p < .05$).

Table 4.11

Teachers' Responses to Items on Their Pedagogical Practices

#	Response frequency^a (in percentage)					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
13	0 (0.0)	2 (3.7)	7 (13.0)	32 (59.3)	12 (22.2)	3.94	.90
14	4 (7.4)	10 (18.5)	31 (57.4)	6 (11.1)	2 (3.7)	2.80	.94
27	3 (5.6)	10 (18.5)	14 (25.9)	22 (40.7)	5 (9.3)	3.30	1.06

Note. ^{a}1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

As a means of creating and fostering an ideal environment for language learning and teaching, the teachers seemed to have provided encouragement. Forty-four teachers (82%) agreed with the statement that encouragement could elicit the participation of the students and keep them involved in class activities (Item 13) while only 2 teachers disagreed (see Table 4.11).

On the other hand, 27 teachers (50%) thought that they occasionally needed to discipline the students for classroom management (Item 27). The rest of them either opposed the use of discipline to discourage undesirable behaviors or eschewed expressing agreement/disagreement (see Table 4.11). While the teachers had mixed feelings about classroom management, they seemed to favor using positive feedback over negative reinforcement as a means of keeping the students engaged in learning.

Only 8 teachers (15%) subscribed to the notion that students wanted their mistakes to be corrected by NESTs (Item 14), as shown in Table 4.11. These teachers might be more willing to address student mistakes, based on an understanding that prompt correction was expected. In contrast, 14 teachers who did not subscribe would be inclined to overlook mistakes made by students (especially if they also thought that immediate correction was of little pedagogical value). Interestingly, 31 teachers

(57%) chose 'neither disagree nor agree', and it was conceivable that the result suggested that their position would depend on situations.

Table 4.12
Teachers' Responses to Items on Their Teaching Capacities

#	Response frequency[a] (in percentage)					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
16	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	26 (48.1)	24 (44.4)	4 (7.4)	3.59	.63
35	22 (40.7)	14 (25.9)	6 (11.1)	11 (20.4)	1 (1.9)	2.17	1.22

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

To the statement whether NESTs' teaching methods were superior to Korean English teachers' methods for CLT (Item 16), none chose to disagree while 26 teachers (48%) showed reservations (see Table 4.12). In other words, all teachers thought that NESTs' teaching methods were superior to, or as good as, the Korean counterparts' methods for communicative purposes.

Concerning the results pertaining to Item 16, it did not necessarily mean that the teachers looked down on, or devalued the abilities of, Korean field practitioners who were engaged in English teaching, such as English teachers, instructors, and professors. The teachers deemed that Korean teachers and faculty members were capable of teaching English language. 36 teachers (67%) disagreed with the statement that only NESTs were fit to teach English Conversation courses (Item 35), while 12 were in agreement with it (see Table 4.12). Although the teachers' responses were largely skewed to the left, 20 percent of the teachers who agreed with the statement had an effect of pulling the distribution curve in the opposite direction.

The teachers' responses to Items 16 and 35 seemed to represent their perspectives that Korean faculty members were competent but needed to improve their teaching methods to teach EFL for communication. The teachers' perspectives that teaching provided by Korean teachers of English was not as good as their own seemed to depart from the perceptions of Korean educators and scholars in the field of English teaching. However, the teachers' perspectives were confined to CLT.

4.1.6 EFL Education at Korean Universities

Thirty-one teachers (57%) did not think, or were unsure, that students would have a good command of English by the time they graduated if the current university EFL education models remained in effect (Item 18), as shown in Table 4.13. In other words, these teachers thought that university EFL education in place were not capable of providing opportunities for students to achieve a high level of proficiency in English. However, 23 teachers (43%) thought that the education could help students gain a proficiency in English. The distribution of the teachers' responses was dispersed.

There was a moderate relationship between Item 17 and Item 18 ($r = .433$, $p < .05$). The relationship raised a possibility that the 23 teachers could have responded positively to Item 18 because they had great confidence in the students' capacity for learning, not because they held the university EFL education in high regard. While it could not be understood with certainty what they thought of university EFL

education based on the results alone, the teachers seemed to have a low opinion in general.

Table 4.13
Teachers' Responses to Items on University EFL Education

| # | Response frequency[a] (in percentage) | | | | | M | SD |
	1	2	3	4	5		
18	5 (9.3)	11 (20.4)	15 (27.8)	20 (37.0)	3 (5.6)	3.09	1.09
29	20 (37.0)	24 (44.4)	9 (16.7)	1 (1.9)	0 (0.0)	1.83	.77

Note. [a]1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

When asked whether Korean faculty members and administrators put NESTs' input and feedback into consideration in decision making (Item 29), only 1 teacher answered positively (see Table 4.13). Slightly over 80 percent of the teachers thought that their voices were not sought or reflected in any decision making, possibly feeling that they were not taken seriously as professionals. Simply put, almost all teachers perceived that EFL programs were not inclusive.

NESTs had first-hand knowledge of the students' EFL learning and university EFL curriculums. If NESTs had a feeling that they had had little influence over EFL education at their institutions as the majority of the teachers did, then it could be problematic. With regard to the issue of teacher input and feedback not being taken seriously, female teachers felt stronger than their male counterparts ($F=5.00$ (1, 52), $p<.05$), possibly meaning that the former felt less empowered than the latter.

4.2 Results from Interviews, Classroom Observations, and Field Notes

Findings of the study obtained through naturalistic inquiry are presented below. They are based on interviews, classroom observations, and field notes involving a subsample of NESTs who completed and returned the questionnaire. The subsample consisted of Aaron, Cecilia, James, Kate, Max, and Tina. These teachers were teaching Korean university EFL students (simply referred to as teachers and students, respectively, for readability when possible).

A wide range of topics concerning teachers' perspectives on students' EFL learning are covered here. Teachers talked about issues pertinent to the research questions. In addition, they talked about matters that did not precisely fall within the intended scope of the study but could provide contextual information for deeper understanding of their perspectives on students' learning in the context of university EFL education in Korea.

Specifically, teachers' general attitudes toward students are considered first, followed by their thoughts on students' motivation to learn EFL and possible reasons that could account for the predominant motivation level (Section 4.2.1). Attention is paid to students' vocabulary and grammar knowledge (Section 4.2.2). Students' study habits and learning strategies are examined in Section 4.2.3. Teachers' thoughts on student needs and expectations are described in Section 4.2.4 after addressing the teachers' concerns about generalizing students. Teachers' thoughts are explored on students' engagement in the classroom, as well as their readiness to take EFL classes taught by NESTs (Section 4.2.5).

Then, teachers' thoughts on their own teaching approaches and methods are presented. Their perceived responsibilities in EFL classes are considered in connection with job titles (e.g., Professor, Instructor, and Teacher), accompanied by how they fostered a productive atmosphere and engaged students in learning (Section 4.2.6). Teachers' approaches to vocabulary and grammar teaching are portrayed in Section 4.2.7, as well as their approaches to developing students' language skills (Section 4.2.8). A brief account of teachers' thoughts on university EFL education and their perceived standing is given in Section 4.2.9.

4.2.1   Students and Their Motivation

All teachers conveyed during interviews that they liked students and had a high regard for them. When asked what they liked about students, teachers expressed that they were generally attentive, compliant, cooperative, polite, respectful, and well-mannered. It was clear that teachers had grown fond of students on the whole.

In addition, James made a comment that most students were open-minded and "interested in a wide range of topics" and "quite excited to talk about different topics". He elaborated that the aforementioned qualities could facilitate language learning and teaching because students would open up to diverse topics. He added that another positive quality in students was that they were "willing to pay attention to detail." The quality could help students recognize the subtleties of English in verbal and written discourse.

When teachers were asked to discuss how motivated students were, it seemed that they were hesitant to characterize their motivation in simple terms. Instead of determining students as motivated or unmotivated, teachers, notably James and Kate, put them into several categories to talk about their motivation. The classification system was largely based on source and degree of motivation. The teachers' classification system revealed not only what they thought of how motivated students were but also helped illuminate what they found desirable or unappealing in students' EFL learning. The system also provided a deeper understanding of student needs and expectations (Section 4.2.4).

James said that students fell into three categories of motivation. Although he did not label the categories, they could be labeled as follows: intrinsically motivated, extrinsically motivated, and less motivated. There were some students who were genuinely motivated to learn EFL, and these students were great in that they wanted to learn the language and use it. The students were "like gold for the teacher", as James put it. At a later time, he mentioned in passing that the students in the first category were scarce even though he could usually find a few of them in any class.

The students in his secondary category were not genuinely interested in learning English for communicative purposes but still motivated enough to study it. Specifically, these students perceived English primarily as a qualification needed for academic achievement and employment, and the qualification was typically signified by a good course grade or a satisfactory score on a standardized English test. Having specific and tangible objectives, the students generally did all course work required of them and remained focused until their objectives were achieved. However, with a

narrow focus of interest, the students would not go beyond what was explicitly asked or required of them to meet their objectives.

James stated that many students belonged in the last category and went on to characterize the students in his third category as follows: "A lot of people think that they want to learn English, but they don't really." In other words, many students were not very motivated to learn EFL even though they might acknowledge that they were serious about learning it. The particular finding shed light on the contradictory result regarding the teacher responses to the students' motivation level and their attitudes toward EFL learning, as presented in Section 4.1.1.

To reiterate, students belonged to one of the three categories: intrinsically motivated, extrinsically motivated, and not-highly motivated. James supposed that the motivation-based categorization could help discuss various student needs and expectations across the categories. The categorization appeared to provide a simple, but effective, means of understanding and dealing with students. James added, "The last two types of students are not often bad students." He thought that the students in the last two categories were also perfectly capable, and believed that all students had potential to be successful in EFL learning.

Kate also portrayed students in a similar manner based on their motivation for learning English. Some of her students were taking EFL classes because they wanted to learn to use English as a communication tool in pursuing their personal interests. Kate said that these students were genuinely interested in learning English to interact with people who were not from their own culture. The students could easily fall into the intrinsically-motivated category, as characterized by James.

Kate pointed out that there were some students who were taking EFL classes more or less as a ticket to a successful life in the future, with a belief that a good command of English would enhance their employment prospects. These students were driven to study English for academic and professional purposes. In other words, they studied it because knowledge of it or ability to use it would yield extrinsic rewards.

Kate explained that the students in the two groups had different needs and expectations since their motivation for EFL learning differed. She supposed that different types of English were necessary for students who had different reasons for learning EFL. To illustrate her point, she talked about grammar needs of the students in the first group: "For students who just want English for traveling or interacting with people from other cultures or who speak other languages, they don't need very precise English rules." Although knowledge of very precise grammar rules could be helpful, it was not what these students were looking for. Next, Kate referred to grammar needs of the students in the second group:

> [On the other hand,] for … students who want to continue with their study to get a good job will need very academic English. They need to have strict kind of grammar rules. They need an emphasis on correction of and finding mistakes. (Kate)

Kate stated matter-of-factly that there was another group of students. She elaborated that many students were taking her class mainly because it was a graduation

requirement. She was not overly fond of these students who seemed to care about nothing but a good grade or, even worse, a course credit. In essence, many students belonged in the group and were not very motivated to learn EFL.

James and Kate were of the opinion that the majority of students were not highly motivated, an opinion which was also shared by other teachers. However, there existed a difference in how James and Kate considered less motivated students. James had a positive attitude toward these students. He thought that even the students could be successfully herded back to a learning mood with right maneuvers. He felt that he could successfully engage most of them in learning.

Kate differed in this regard as she thought that making adult students study against their will did not come within the purview of language teachers, an opinion which was also conveyed by Cecilia. It appeared that Kate would not go to great lengths to engage the students who seemed uninterested in the classroom even though she thought that it was sensible to help every student take part in what went on in class. In effect, her sensitivity seemed to hold her back in getting the students involved. In her mind, the students could possibly have been regarded as a lost cause.

There seemed to be another group of students in addition to the students in the three categories that James and Kate cared to describe. There were a small number of students who did not put in any effort to learn EFL, as recognized by James, Kate, and other teachers. James thought that these few students had negative attitude toward learning English by and large. He said that the students' attitude made it difficult for him to reach out to them and draw them out. Unmotivated students formed the last group.

While all teachers acknowledged that students had varying levels of motivation, they mostly talked about less motivated students who were the predominant group. Max was also of the opinion that a good number of first year students were not generally studious: "Like most right-out-of-high-school kids, many of the freshmen are there for a vacation…. They're not there for work." This perspective that many first-year students just wanted to relax and enjoy life was also shared by Cecilia ,who extended this inclination to many second-year students as well.

Cecilia captured the mindsets of students in their classes as follows: "A lot of them come in with this impression of 'now I'm in the university, I don't have to do any work'." She recalled the advice given to her by NESTs who had been teaching Korean students before she came to teach in Korea. She relayed the advice, "The first thing I've got told when I came to Korea was that Korean students have to study English, but they don't want to, and that you have to entertain them in the classroom." She found a part of this advice to be true as she came to see for herself that many students were not motivated to learn EFL, as did other teachers. This particular perspective held by teachers might be prevalent among NESTs, as indicated in Section 4.1.1.

When asked whether they could think of any reason for a low level of motivation in students to learn EFL, teachers agreed upon three compelling reasons: It might be difficult for students to (a) see relevance of English; (b) believe that they could master it; and (c) place a high value on it. To what teachers attributed the low level

of motivation in students is elaborated below.

First, teachers thought that students did not find it relevant to learn EFL. James said that many students failed to see the need to learn English because they did not hear it or get to use it in their everyday life. The lack of exposure to English in daily life could make it difficult for students to see it as a language. Tina shared the view with James that many students did not seem to know why they had to spend so much time and energy studying English that they hardly heard or used outside English classes. It was one thing to be told that English was an important language to learn in connection with the expansion of globalization and internationalization; it was another thing to have experiential knowledge gained from using it to communicate with real people.

Moreover, the formal education system did not promote the idea of English as a language. Max stated that students' pre-collegiate EFL learning, especially high school English learning experience, had exclusively aimed at improving their performance on English tests, especially the English portion of CSAT. As a result, as Max put it, English was taught "with no practical application whatsoever."

Simply put, English was (and still is) an academic subject for many Korean EFL students. Hence, it might be difficult for students to get motivated to learn it as a tool of communication. Max had a strong feeling that students did not necessarily have a clear sense of purpose for learning English: "I think they have this message given to them in vitro [or in vivo], before they were born. They come out [into the world] knowing how important it is [to learn English]. But they don't have a clue [as to] why." Max reasoned: "Nothing in Korea demands English other than English class." As most students scarcely used English for communicative purposes, they were not given an opportunity to see it as a medium of communication.

Max also pointed out that the formal education system had overstressed receptive skills and utterly neglected productive skills while teaching English to-the-test. He was doubtful whether students could learn to communicate in English through the system at all: "Regardless of, I am sure, what professional jargon or terminology, [or] instructors' use of methodology [used in middle and high schools], association with actual language acquisition isn't there."

Second, teachers suspected that students came to believe that they were incapable of achieving a high level of proficiency in English. James suspected that many students did not believe that they could learn to speak English. Many students had been discouraged by their unsuccessful past experience of having tried to learn English (and possibly other foreign languages) in school. James said, "They [many students] know in their hearts that English is too difficult to learn for them." The unhealthy views in many students borne out of the past futile attempts to learn English could stop them from being fully engaged in learning.

As James was walking with the researcher toward his office, he half-jokingly stated that many students had "an animosity toward English language", as recorded in the field notes. He supposed that some students could have felt "tortured" as they were driven to study English against their will. English being an extremely elusive subject to master in the EFL context, he thought that students should not be forced to learn

English unless they were committed.

Third, teachers thought that many students were under the impression that they might not come across a chance to speak English in real life. James articulated: "A certain number of Korean students are genuinely conflicted because there is pressure to learn English. But, in the heart of their hearts, they don't want to learn English very much." In other words, many students recognized why they needed to learn English conceptually but were not fully convinced of the reason. James' words brought to mind what Cecilia said about how students did not want to study English even if they had to. The particular perspective could explain why students were thought to be serious about EFL learning but unmotivated to learn it at the same time (Section 4.1.1).

Despite great social demands placed on students to study English from kindergarten and beyond, teachers believed that many students had never made a strong connection between the demands for English and its usefulness. They were of the opinion that many students were unable to see the prospect of using English or speaking a word of it after graduation. It was understandable to a large extent why many students did not see the value of learning English, as conjectured below by Tina.

> They don't really see it [the prospect of speaking English] in their future. So, they cannot connect what they are doing … [in English classes now with what they might be doing with it in the future]. It's hard for them to think, … "[Does] what I'm doing now really … have [any] value for me in the future?" [A question could arise in their mind,] "So, why put so much effort into this [learning EFL]?" (Tina)

When students could not see usefulness of English in their future, Tina thought that it was natural for them not to place English as a top priority. To illustrate her point, she talked about two departments whose students were usually very interested in EFL classes taught by NESTs: "There is another department who works really hard besides English [Literature and Language] Department. The nurses know that they are going to use English for their profession. So, they take special interest" in EFL learning. With students from the two departments, Tina was able to spend more time for actual teaching without having to waste much time getting them to remain focused in the classroom.

The other teachers agreed that students in certain fields of study tended to be more motivated to learn EFL than students in general. Tina explained that students in certain disciplines were more motivated because English was, and would be, of great value for them, while the same could not be said for many other students who failed to make a connection between social demands placed on them to learn it and the prospect of using it. All teachers seemed to take the view that students who could clearly see the link tended to be more motivated than those who could not. On the other hand, students in some other majors, such as music and fine arts, were generally far less motivated.

Max painted a picture of the young Korean workforce with regard to EFL learning: "They're still scratching their heads trying to figure out why it's global and why it's

so important. [They cannot figure it out] because it wasn't [and has not been a vital part of their life outside school]." Max made a comment, "People in their thirties, they won't even venture 'hello' because they haven't had to speak a word of English since they left their undergraduate English class[es]."

In addition, a few teachers provided another explanation for the low level of motivation. They thought that many students were not very motivated to study on the whole. They suspected that a loss of a clearly-defined direction for students might be another factor that hindered them from being fully engaged in their EFL learning. Max reasoned that many first-year students had no particular purpose in mind for studying: "For so long, the focus was on that [university] entrance …. That was the goal. That was the end."

Although James did not link the loss of a sense of direction in students to why some of them were not highly motivated to learn English, he also recognized that many students, especially first year students, were often unsure of their identity and life goals. James said that students seemed to be under the impression that they would graduate in four years' time and land a lucrative and respectful job: "They're just relaxing through the university to get their job, [the job] that they're inevitably going to get because they think that things have been always this way and always will be this way."

James thought that it was unrealistic for students to expect employment with a high income upon graduation without a good and thorough preparation for a career. Out of awareness that his understanding might be wrong, him being an outsider, James went on to elaborate on his remark as follows:

> I feel that, as opposed to previous generations in Korea which they really needed to work and try hard, the current generation in Korea has never known a situation which wasn't pretty good. There are lots of food, lots of stuff, [and] lots of entertainment. And they haven't seen all the work that needed [to be] done over the last sixty years to create this situation. (James)

James thought that the sooner students realized that they needed to work hard, the brighter their future would be. If students had clear long-term goals, they would strive to acquire knowledge, understanding, and skills that they would likely need to achieve their goals.

4.2.2 Students' English Knowledge

Students generally had a pretty decent body of vocabulary according to Aaron. However, Aaron thought that their knowledge was rather passive in that students recognized English words without being able to come up with appropriate words. He conceived that English words were merely symbols for Korean words to students. When Aaron asked students to come up with a word 'book', he observed that it made a little difference to most students whether they were shown an actual book or alphabet letters spelling book.

Aaron reasoned as follows. This was possibly because students needed to think of a Korean word first before producing the word in English. In other words, Aaron

thought that Korean equivalents were frequently used as intermediaries between English words and what they represented in the minds of students.

Even at the sentence level, Aaron felt that students needed to switch back and forth between Korean and English words. When Aaron put up a question or sentence written in English, many students tended to stare at it while individual English words seemed to be processed and translated back into Korean in their heads. He stated that students were quite good at taking a group of English words, translating individual words back into Korean words, and taking a guess at what a string of the English words could mean literally.

For example, Aaron could put up the following sentence on the board for a group of students: 'I have two black dogs'. Then, the students might process the sentence as follows: "What's a Korean word for have? What's a Korean word for black? What's a Korean word for dogs?" Aaron could take the same words, put them out of order, and write the words on the board for another group of students: 'The black are two dogs I have'. The two groups would experience similar difficulties and come up with the same Korean translation simply because all the words were there. Aaron's experience led to a researcher reflection, as written in the field notes:

> Given that students understand sentences as a sum of discrete words, the process used by them to understand sentences may be of use for getting the gist. However, it would do little good for the purpose of getting a completely accurate meaning out of sentences. This is because the non-systematic process could lead to misunderstanding. It would be beneficial for students to have a good understanding of word functions, order, collocations, etc. How can we help heighten their awareness so that they can make sense of sentences more quickly and precisely? (Researcher reflection)

Aaron pointed out that most students who had been through the formal education system had "no idea of how to construct a sentence" properly. To put it another way, the EFL education system in Korea might have been successful in introducing vocabulary and grammar, but failed to equip students with understanding of how to integrate their knowledge and construct sentences in a meaningful way.

After the classroom observation in Aaron's class, he explained that students could not put together sentences in English despite their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Aaron thought that students did not have the know-how. His comments were jotted down in the field notes as follows: A great deal of vocabulary and grammar has been "thrown at Korean students." Now students are left with tools, but the problem is that they do not know "what to do with the tools" or "how to use the tools". Aaron used the metaphor of tools to characterize students' inability to use the tools. His metaphor produced in the researcher's mind an image of students having building blocks and tools with little clue as to what to do with them.

Another related entry in the field notes had to do with the teachers' thoughts on students' grammar knowledge being impractical and of limited use:

> If students' grammar knowledge was largely theoretical, but impractical, shouldn't they be given an opportunity to revisit the grammar rules that they had

learned? Shouldn't they be given a chance to integrate the rules in a way that can turn them into a good working knowledge to enable individuals to construct sentences with relative ease? How can we [EFL teachers and educators] assist students to (re)learn grammar for practical applications? (Researcher reflection)

When it came to students' inability to make sentences, Aaron was not alone. Tina also acknowledged that students had been exposed to a great deal of vocabulary that they had to memorize. It was easily noticeable to Kate that many students did not know how to use words in context, especially in their writing: "So many times, especially when I'm teaching writing, the students use words out of context." It should be noted that learner mistakes and errors might be more conspicuous in written words, as opposed to words that were spoken but not recorded.

Kate also supposed that some students thought that using "big words" would help them score better, for example, on a written assignment. She thought that complex language that did not help make their message clear should be avoided. Aaron also described how students seemed to do their writing. He thought that students might as well be putting down the words that they knew, or found in a dictionary, as they proceeded with the given task of writing a few paragraphs. To put it another way, students' written work often left an impression on Aaron that they were "in a big hurry" to complete the task without being able to take in the idea that their writing was meant to be read by the teacher and possibly someone else later.

4.2.3 Students' Study Habits and Learning Strategies

Teachers agreed that students did not have good study habits. For example, when students studied English, all they seemed to do was reading texts silently with their eyes. It took a while for Kate to realize that students did not work on their conversation and speaking skills when studying English in their own time. She described how students stared at their course textbook as follows:

> They [students] sit there and … stare at the book for like three to ten hours. They won't even turn a page. [They stare at] the same page for three hours. That doesn't really help them learn [English as a language]. It might help them with some of their grammar, but, in the long term, it doesn't always help. (Kate)

It was puzzling to Kate that many students adopted the same learning approach to acquiring English language as they did with other academic subjects. She stated that learning a foreign or second language was much different than studying other subjects.

Kate questioned what benefits could be conferred on students by scrutinizing English textbooks. She doubted that the students' habit of studying English textbooks in silence with their pencils and highlighters would transform them into fluent English speakers. She would like to see that students were taught better ways of language learning if it were important for them to achieve a higher level of proficiency in English. She thought that students ought to practice speaking English and engage in conversation whenever possible.

Students' heavy reliance on written texts seemed to manifest itself in the classroom, as well. Teachers often had to remind students to take their eyes off the course textbooks and handouts. When James wanted to talk to his students or interact with them, he told his students: "Don't look at your book." When a question was posed after class why he gave the particular instruction, he explained that some students would not lift up their head to look at him or pay close attention to him because they were too busy reading the texts, an explanation which was located in the field notes. It was also observed in Aaron's and Tina's classes that the teachers asked their students to remove their textbooks, notebooks, pencils, and whatever they might have on their desks prior to any speaking and listening activities.

Another consequence of overemphasizing students' reading skills in school was that they could not take advantage of written texts to convey their thoughts. Aaron observed that students had trouble making use of words and expressions available in the text in front of them to express themselves verbally and in writing. Even after spending time to read a paragraph about sports somebody likes to play or activities somebody likes to do, students were not able to talk about sports they liked to play or activities they liked to do, respectively, in Aaron's class. Students could have made use of the same sentence structures in the paragraph right in front of them to talk about their favorite sports or activities; most words and forms that they needed were at their disposal. In essence, students were not able to see or make a connection between what they read and what they are supposed to talk about.

Aaron rationalized the difficulty experienced by students. He suspected that typical Korean high school students had read a great deal of texts written in English with almost no chance of discussing what they read or writing about it. Teachers thought that the whole language approach could help make necessary connections between students' receptive and productive skills. Teachers' perspective on the whole language approach seemed to be shared with a large number of NESTs in principle (Section 4.1.3), even though a balanced coverage of four macro language skills was not always technically feasible.

Typical learning behaviors of students outside the classroom are considered below. Teachers did not think that students generally had good study habits to continue learning EFL outside the classroom. They had a feeling that many students did not study English on their own. Tina put it as follows: "You … have to consider a fact that they are probably not going to spend very much time on English outside the class. That's just the reality. Unless they are English majors, they are not really going to spend much time on it."

For example, based on their observations on how students hardly made use of their office hours that were specifically set aside for individual students, teachers shared a view that students did not seize opportunities to develop their language skills. In connection with their observations, they also expressed that students did not have or exercise healthy learning practices, a finding corroborated the results presented in Section 4.1.2.

Teachers acknowledged that students' university life did not revolve around EFL learning. Tina was aware that students had a great deal of homework from other classes, which often took priority. She also understood that the students' course load

was usually heavy as they took six to eight courses each semester on average. Students' busy schedules notwithstanding, she thought that their study habits did not serve them well. She put it, "Yeah, I don't think they [i.e., students] have a good study habit" for EFL learning. She speculated that they had not had an opportunity to acquire and develop good study habits in school.

Teachers shared a perspective that students did not exercise ownership over EFL learning. Tina reasoned, "They (i.e., students) haven't been given … opportunities to work on something on their own." According to Tina, the students' previous school life had been highly structured toward one common goal (i.e., admission to a prestigious university). Tina elaborated that Korean students in mainstream high schools had been told what to study for and then had been tested on the materials during midterm exams and finals. There was very little time or opportunity for the students to venture outside established curriculums in high schools to pursue their interests or try something different from what every student was supposed to do.

> Basically, from what I understand, an average high school student's schedule is all structured for them with very little time to do a project on their own, to schedule something on their own, [or] make a decision on their own. It seems like so much is controlled, from my perspective, about where they should be and what they should be doing. (Tina)

Aaron was also aware how busy Korean high school students were as they often stayed in school until 11 p.m. or later every week day. He also knew that many of them received additional private education outside of school. He said that many students attended private academies across their residential areas after school, spending time in class (or studying at such designated places as late as 2 a.m.). He added that he understood that some students also received private tutoring at their residences.

Teachers were sympathetic out of awareness that a lack of ownership in students' learning had more to do with their not knowing how to exercise it than their apathy. Students were not used to managing their time and having control over their study because every aspects of life had been managed and decided for them, in many cases, throughout their academic lives. Teachers wished that students could learn to take the initiative and seize opportunities to speak (and write) English whenever possible.

Aaron surmised that the formal education system through which students had been put made it difficult to get them thinking about and forming effective study habits. He pointed out that students had little free time to think about their interests and spend pursuing the interests. He blamed the system for the failure to equip students with effective study habits and learning strategies. He asserted that students who were "fabulous to begin with" should not be held liable for their ineffectiveness.

When asked whether teachers thought that students studied better under pressure, they had mixed feelings about the question. Tina was of the opinion that most of her students would not look at learning materials before the quiz or exam: "If I didn't do the weekly quizzes, so many of them wouldn't look at English at all after class." She felt that many students would only start studying when they were about to be assessed:

They would just try to cram before the exam. That is not especially a good way to learn a language or anything. If you want to learn something, you just cannot do that, especially in a language class…. You just cannot grasp anything in one sitting. (Tina)

Tina took the view that spending even a little bit of time to learn English every day was far better in the long run than studying a large amount of materials "all at once in one sitting." Tina described below how her average students appeared to her during the exam week.

I told them …, "I'm so worried about you, especially during the exam week. I see students walking around like this [mimicking the walk of a zombie]." The visuals make them laugh, but a lot of them just don't sleep [or sleep enough] during the exam week. They're just too busy trying to feed their brain with too much information. (Tina)

Tina was doubtful how information that students committed to their short-term memory during the exam week could possibly serve them in any meaningful way. Tina was convinced that cramming would not work well for language learning: "It's just not worth it. It's just not effective. I think a lot of students follow that strategy. I think it's a wrong strategy." Tina believed that a better approach to language learning was "to look at the material periodically on a routine basis." She felt that basic language learning strategies, such as breaking down learning materials for a periodic review and practice, should be taught to students because they had not picked up the strategies.

When probed further as to whether students performed best under pressure for quizzes and exams, Tina had somewhat ambivalent feelings. She did not think that was the optimal way for students to do their best, even though they had been put in that situation constantly for the most part. She added, "They've learned to deal with it [pressure of doing well on quizzes and tests], you know, just to a great extent. But I don't think they do their best [under pressure of assessment]." Teachers seemed to think that the finest performance would be given by students when they were genuinely motivated to use English.

It was clear that Tina attributed the students' tendency to cram for assessment to the educational context rather than individual students' shortcomings. When it came to quizzes and tests, Tina thought that they were always accompanied by elements of stress that put unnecessary pressure on students to do better than others. Or, as Max put it, assessment could put pressure on students to wish that others would underperform or, at least, perform poorer than them.

Aaron thought that students had "a tendency to wait" until there was an exam because they were "very concerned about tests and grades." He exaggerated the students' inclination, "When they [i.e., students] have a test every week, they come [to class] every week and they study every week. When they have a test twice a semester, they will come twice [to class] a semester and study twice a semester." Aaron felt that the students' tendency to cram was a bad trait. Based on his belief, tests did not provide the opportunity for them to do their very best.

Aaron's reasoning was close to what Tina had to say about the issue in question. He thought that productive studying was about "how often" you studied rather than "how much" you studied. In other words, he thought that studying lightly on a regular basis was far better than studying intensively once in a while: "10 minutes every day, that's 70 minutes; but that's better than two hours once a week. [Or] three hours a week, [an hour on] Monday[s], [an hour on] Wednesday[s], and [an hour on] Friday[s], [for six weeks following the midterm] are much better than 18 hours in the last week of class."

Kate also thought that a majority of students being overly concerned with their course grade inclined to study for quizzes and tests or whatever counted toward their final grade. She felt that this was an unproductive way of learning English, and that was why she strongly disagreed with the statement that students did their best under pressure (Section 4.1.2). She also viewed that the students' inclination to cram was not an inherent characteristic. She believed that it was formed and reinforced by their learning environment: "The only times the students will get grades in the classroom are through quizzes and tests. So, yes, of course, they [quizzes and tests] will seem very important to that kind of teaching style."

Kate acknowledged that students could not help placing little value on 'learning by doing.' In lecture-based classes, students only had their grade to feel a sense of achievement and gauge their success. Kate felt that it was natural for students to place a heavy emphasis on quizzes and tests. Students were accustomed to learning through lectures in the formal education system. After putting forth that students' prior EFL learning through lectures accounted for their behaviors, Kate questioned the value of lecture-based EFL teaching in terms of the development of students' language skills.

Max seemed to differ from Kate and Tina. He thought that it was "an almost universal thing" for students to study when they had to. He attributed the students' inclination to cram for assessment to the basic and inherent nature of being a student. He said, "People don't study nightly. They study under the test. They study before the quiz, when the pressure is on." He posed a hypothetical question of what would happen if the teacher walked into the classroom on the first day and said, "There is no expectation. And there is no demand." He answered his own question after a brief pause. His answer was that there would not be any kind of work or accomplishment to speak of for the entire academic term. He believed that the teacher had to "put the pressure on" students and get them to work.

When Max was a school teacher in his home country, he had a quiz every day in every subject so that his students had to study every night for every subject. This sort of pressure seemed indispensible to Max, especially when students seemed to perceive that the whole point of learning came down to a letter grade at the end−rather than the journey that they and the teacher took together in the course of learning. In other words, Max thought that pressure needed to be put on students to keep them working in consideration of the educational context where the grade point average was the only thing that appeared to matter. He was convinced that quizzes and tests were of necessity for making students study.

When teachers' perspectives on students' learning strategies were explored, they also found their learning behaviors to be ineffective in general. Cecilia thought that a majority of students were unaware of effective learning strategies and/or unable to put them into practice. Teachers believed that students' learning styles were not a great help in their pursuit of learning to communicate, even though their learning behaviors might have served them well on typical tests given in the mainstream school system.

Teachers concurred that students were generally good at recognizing English words and spelling many words correctly. They also agreed that students were often clueless about how to use their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar properly to make sense at the sentence level and beyond. Aaron stated that students had "no ability to communicate or very little ability to communicate" even though they might have "a bunch of words in their heads." Kate figured that the words that students had in their heads were largely of limited use when they could not use them in context.

Tina gave a description of how students typically studied vocabulary. She knew from experience that students used "a long vocabulary list". She described that such a list usually had short Korean equivalents or explanations for given English words so that students could memorize as many words as possible in a relatively short span of time. Students were also known to use flash cards to study vocabulary. Kate made a point that using flash cards did not help them learn words for communicative purposes.

Kate acknowledged that using vocabulary lists or flash cards to memorize words might be beneficial for test preparation: "As you know, on … [typical English] tests [given in Korea], there are English words and Korean translation next to them for multiple-choice questions. The students can just recognize the frequently-used meaning. For that, it's helpful, only for that." Kate put forth that vocabulary learning strategies used by students were virtually useless for practical applications. She said that learning words the way students did was "a waste of time".

Kate elaborated that it was not sufficient for EFL students to learn frequently-used meanings of individual English words without opportunities to see and use the words in context. She suggested that students needed to practice using the words that they studied to be able to use them. She acknowledged that her suggestion would not be easily accepted in the current climate where students were expected to demonstrate their recognition of English words on written tests.

Kate recounted her futile attempts to convince her former employer at a private academy in Korea to cut down the vocabulary lesson from "136 words a week" to about half and just do one lesson a week instead of the two. She remembered seeing her students "sit there just flipping through" a stack of flash cards, and feeling annoyed about not being able to stop them from wasting time and energy. She felt that students were expected to memorize English words in an unreasonable way.

> One of the biggest arguments [I've had with Koreans involved in English teaching has to do with vocabulary learning] since I had worked at the TOEFL academy where the students had a test on 136 [new] words … a week. Studies have repeatedly shown that new vocabulary words most learners could learn in a week for practical application are 25 words. I don't know who came up with

the statistics: "Oh, Harvard students can learn 1,000 words a week." Show me the study. There is nothing that shows [that foreign language learners can internalize so many new words in a short period of time]. It's almost a folk tale that passed down that a good student and a great student can learn 100 words a week and 200 words a week [respectively]. [Is that the case?] Not really, not for practical application. (Kate)

The possibility was raised by Kate that some students might be able to memorize a large number of new words quickly, but these individuals were either extremely intelligent or had "a certain affinity for vocabulary or for that type of memorization." For the majority of students, forcing them to memorize a large number of words in a relatively short time was "completely ineffective".

Kate stated that students were living proof. Students could not construct meaningful sentences with English words they memorized even after spending "hours of their time learning vocabulary." She summed up the fate of English words that students so painstakingly memorized: "Memorize it, … test it, dump [it], [and] gone." She questioned the benefits of rote vocabulary learning when students were not presented with a chance to see the usage of new words and practice using them for communicative purposes.

In essence, most English words that students had learned at the secondary level of education were not "actually connected to any kind of speech" or real language usage, as noted by Max. Aaron thought that students also relied heavily on electronic English-Korean dictionaries, or online translation software in extreme cases, to get their English sentences. That was a reason why the strings of words that students produced made no sense at times. Teachers who cared to talk about students' learning styles were of the opinion that their vocabulary learning had contributed to their not having a working knowledge of English words. These teachers also said that students' learning strategies did not seem to undergo significant changes.

There was a consensus among teachers that students generally did not make productive use of reading skills. Even when students were asked to scan a reading passage and find answers to a few questions, most students would start reading the entire text from the beginning while busying themselves underlining and highlighting words and phrases. Cecilia painted a picture of what might go through the students' mind looking at the passage: "If I don't understand every single word, if I don't sit there with my dictionary and my translator, and if I don't write in Korean exactly every word in English means, then I don't understand it."

Cecilia thought that kind of close reading for the given task was gratuitous and, more importantly, could prevent students from processing a large amount of information in English. Cecilia also suspected that the students' previous learning environment was responsible for many of their ineffective learning strategies:

Again, it's often not their fault. If you grow up being told that this is the way to learn a language, you believe that's the only way to learn the language, you know. If you grow up being told that to pass the exam you need to learn through the direct translation and you need to memorize a series of rules and reproduce them, you'll do that. (Cecilia)

71

Consequently, students could not use English to communicate with people, as put by Cecilia: "When you [i.e., students] get put in somewhere where you actually have to use this language, you cannot do it." Cecilia was offended by the inefficacious pedagogical approaches that had bombarded students in the formal education system. She was annoyed because many students tried "so hard" to learn English, while the odds were stacked against them for becoming successful English speakers if they continued relying on ineffective language learning strategies.

Tina referred to reading for pleasure as another learning strategy that could help build students' reading fluency. She thought that students should try reading English books that they could enjoy. She made an observation that many of her students automatically considered reading classic books when given a chance to talk about English books to read. With classic books, she noted that they would end up spending a great deal of time looking up words in their dictionary:

> If you're going to build your reading fluency, for example, reading simply story books … is what you need to do. That's one strategy that I think my students don't know about. They think reading is [all about] reading a crazy, heavy classic; and most of the time you're reading the dictionary, not the classic. That's not going to do anything for reading fluency. That's not going to do anything for developing love of reading because reading the dictionary is not fun. So, you know, reading for pleasure, I think, is a strategy that may help students. (Tina)

Tina doubted whether Korean EFL students could fully enjoy and appreciate books that they were unable to comprehend without help of dictionaries. Because the classics that students were expected to read were not suitable for beginners, Tina thought that the students' typical approach to reading could actually do more damage than good in the long run. She supposed that students who persistently read books that were too difficult to understand might lose interest in English literature works. She said that students would be better off reading something lighter that they could truly enjoy and easily understand until they were ready to handle more advanced literature works. She added that reading fluency was "really important in language learning."

4.2.4 Students' Needs and Expectations

There was a mutual consensus among teachers that efforts to simplify students' learning could be meaningful to them because a greater understanding would provide a foundation for language teaching well-suited for students. To put it another way, teachers were cognizant that generalization could be of practical value. Nonetheless, when teachers were asked to talk about their perspectives on student needs and expectations, all of them were wary of giving details at first. They were hesitant to make generalizations about students' learning. Teachers gave three reasons behind their reservations.

The first reason given by teachers was that they thought that it was dangerous to pigeonhole students into some kind of arbitrary categories. The teachers' wariness came from their understanding that students' EFL learning encompassed many

widely differing aspects of student life including interests and life goals, as stated plainly by Kate: "I think it depends on the student; I think it's for any group of students. It depends on the person, rather than the students as a group." According to Aaron, there was "a spectrum of the students in any class", meaning that there was a variety of students, for example, with different needs and expectations for studying English.

Max went as far as to suggest that there would be more than 20 different needs in an EFL class of 20 students, for instance. By extension, it was likely that learner needs could be entirely different in another class of 20 students depending on various factors, such as motivation, proficiency level, and fields of study. Max said, "I have trouble with the idea of the whole group thing of Korean students in general."

Second, teachers treaded carefully on the grounds that common characteristics and learner traits found in students might not be unique to them in the sense they might also be observed in university EFL students outside Korea. Kate was of the opinion that students were the same to a greater or lesser extent the world over. She had a feeling that it was the educational context in which students studied that dictated students' learning behaviors. She seemed to imply that students adopted different learning strategies and study habits to succeed in their own particular educational context. She claimed that different contexts could account for differences in student behaviors in different parts of the world.

> I don't think of Korean students as being very different from students in other countries. I think you do have to be aware of the difference in the education system [between] here and other countries.... I think students are pretty much the same everywhere. (Kate)

Kate seemed to be making her remarks based on her understanding of two very different education systems in the United States and Korea. Students in and outside Korea might share certain characteristics and learner traits. For example, many students in the world were visual learners, as pointed out by Max. According to Max, students of the technology-rich generation grew up, watching television and playing computer games, and were accustomed to visual images. The teachers' responses to whether they regarded students as visually-oriented could be considered in this light (Section 4.1.3).

Third, there was a recognition that students' EFL learning was mutable. Cecilia described her former students five years ago: "Most of our students didn't want to learn English, didn't care about English, and had a very low level of English when they came in." She remarked that her present students were still not interested in learning. Then, she commented that her present were different from those whom she taught five years ago, saying, "At the moment, the freshman students don't really see the necessity for it [i.e., learning English], but they're willing to do it. Five years ago, they didn't see the necessity for it and were not willing to do it."

In the eyes of Cecilia, the students she had at present were much more willing to learn English and had a higher level of proficiency in English than the students she taught five years ago. After she acknowledged that the changes in students' willingness and proficiency level were based on her observation (not on any research

findings), she speculated about what brought about the changes:

> You can see changes in students, really, really, very noticeable…. That's reflecting the changes … that the government is trying to bring in changes from low levels from schools: … the way things are taught; … who teaches them; and the input [that] students get. That's … the start of changes. So, when I say that students aren't overly interested in English or don't see the necessity for it, the things are changing. (Cecilia)

Cecilia cautioned that students' learning should be understood in the present context as follows: "That's this generation. Things are changing very quickly. Every generation is [different]." By implication, Korean university students in the past and future could have been and might be different from the students in question with regard to EFL learning.

Having presented the three reasons for why teachers were hesitant to talk about their perspectives on student needs and expectations, their thoughts encompassing both psychological and academic areas are described below. First, teachers sensed that many students had a low level of confidence in their English language skills. James thought that this situation was natural considering that students had "a very limited experience and opportunities to use English". He reasoned, "One tends to be low in confidence in things" that he/she has "limited experience with."

James claimed, "Korean is completely different than English." He was of the opinion that differences between the two languages were not helpful. He made a comparison: "A Spanish speaker has a much easier time learning English simply because the structure of the language is more similar [and because] the structure of culture is more similar." Being aware of how English education was conducted in the formal school system, James felt that it was understandable for most students to have a relatively low level of proficiency in the language.

Second, students needed to feel a sense of belonging in EFL classes taught by NESTs. James knew from his experience that the big fear for any learner of a foreign language was to be placed in a situation where they had to use the language. He thought that this fear was felt widely by students because, as he put it, most people generally felt more incompetent than competent. Hence, he thought that it was imperative for students to have a sense of belonging to a point where they felt comfortable enough to participate. He said, "Nobody wants to feel that they are completely apart from the group [or that] they don't belong in the class. That's a pretty reasonable expectation." He added that this sense of inclusiveness was vital for many students in Korea and neighboring countries, such as China and Japan. He reasoned that the East Asian culture, or his impression of the culture, was that people had the expectation of not being left out.

Third, students needed to feel safe enough to articulate their thoughts and opinions. James felt that they needed to understand that they could freely articulate their thoughts and feelings in class, irrespective of how good or bad they deemed their English was. James said, "Some of them need to become … fully aware that … they can be part of" class discussion. Max put forth that students should be given "permission to be wrong" and "permission not to know fully" in an explicit manner.

James suspected that students often shied away from expressing themselves largely because their English was not perfect. He had a feeling that students' reluctance was unwarranted because he thought they were quite intelligent and capable of expressing much of what they wanted. He put forth that it was the teacher's job to draw out students and allow them to make contributions to class in their own way: "Even in a language they're learning, they can be a part of it [i.e., class discussion] in a simpler way than they can in their native language. They still can be a part of that discussion." He felt that students could successfully share their thoughts on what was happening in the world with their classmates.

Fourth, students needed extra time to formulate and articulate their thoughts in English. Max stressed the importance of giving students extra time to help them process and produce words in English. Max stated, "With most learners [of foreign languages] well through the intermediate level, there's still that translation going on whether they're doing thinking in their own language or reformulating." He claimed that students needed "translation time" or "mental processing time". He elaborated what he meant by the mental processes involved in EFL comprehension and production: "They hear English, convert it to Korean, formulate their answer in Korean, convert it back to English, and then give it to you." Being aware of the need for extra mental processing time, Max made a practice of allowing extra time in his class.

Max supposed that inexperienced NESTs, being unaware of this need, might inadvertently pass up a chance to hear what some students had to say, especially when no reply seemed to be forthcoming as promptly as anticipated. Until students were ready to think in English and speak it spontaneously, Max stressed that NESTs should allow a little longer response time than normally required during everyday conversation between native speakers. He added that it would take some years for students to begin thinking in English, reflexively. He stressed, "That is what learners of a second [and foreign] language do for many years."

Fifth, teachers thought that students needed to see that English was a tool of communication. Max thought that many students needed to find "some reasons why English could be important to them" and develop "a sense of practicality of English". After admitting that he found this need "very, very hard to address" in his limited capacity as a teacher, Max shared that he tried to make English relevant by having students use English to express their thoughts and opinions, as opposed to merely teaching them 'survival English' or 'practical English'.

Max hoped that students would go out and experience using English outside school if possible. He thought that students would learn "the outside English" used in the real world, which was sometimes much different than "the in-class English". Additionally, he thought that an opportunity to use English in the real world could make it authentic for students. Kate recounted how she used to be a member of a club where Koreans and non-Koreans met together to socialize and engage in outdoor activities. She said that students could easily join clubs and organizations where English was the medium of communication. She recognized that it might be difficult for students who lived in rural areas.

Aaron and James also agreed with Max in this regard but slightly differed in that they specifically referred to non-native English speakers as potential conversational partners. This was because it was more likely for students to have chance encounters with a non-native English-speaking foreign national than a native English speaker in Korea. Moreover, it would be easier for students to converse with non-native English speakers because the levels of proficiency in English would be close for the two parties, as pointed out by James. Teachers took the view that students should speak (and write) English whenever possible if they were serious about learning to use it.

Sixth, teachers thought that students had a need to have their work counted toward their course grade. Tina had a feeling that many students "just put too much emphasis on the number and the grade." She surmised that "the number, [or ultimately] the grade" was perceived to be very important by students. She had a suspicion that many of her students felt that they were doing something valuable only when they were working for the grade. She revealed her sentiment that the grade was the only thing that made class work worthwhile to her students in general:

> What I found is that there is a certain thing that does make them [i.e., students] want to come to the class and care about what they are doing, and … that motivates them to finish the task and to accomplish something. It has a lot to do with their grade, the number. That matters a lot to them. (Tina)

All teachers were concerned about how students were often fixated with their course grade rather than actual learning. They thought that students' fixation with the grade had negative consequences. Tina got the sense that students often lost sight of the real reason why they were doing all the things in EFL classes. She thought that many students got on with their class work without thinking about the essence of class work.

Max also speculated that many students did their course work because that was expected of them. Under the impression that the grade that they received was the sole measure and indicator of their achievement, many students had a tendency to place greater importance on assessed tasks and assignments before other kinds of tasks that were not evaluated but could help improve their language skills. Max accounted for students' behaviors as follows:

> Um, they don't always connect their activities as part of learning process. That synapse doesn't fire there. It's more to please the teacher or keep the teacher off their back than for actual learning. But, in that sense, they're youth. They haven't come to own their own educational process. (Max)

Max voiced his concern that students paid a disproportionate amount of attention to their grade. Max called this drive in students "dissociated concern for success". He explained, "By that, I mean … [success] isn't truly associated with success in learning the language. It's associated with the grade you get."

Aaron also felt that many students did their work without giving careful thought to what course work meant to them. He gave an example that illustrated the point. He asked students to describe their hometown in two or three paragraphs. Instead of writing the paragraphs so that their writing was readable and interesting for readers,

many students seemed to put together a string of sentences that made little sense or revealed little about their hometown.

> It's … just a hodge-podge of sentences slapped down on the paper. [Some students might have been thinking,] "Um, it could or couldn't be true about my hometown. I'm just putting it down because maybe this is grammatically correct and these are the words that I'm most comfortable using." [They write for example,] "My hometown is quiet. There are a lot of people in my hometown." Well, how do these sentences connect? These sentences do not seem to connect meaning-wise. (Aaron)

Aaron gave his speculation as to why many students would frequently do incomprehensible and uninteresting compositions when asked to write about a topic following a series of lessons on the topic:

> Sometimes, … the students who are fixated on the grade and getting … [the task] done lose out on the meaning-aspect or the purpose of the assignment. They lose out on accomplishing something that's actually true. It doesn't really matter [to them] how interesting [or uninteresting] this paragraph is or if it's true or not. (Aaron)

Aaron thought that it was not a matter of whether students had, or lacked, an ability to write in English; it was more of whether they could see beyond the requirement to include details that were intriguing and true. He supposed that students who spent time writing informative and meaningful paragraphs would "leave feeling a much greater sense of achievement than" those who rushed to get it done. He did not see how students' spending half an hour to an hour writing a couple of paragraphs that did not hold any personal meaning could be of value to them. Many students were thought to carry out their work for the sake of getting it done, as opposed to trying to convey their original thoughts and true feelings in English.

Tina took the view that it was not a flaw in students. She said, "It's a universal problem" as "any student can fall into that trap" of forgetting about the essence of assignment or work. She explained that the obsession with the grade could easily happen when the society seemed to acknowledge and reward only the end result, but not the process of achieving that outcome.

All teachers thought that students' interest in their grade was a factor that could be used to hold them accountable for coming to class and doing class work. Max commented on the students' fixation with the grade, with a hint of mockery in his voice, "It is a good trait that they at least care about their grade." He said that the students' interest could work as an incentive for them. He thought that NESTs could and should take advantage of this interest to manage class and help engage those who were not highly motivated to learn EFL.

Teachers seemed to have their system built in for turning students' fixation to advantage, even though they found the attachment distasteful. For example, Cecilia and Max kept track of the students' participation, or the lack thereof, in class to encourage them to take part in class. As another example, Aaron and Tina gave a quiz in the beginning of every class so that students would come to class on time to

take the quiz as scheduled.

The last point to be covered in this section was about NESTs' awareness of student needs and expectations. Kate had some general and vague ideals about needs of students as EFL learners. However, she admitted that she did not know specific needs of individual students since she did not receive (or ask for) that kind of feedback from them. The position taken by her might be representative of the feelings of the teachers who did not agree about possessing awareness of student needs (Section 4.1.3).

4.2.5 Students' Participation and Readiness

There was a general consensus among teachers that a majority of students did not volunteer to give a response or take an active role in class. Teachers did not necessarily believe that students were inherently reticent and unresponsive, as many students who were relatively advanced were more apt to come forward and play an active part in the classroom. However, teachers felt that it would further facilitate students' learning if they were less restrained and became more talkative in EFL classes.

When asked to express her thoughts on students' reluctance to participate observed in EFL classes, Cecilia raised the possibility that this silence could be understood from two different angles, depending on which perspective the issue was approached from. She suggested that the students' silence could be seen as a lack of interest from NESTs' perspectives: "If I'm approaching it from a Western perspective, then yes, their silence indicates a lack of interest." However, being well-acquainted with her students and their culture, Cecilia knew that her students remained silent because that was the only way that they knew how to behave when paying attention to the teacher: "If I'm approaching it from the Confucian perspective, which people say the Korean culture is based on or strongly influenced by, their silence shows their respect for me and shows their immense interest in what's going on."

Cecilia clarified how silence could be interpreted. "Western teachers think [that] the students are not interested, and Korean teachers assume that, if the students are silent, they are very interested and attentive." She reiterated, "Silence means different things" to different people. She explained that was the reason why she chose 'neither disagree nor agree' as to a question of whether the students' silence meant a lack of their interest (Section 4.1.2).

According to Cecilia, the students' silence might hold a particular meaning to those who were unfamiliar with the students' culture, a meaning which differed from what it signified to those who were well familiar. Cecilia thought that it needed to be interpreted carefully alluding to NESTs' cultural predisposition to regard the students' reluctance as indifference to what went on in the classroom.

In addition, James found that the in-class behavior of students did not serve them well. Not only did most students tend to shy away from taking an active role but they were also prone to lower their voices to a whisper when asked to repeat what they just said, according to James. He found this particular behavior irritating because the student's hushed response always made it "more difficult to hear." He reasoned that

students automatically made an assumption that they were being called upon again for their mistakes when his primary intention was to understand them.

For James, what his students said was far more important than how they said it or how grammatically correct their sentences were (even though there were occasions when he paid special attention to grammar). James suspected that his students prayed that their mistakes would go unnoticed by the teacher and their classmates by "not speaking loudly enough." This "inhibition", as he called it, to mumble rather than speak up, was an unhealthy behavior. While it was understandable that some students might feel self-conscious, uncomfortable, or embarrassed, James thought that they should overcome this inhibition and speak loud enough for interlocutors to hear their words clearly.

A question posed was whether teachers thought that students were ready to take EFL classes taught by NESTs. All teachers agreed that students, including fresh-out-of-high-school students, were generally ready to take the classes. Teachers explained that students were ready, in the sense that any EFL/ESL students, young or old, were.

Max knew from personal experience that students should be in the classroom where English was the only medium. He recounted his childhood experience of being in his foreign language class for the very first time back in his home country. He highlighted that his teacher started speaking French on day one when nearly all students had no prior exposure to the language. He firmly believed that EFL learning should be carried out in such a manner where the entire class was conducted in English. He thought that NESTs could provide such an environment where students could learn English by using it in a meaningful way.

Teachers regarded that English teaching given in Korean high schools was of little value. Max described his impression of how most Korean high school students learned English as follows: "In high school, they raised their hand to ask about English in Korean and were told an answer in Korean." He supposed that even average high school students ought to realize that the way English was taught in school was "ridiculous": "If they had a half brain, they must have thought, 'What the hell we're doing with this English …[stuff]', because our actual communication is in Korean about English."

Max believed that students received the greatest benefits from experiential learning, as opposed to knowledge-based learning that they had been accustomed to in their formal education system. In Max's classes, his students had to speak English with him if they needed to communicate with him, a prevalent situation in classes taught by NESTs. He supposed that the presence of an NEST as the teacher gave students a real purpose to put their thoughts and opinions into English words.

Max noticed that his students got excited when they were able to express themselves in English and be understood. He believed that his students "beamed" because they knew that they had successfully communicated in English, not because their English was flawless. He estimated that it might "actually click for about 30 percent" of his students when they realized for the first time that they could communicate in English successfully.

James gave a reason why he thought that students were ready to work with NESTs. He considered that many students possessed background knowledge (e.g., vocabulary and grammar) that was well beyond what they needed to express themselves, even if they were unable to integrate their knowledge and make use of it to express themselves in English properly.

> You know, generally speaking, I think they [students] are [ready to be taught and work with NESTs]. Their background knowledge in English is much beyond what they need to do, much more than they are generally able to do in terms of using English, whether that being written composition or spoken discourse. So, they already have background knowledge which is greater than what they need to do or more than what they can do [in terms of using English]. (James)

Interestingly, Aaron took the view that the question into whether or not students were ready to learn from NESTs was misdirected because he felt that it should be a matter of whether NESTs were ready to provide teaching tailored to students. He added, "Everybody is ready to learn English if the teacher is prepared to run the class correctly." He stressed that the language teacher was responsible for preparing and delivering teaching suitable to learners. If an NEST conducted the class suitable for his/her students, Aaron was confident that the teacher and students would have "a great class".

However, when an inquiry was made whether students, fresh-out-of-high-school students in particular, could take full advantage of EFL classes taught by NESTs, all teachers were rather hesitant to take a positive stance toward the question. After careful analysis of teachers' explanations, they were not forthcoming on three accounts. The following could be extracted from the teachers' words: Many students were (a) not particularly motivated to learn EFL (Section 4.1.1); (b) unfamiliar with NESTs' teaching; and (c) unable to converse in English. In essence, teachers thought that students would gain more from the classes if they were more motivated and better prepared.

Kate and Max expressed that they could not afford to extend special attention to students who were uninterested in doing work when there were others (who were relatively motivated and interested) to take care of in the classroom. While Max tried to give all students, motivated or otherwise, equal opportunities to practice and participate in his class, he supposed that students who were highly motivated to learn tended to make the most of opportunities to converse and interact with him. He said, "Given that factor [that some students are not very motivated], the remaining ones that are able to be intrigued, involved, and engaged in this learning process…. make the most of the NEST."

As a measure of preparing students for EFL courses taught by NESTs, a possibility was raised to teachers of availing one or two preparatory classes. If students could take the preparatory class(es) in advance, they would have a chance to become familiar with NESTs' teaching and further develop their language skills. Max found the proposal unreasonable on the grounds that the classes – making an assumption that Korean faculty members would teach these courses – would never serve the purpose of familiarizing students with NESTs' teaching styles or developing the

students' language skills.

Max strongly opposed the proposal by taking a position that fresh-out-of-high-school students should be in EFL classes taught by NESTs. He thought that students did not deserve to take more "dull and boring" English classes that stressed knowledge acquisition and memorization, referring to English classes taught by Korean English teachers and faculty members. He saw no need to have delivery of EFL education provided by NESTs postponed. He gave two reasons.

First, most first year students had some knowledge to start with. Max put it, "Right out of high school at least they have their vocabulary, even if they mispronounce a lot." He thought that it would be prudent to capitalize on students' knowledge about English to develop their skills rather than let it go to waste. He felt that fresh-out-of-high-school students had an edge over returnees or transfer students who had not studied English for some years and who had likely forgotten "whatever grammar or whatever vocabulary or whatever value they did get out of high school English."

Second, Max reasoned that students were still in the learning mode. Cecilia also thought that many students still had "a let's work hard" mentality carried over from their high school years and were able to continue working hard if challenged in the right way. Teachers, including Cecilia and Max, had a strong opinion that fresh-out-of-high-school students should be in EFL classes taught by NESTs, not by Korean faculty members.

Instead of the preparatory class(es), teachers suggested that NESTs could provide additional support and time that could ease students into EFL classes. James acknowledged that students who had not had a chance to interact with NESTs in the past might need more time to adjust to the classes, whereas students with prior experience could perform well from the outset. It should be noted that the teachers' suggestion was in contradiction to the actualities of teaching where it was difficult for them to extend special help to less motivated and unmotivated students, as pointed out earlier by Kate and Max.

James was inclined to think that many students had no prior experience of having NESTs as their English teachers or, more accurately, fully interacting with NESTs. He hastened to add that he could not be certain: "I haven't really tried to keep track of that [whether students had prior experience or not] very much. I don't really ask, or take a survey of, the students to find out who has and hasn't. So, it's just a general impression." Having taught hundreds of first year students who showed no sign of prior experience of working with NESTs, James acknowledged that students could use additional support and time until they became familiar with NESTs' ways of conducting class. He thought that it would be worthwhile for NESTs to offer special guidance and support to help students orient themselves to NESTs' teaching.

> Teaching methods in a Korean classroom is quite different than teaching methods in a typical Western language classroom or a typical Western classroom in general. So, I think that some [students] take a bit of time to adjust. (James)

In addition, teachers took the view that students could fare better in EFL classes taught by NESTs if they had better verbal skills and ability. James put forth that a main reason why many first year students had trouble in the classes was that the classes were conducted entirely in English. He said, "If they haven't experienced English teaching situations in which the teacher was speaking only in English and if they haven't had a native speaker, I think that's usually true." Simply put, he thought that students were not able to comprehend NESTs' instructions, explanations, and questions.

Moreover, teachers knew that the classes would better serve students if they could express themselves in English to the extent to which meaningful teacher-student and student-student interactions were attainable. Teachers were well aware that their work entailed engaging students in conversation in English, as presented in the following section. However, owing to the students' inability to speak English and converse in it, the degree of classroom interactions remained superficial. James acknowledged that students could have a better learning experience in the classes if they came better prepared.

In this regard, English learning and teaching at the pre-tertiary level of education was not to the teachers' liking. All teachers could not see the point of how students' knowledge of English had been enlarged in the formal education system while their ability to use the language practically had been neglected. While they agreed that students were ready to be in classes taught by NESTs and should take the classes as early and much as possible, they were of the opinion that students were far from being well prepared to take most benefit from NESTs and their services.

4.2.6 Teachers' Perceived Roles and Responsibilities

Kate thought that the teacher had a strong influence over how students learned and performed in class. She knew from personal experience that a good teacher could have a positive impact on students. She said, "If you have a teacher that is invested and interested and approachable, you'll do better in the classroom just because you want to learn." The "ideal teacher" in her mind had personal qualities that were intriguing, exciting, and energetic in nature. Kate said that the ideal teacher could generate interest in students and inspire them to work hard. Kate accentuated the important role of the teacher.

Kate recounted her experience of having a professor who piqued her interest: "In the most difficult class I've ever took, the professor was wonderful and very interesting. It was lecture, and there wasn't a lot of interaction. But I worked so hard in that class because I was interested and the professor was very interesting." Kate then brought up a hypothetical situation where the teacher was "very quiet or just boring or just not interesting" or did not seem to be putting in that much of an effort. She supposed that it would be difficult for students to "put effort into that kind of class".

In this light, how NESTs considered their role in EFL classes was explored. When asked about whether teachers considered themselves as a professor, it was clear that all of them would rather not be called or identified as such. They were certainly aware of the custom that those who taught at Korean universities were normally given the title 'Professor'. Teachers did not think of themselves as professors since

their primary responsibilities entailed teaching and developing the students' language skills. As pointed out by James, NESTs' responsibilities had little to do with scholarly work that a researcher or academician would normally pursue in a field of study.

All teachers invited students to call them by their first name, even if most students were used to calling teachers 'Teacher' in school and 'Professor' at university. Unlike most teachers who were flexible in how they were called by students, Max was pretty strict: "No. I don't tolerate that word [i.e., teacher] at all. I don't. If they call me 'Teacher', I ask them if they wet their pants because that's a baby word. That's like [them calling for] mommy, mommy [in the times of need]." Max reasoned with his students: "I gave you a privilege on the first day on my syllabus of calling me by my [first] name. Accept that privilege. I'm not a title. I'm not an institution. I'm a person with a name."

Although Aaron did not make an issue of students calling him 'Teacher' or 'Professor', he also preferred to be called by his given name. He explained, "I would feel uncomfortable if they started calling me 'Professor' …. I'm … [Aaron]. I've always been … [Aaron]. My personality is just a casual guy. I don't want to be above them." Aaron clarified that more than his personal preference was involved in why he did not want to be addressed as 'Professor'. He explained that it was mutually beneficial to have an open relationship with EFL students so that everyone could freely converse without interference of a hierarchy-bound role paradigm.

> Because this is a conversation class, we should just be able to talk to each other. We have enough problems. English isn't their first language. I don't speak Korean. We have enough problems [at hand]. The last thing we need is them feeling like 'I cannot say that to him. He is a professor. I have to be a certain way.' (Aaron)

Max pointed out that NESTs at large did not lecture, implying that calling them lecturers would be improper: "What I do is never lecture: It's a lesson to be learned, but not lecture." Max suggested that the most appropriate term, for the lack of a better term, was 'Instructor'. He said, "At this level, I'll call myself and all of us [i.e., NESTs] Instructor [who teaches the language]." He elaborated, "Like you wouldn't call a flying instructor a teacher, even though they're teaching. They are instructors." He took the view what NESTs primarily tried to do was to develop the language skills of students.

Aaron agreed with Max to an extent, as he also thought that language teaching was chiefly about developing the students' language skills by training them with hands-on exercises and pushing them to do more and more over time – just as a coach would do to develop the skills of athletes. James was also in agreement with Aaron and Max with regard to how NESTs were supposed to develop the students' skills. James saw a commonality in the work of NESTs and some other professionals (e.g., a basketball coach and a piano teacher) whose primary goal was to let learners practice their skills. James supposed that the professionals' motive for giving instruction would be to facilitate skill development.

However, James identified himself more as a teacher than an instructor. He explained, "I think of myself as a teacher because language teaching is an art. The term 'teacher' expresses that idea. The word teacher has a certain amount of respect and existed for a long period of time." To him, the term instructor did not do justice to his profession because language teaching was not about providing an instruction of "the very exact way of doing something" as required in teaching how to taxi, take off, fly, and land an airplane. If a trainee were to exactly follow a set of instructions given by a flying instructor of what to do, he/she could fly a plane. In such a situation where a person had to fly an airplane, there was no margin for creativity. Conversely, despite some rules in English, there were unlimited ways of expressing oneself by combining words and phrases. In this sense, learning and teaching a foreign or second language was more complicated than that involved in flying a plane.

Cecilia was aware that there was a body of NESTs who believed that their role was to entertain and babysit students, as opposed to teaching them and developing their language skills. Cecilia disagreed with the notion that NESTs had to entertain students. She said that it did not take long to come to a realization that students needed not be entertained or babysat. Although she recognized that it was helpful for an NEST to be affable, friendly, and good-tempered, she believed that a majority of students would put in effort to learn if the teacher did a good job of teaching.

Cecilia was convinced that the notion of NESTs as entertainers and babysitters was not "correct all the time" but still propagated widely among NESTs teaching in Korea. She understood why a number of NESTs might still "see their job as entertainers." She explained, "I think it comes from [a situation where] a lot of teachers that I worked with in Korea taught only in Korea [or for a relatively short period of time]. So … as far as I'm concerned, which is a very nasty thing for me to say, they don't really know how to teach."

James talked about how students might appear to enjoy being entertained or appreciate the teacher who made class work easy for them. He gave a word of warning by pointing out how easy it was to be fooled by the appearance. He put forth: "A real teacher has to show that he has certain expectation" of his/her students and make them work to meet the expectation. He knew that some students did come to class ready to work hard and expecting to learn something of value, even though they might not care to express the expectation openly.

According to Cecilia and James, students were keen to discern how much effort their English teacher put in and able to pick up on the teacher's true intentions. Then, students would respond accordingly (even though they hardly ever verbalized their true feelings). The teachers firmly believed that NESTs who cared and were committed to teaching earned students' deep respect. It should be mentioned that teachers in the study were committed to developing the students' language skills and not afraid of demonstrating their commitment in their classes by ensuring that students had challenging work to do.

In contrast, students had little respect for NESTs who shortchanged or wronged them, especially if they had already had more than a few NESTs to draw comparison. Cecilia and James warned that NESTs who adhered to the entertainer role were in danger of conducting class only to pass time, without paying attention to whether

students learned something of practical value in their classes.

Max agreed that teaching EFL was not about entertaining students. As he talked about NESTs' teaching after a follow-up interview session, he spoke of the danger of the mistaken role assumption to the following effect. If NESTs thought their job was all about entertaining students, they were setting the low expectation of their students and themselves from the outset. With a pensive look, he went on to convey that he had a concern that EFL teachers, including NESTs, might have fallen short of setting high standards for students. He reasoned that it was only natural for people to slouch back in the absence of clear and compelling reasons to sit straight.

Max put forth that NESTs should give a real chance for students to succeed and excel as EFL learners. Success in EFL learning and teaching would come to realization when NESTs raised standards and inspired students to exceed high standards (rather than "dumbing down lessons" and entertaining them). Max supposed that students' low proficiency in English might have been partly owing to NESTs' inability or unwillingness to present challenges.

Other teachers also thought that NESTs generally needed to raise standards even if it was easy (and sometimes necessary) to have low standards for students in consideration of their motivation level and language skills. All teachers took the view that NESTs needed to set reasonably high standards and challenge students to meet the standards rigorously. When NESTs made their class challenging, but manageable, students would also experience a sense of achievement and gain confidence in their ability to use English, as pointed out by Tina.

While there could be a certain preference among NESTs to be called Professor, Instructor, or Teacher, discussion on which title best described the nature of NESTs' work might be of little consequence. However, discussion on why some preferred one title over another could be quite revealing as to their perspectives on what their job entailed. To reiterate, teachers saw themselves as facilitators who endeavored to develop the students' language skills by promoting the idea of learning by doing in the classroom.

Having examined how teachers identified their role, how they created and fostered an atmosphere where they could perform their role was explored next. Teachers placed a great value on having an environment conducive to language learning and teaching. What was interesting was that all teachers thought that it was their responsibility to provide such an environment, as corroborated by the results in Section 4.1.5. Given that an NEST was competent and attuned, Tina believed that he/she would successfully carry out that responsibility: "I think that if the teacher knows what he or she is doing and knows the students, then it's really his/her job to make it comfortable enough for the students to perform and feel good about performing. It's just [that] the teacher needs to set that [atmosphere] up appropriately."

While James thought that keeping one's class orderly was important, he put forward a point that creating "a good atmosphere" was far more important than classroom management. He thought that students should perceive that they were in a place where people enjoyed talking to each other. He went on to accentuate this point by sharing the rationale behind an enjoyable atmosphere as follows:

85

If people enjoy the class, that's actually half of the battle, because, if they enjoy [it], they start to forget [that they are in class] practicing English. And they start to get caught up a little bit in the activity of class. And that's when people really learn to speak. You know, they forget that they're studying the English language. But they start using the English language because they're talking about something [that they want to talk about]. (James)

James had a belief that language learning would start to happen on its own if the teacher created an environment where students could relax and talk to satisfy a basic human need (i.e., to express themselves and be heard). He pointed out that the learning process and outcome would be far better for students when they could spontaneously talk about things they felt like saying in comparison to a situation where students were told to talk for the sake of talking in default of real interest.

In an ideal class, there was virtually no need for the teacher to awaken interest in students and make efforts to get them engaged in classroom activities, as plainly explained below by James, because they were doing something to meet their own needs, not the teacher's nor parents' expectations.

They [i.e., students] start to use the language the way that we really do use the language [in the real world].… Instead of modeling language, it actually becomes using the language. It often takes a while to get there. That's the goal to get to where people actually just use the language. That kind of practice time is gold for students because they are not living in a place where they can go outside and speak English in a natural situation. (James)

James added that even students who were unable to understand exactly what was going on in the classroom could "be carried along to a certain extent" by an enjoyable atmosphere. He said that it was "fine for them to be carried along" because it was often impossible for them "to understand everything" that was going on. He thought that it was more helpful to include the students in action than leave them to remain feeling excluded and hapless. For instance, when a student was not clear why other students "busted out laughing", James felt that it might feel all right for the student to "giggle along" or ask around to find out what was so funny. James knew from experience that students' general understanding of what was happening in class produced a good climate.

James was of the opinion that the teacher had to help students understand what was happening as much as possible: "It's the teacher's responsibility to try to make the class accessible enough that they don't feel lost for most of the time." James thought that students would not be able to be part of class if it were too difficult for them to grasp what was going on in the classroom. He said that letting students make contributions to the class (in their own way) as much as possible could also nurture a sense of belonging.

After a moment of reflection, James remarked that the teacher's disposition could have an influence on the class atmosphere. He said that his disposition to be easily amused and laugh whole-heartedly had been helpful in setting the tone for his classes. He explained that his easygoing and relaxed disposition had helped loosen up

students by letting them see that it was okay to enjoy the class. Max used the word "cheerleading" to describe this aspect of teacher responsibility involved in getting his students enthusiastic about in-class tasks and activities. He believed that "a natural friendliness" that he had was an asset when he tried to carry this responsibility of providing an amicable environment.

Max thought that it was important to assure students that it was acceptable to convey their opinions and thoughts freely. His idea about the students' prior learning environment was as follows: "No Korean high school teacher asks you to raise your hand and [tells you to] 'give me your idea that might be wrong or that might be right.' [It is more like,] 'Raise your hand when you know … [the right answer].' 'Give me … [the answer].'" He thought that students had these unwholesome notions that there was only one right answer and that they could contribute to the class only when they had the right answer. Max was of the opinion that "the idea of building within" the student body was "the way to go" instead. He explained as follows:

> Somebody adds their two cents, somebody adds their two cents, and somebody adds their two cents. And you have six cents, more than any had individually, when you're communicating with each other. So, I don't ask anyone for the six cents. I ask three students for only two cents each: the part they know. You don't have to know the whole thing. So, that's a kind of a backdoor way of actually getting to the problem and getting over it. The idea, if you will, of contributory learning. Everybody gets to contribute a little. You bring the flour. I bring the sugar. Somebody brings the eggs. And we've got a pie out of it. (Max)

To real world problems that were complex in nature, there were often multiple solutions that needed to be considered concurrently to come up with a solution or compromise that was satisfactory to concerned parties. Max thought that it was ill-advised at best to promote the idea of universal truths (even if it was still embraced in narrower fields of study, such as mathematics and sciences). He also thought that students could contribute to the class irrespective of whether the answers they had were right or not.

Students needed to learn how to work out problems together with others, and Max thought that this need ought to be addressed in school. Max had the feeling that NESTs could play a role in helping students to see that they could share their knowledge with one another to have a better grasp of various issues and effectively deal with them. With a realization that it was safe for students to share their thoughts and opinions with the teacher and their classmates, they would feel more comfortable to take an active role in class.

To create a productive environment, Tina asserted that it was important for students to have "a combination of feeling safe and also feeling challenged" in the classroom. She emphasized that there was a real need to instill in the students a sense of "being in a safe place", and her emphasis stemmed from her understanding that they often did not trust the teacher to help them learn.

To put it another way, Tina fostered this sense of trust consciously because some students were thought to have a distorted image of English teachers. She elaborated

that some students seemed to have this bizarre image of English teachers who waited for them to walk straight into traps laid by none other than the teachers themselves, who were then quick to scold them for being so careless to fall into the traps.

Tina instilled a sense of safety in students by structuring her class so that they had a good idea of what they would do from the beginning to the end of every class session. Tina believed that having a routine was helpful. She elaborated as follows:

> Something that keeps the momentum in my class going is that they [i.e., students] have an idea about the plan, the general lesson plan. They know that they're going to have the quiz in the beginning. So they'd better be there on time before it starts, before that quiz starts. They're going to have time to negotiate their grade for the week's previous quiz. And there is going to be a lesson, and it's going to connect some way to a lesson beforehand. There is continuity. (Tina)

Tina thought that the routines established in her class gave her students a sense of safety. She said, "… there is this general feel for the lesson plan and what's going to take place." Additionally, she thought that her students could remain focused in each class owing to the way in which a series of in-class activities were linked together toward the last activity. On the last activity, the students had to produce two to three paragraphs, possibly using vocabulary and grammar structures covered during the class. Tina thought that having the students put together what they knew and what they learned that day was a great way to end a lesson.

> I think they [i.e., her students] get the sense of somewhere in the semester [that] there is a connection between one lesson and the other so that there is a sense of comfort. [They might be thinking in class,] "I know something. I can do this. It's familiar. There is something little new that is coming to play, but I know I can get excited about that." And there is always a cumulative activity at the end where everything is brought together …. They know they need to work hard to get the last activity done because, if they do it, then their effort will show in the next week's quiz. (Tina)

The students in Tina's class also knew that they had to reproduce the paragraphs that they wrote the previous week (or that they had revised since then) in the beginning of every class. Tina thought that this exercise that she called 'quiz' also helped maintain continuity from class to class. This approach she took ensured that every effort her students put in was counted for. Tina thought that her approach worked well because the students could easily see fruits of their efforts. She said with pride, "So, I always try to give students a sense of accomplishment at the end of a lesson. There is a closing. They have finished an activity [successfully]." She surmised how her students might feel at the end of class:

> A lot of time, a lot of students walk out of there [the classroom] with something [i.e., two or three paragraphs] that's pretty perfect. They walk out [thinking] like, 'Oh, … I worked with this [piece of writing]. I corrected my mistakes. Um, it's tangible. I've accomplished something. I feel good. I'm prepared for the next week when I'm going to be formally assessed.' (Tina)

Furthermore, Tina thought that people learned because they were excited about things that they were about to learn and because there was a need to learn them immediately. She felt that "a sense of excitement and urgency" helped people learn, thinking that students would do their best when they were genuinely "motivated to accomplish the task" at hand.

When students got involved to the full extent (which they were no longer "distracted from stress" of having to study a difficult subject), then they might lose a sense of time and forget the obvious reason for being in class (i.e., to learn English). Tina thought that such moments were precious since they made it possible for real and meaningful learning to take place. For example, she thought that language games and activities that could engage students to communicate with one another would be of use.

In particular, a sense of urgency to accomplish the given task could be of great value because it let learners focus their energy and do their best. Believing that a sense of urgency and excitement was vital to getting things done, Tina said that she occasionally used a timer for in-class activities to keep the students on the edge of their seat thinking. She supposed that students might think, "Okay, this activity is not going to last forever. It's only five minutes. So I can deal with that." Tina was of the opinion that getting her students excited helped them remain focused.

Aaron also conducted his class in a manner that embodied the idea. He strongly believed that students could learn so much more and better if they were not so singularly focused on doing well on quizzes and tests and if they could learn to study and use English on a regular basis. Aaron suggested that an effective way of getting his students to study English outside class was to have them study every week, and that was exactly what he did by having them produce every week what they learned in the preceding week (except the midterm and final exam periods).

Tina said that a large portion of her class time had gone into classroom management initially, such as having them come to class on time with their stationery and remain focused on tasks. She admitted that she struggled initially because her students were largely unmotivated and unable to keep up with her demands. However, she was able to overcome the difficulty eventually. She said, "I feel like here I have accomplished and learned a lot about how to manage a class." Class management was one issue that affected all teachers because poor class management made it nearly impossible to conduct a class effectively.

Referring to students who were less motivated, James speculated that many students came to his class thinking that they were there to "learn about English". He supposed that it was the only reason of which students were cognizant after having sat through a dozen or more English classes over the years that had been anything but exciting. While learning EFL might be the ultimate reason, James suggested that the reason alone was not a very strong motivator. He put forth, "I think it's very important in a language class to try to create in students' minds a sense that they have motivation to speak, that's other than learning a language." He believed that NESTs should find ways to make the class interesting and keep it that way.

You make the class entertaining or interesting because there is something to be entertained and interested about. And that provides focus, usually not the language. It might be connected to the language. [If it is connected, then it can be highlighted, depending on its relevance to the lesson.] It takes their mind off learning the language and puts them more into a mode of using the language to communicate something about what is so entertaining or interesting. (James)

It should be made clear that James did not care to entertain students by making jokes or doing things that a comedian might do. He conducted his class in a way that students could enjoy talking (or writing) about topics. He talked about how he made the class interesting. One way was to find something that students were already interested in by locating their interests. To find students' interests, a teacher could do "a little bit of talking" with them at the beginning of an academic term.

Another way was to introduce something interesting or present something in a way that attracted students' interest. James stated that he seized every opportunity to make his lessons interesting and enjoyable while tailoring his lessons to suit student needs given that there was freedom to plan and develop lessons. He claimed that it was crucial for NESTs to find ways to make lessons interesting for students in order for them to see for themselves that learning English did not have to be "so dry and academic".

However, in a strictly controlled environment in terms of what could be covered in class, James took the view that it was "the teacher's job to kind of guide the discussion so that the connection between students' interest and things [to be discussed]" was clear to students. For example, he tied the class content to students' background knowledge and made the content stimulating by making links clearly noticeable, even if the topic to be covered during that hour, according to the curriculum, seemed completely irrelevant to students at large. Specifically, before he brought up the topic of the day, which was British colonization of the Americas, he activated his students' schemata by getting them to think about the modern Korean history.

James was true to his words in practice and made his class interesting, as noticed during the classroom observation. He also showed his interest in the students' thoughts and opinions by paying attention to meaning over form in their verbal responses, responding to his individual students' words good-humoredly, and roaring with laughter in the classroom. To him, being friendly and making the class interesting was not an option but "the teacher's responsibility".

Teachers thought that a friendly demeanor and caring tone of voice were of help to assure students of a safe learning environment. All teachers were by and large amiable and genial in the classroom, as observed in their classes. It was also observed all teachers constantly moved around the classroom checking students' work. They also moved around paying attention to students who were engaged in pair or small-group activities. Some of them paired up with individual students who did not have a partner (as a result of an odd number of students present in the classroom, for example). Aaron, Kate, and Tina stated that they often paired up with a student who did not have a partner for pair activities.

Semi-casual clothes were the teachers' choice. They had a preference for semi-casual clothes that accommodated their teaching styles and satisfied what might be considered professional attire by Koreans, or the dress code in place, reasonably at the same time. While some NESTs might wear formal attire to the class, many others, including teachers in the study, usually wore semi-casual. This was in line with the teachers' perceived role of being a facilitator who actively participated when appropriate, as explained by Aaron: "Going back to the thing with coaching the team, the coach doesn't show up to work in a [dress] shirt and tie because the coach knows that he has to get out to the field and might need to do little running…. I've got to be a part of team."

Teachers talked about how they engaged students in EFL classes. To the question as to whether students wanted to have one-on-one conversation with the NEST in the classroom, Kate thought that most students were not interested in carrying a conversation with the teacher even though they would not mind having "a couple of lines exchanged or a very brief interaction". She supposed that students might feel threatened to have an extended discourse: "I think when students feel singled out by the teacher, it often makes them nervous and it makes them self-conscious." She described typical teacher-student interactions in her class:

> So, usually, if we're having a conversation time and if we have uneven partners, sometimes I'll sit with one student and do a conversation with him or her. Maybe I'll switch off and do it with a different person next time, rather than one student with me the whole time because I think they feel really nervous about that. (Kate)

In practice, Kate endeavored to make the speaking time less intimidating by talking to individual students in one-on-one or small group settings, as opposed to conversing with individual students in front of the class. While Kate occasionally asked her students some questions and gave them opportunities to talk to her in her class, she did not attempt to strike a conversation with any particular student. The observation made in Kate's class seemed to support her words.

Kate said that she made efforts to converse with all of her students over the course of an academic term, placing a high value on equal opportunities and fairness. Nonetheless, it appeared that she forewent a full interaction with individual students for the reason of not wanting to discomfit them in front of others. Her behavior was based on her opinion that most students could not really articulate their thoughts and feelings, let alone have an extended discourse.

In contrast, James frequently interacted with his students. He seemed to have every student answer one or two questions in his class, questions which served different purposes, such as schema activation and comprehension check. He was aware that most students were unable to articulate more than a sentence or two at best. However, he believed that students wanted and, more importantly, needed to practice constructing sentences on demand. Thus, he seemed to nudge students to speak as much as they could.

In this regard, Aaron had a similar approach and pushed his students at times to speak a little bit more than they would have liked to. Based on the perspective that

students wanted and needed to interact with the NEST, Cecilia, Max, and Tina also provided opportunities for students to practice verbalizing their thoughts and views in the classroom. It should be noted that all teachers did not ask follow-up questions even though it was not perfectly clear whether they were in the habit of not asking follow-up questions in their classes.

As documented in the field notes, James explained after his class that teacher-student interaction in his typical classes "centered around questions and answers" that were exchanged at the sentence level. He elaborated that he posed questions to the entire class that were difficult to be answered so that willing students could answer them on a voluntary basis. To give an equal opportunity, he said that he also called out individual students whose English-language proficiency (or confidence) was relatively low to have these students answer relatively easy questions. He added that he left discussion to small groups.

Teachers tried to help engage students in EFL learning outside the classroom. They used homework to do so. Max stated, "I almost always assign something that reviews and allows them to utilize what we did in class, perhaps, to expand upon and go beyond." All teachers, except James, assigned some kind of written homework, such as workbook exercises, regularly to provide a chance for students to review lessons. For teachers who gave homework regularly, it was regarded as an extension of language learning that began in the classroom, as suggested by Max, "It [i.e., language learning] takes practice. It takes homework. It does not take place magically…. It is work." Max also pointed out that doing homework allowed students to "figure out" what they did and did not know as well as what they were and were not able to do.

Instead of assigning homework on a regular basis, James said that he gave homework to his students in EFL classes on a couple of occasions during a semester. His homework, for example, was for the students to finish working on role-play activities outside the class so that they could present it in next class. James believed that workbook-type exercise homework did not really contribute to the development of students' speaking skills. It was not that he was against giving homework in principle, as he seemed to give homework to students in his content-based courses that were designed to broaden their knowledge base.

Teachers had different ways of checking homework. Aaron did not go around checking students' homework since he would find out on the quiz whether students did their homework or not. What Aaron asked his students to do every class was for them to review their notebook for ten minutes every day in preparation for the quiz next week. Likewise, Tina, whose teaching practice was similar to Aaron's in many ways, did not have to check students' homework, either.

Cecilia and Max were in the habit of checking all of students' homework in the beginning of the class. Spot-checking homework allowed Max to identify and work with what students struggled with in his class. At the same time, Max used this time to commend students whose achievement was not particularly noticeable in class. Max described how he checked homework:

> To check that homework every … [class] up and down the aisle, I go with a clip board. I stand over each student's desk and mark right there onto that homework sheet [on the clip board]. I asked them to do something. They did it on their own. It's a pass or fail, and they got credit for it. So, they came into the class, already achieving something that day. (Max)

Max also used homework check to provide an extra incentive for students who were "brave enough to show up to class" without their homework. He said, "When I looked at … [student's] incomplete or nonexistent work, I would say, 'Well, you have a lot of work to prove to me today.' The whole process takes two minutes. But we set the tone [for the class and thereafter]."

It appeared that Max usually did not have a problem of students showing up without homework after a couple of class sessions. This was because he made it clear to his students from the beginning that they had better not "mess with the teacher" by letting them know how serious he was at the outset. Max made sure that the students understood that this was the way it was going to be in his class for the rest of the term.

Kate assigned homework on a regular basis. She read students' written compositions and provided feedback on them. However, she did not check all homework, such as additional practice on the workbook that accompanies the course textbook. Thinking that it was beneficial for students to take time to do homework, she left them to do their homework responsibly. She added that she might go over previously assigned parts of the workbook with students who came to see her during her office hours to provide extra help as needed.

Kate had a feeling that some students were hostile toward her by reason of how she was strict and assigned much homework. She attributed students' open hostility to her inflexibility in her methods of enforcing classroom rules and giving homework every class. She thought that she made students work when they did not want to spend time learning English in their own time. Nonetheless, an unsettling incident took place in her class, which casted doubt on the validity of her attribution.

In Kate's class, there was a female student who hesitated to hand in her homework when the teacher came to collect it. On the student's part, it could have been a symbolic gesture to apologetically acknowledge her incomplete or late work as she appeared to be waiting for a nod of assent or a benevolent smile. As the student's body language was misinterpreted by the teacher as a refusal to submit the work, a drastic action of snatching away the work from the student's hand ensued. The student went pale, and an eerie silence fell upon the class.

The incident observed at the end of Kate's class might not be representative of typical reactions to her students. Kate said that the particular student had been hostile to her over the past several weeks, as documented in the field notes. As she seemed to believe that some students' expressions of conduct unbecoming to a student were signs of disrespect, she explained that she was in no mood for the student's impudence.

In fairness, Kate did a superb job of giving her lesson and carried herself impeccably in the classroom on that day, except for that brief moment at the end. It appeared that the root of her problems lay in how she made demands and carried them out rather than the nature of her demands, as reflected in the field notes. It raised a question of whether the issue had more to do with the incomplete process of her acculturation than individual students' contempt. Although she could still have socialized with Koreans regularly as she used to, she seemed to spend a greater amount of time with other NESTs, including her boyfriend.

Before leaving the topic, it should be noted that not all NESTs at Korean universities were committed to EFL teaching. Teachers knew from experience that there were NESTs who were unfit to teach EFL. They admitted that untrained and inexperienced NESTs could do little to help students develop their language skills. They also supposed that an NEST who was incompetent and blasé about students' learning could potentially do more harm than good.

To give an example, several teachers mentioned that some of their colleagues looked down on students who were unable to articulate their thoughts in English in a clear and logical manner. These teachers put forth that it would be prudent for NESTs to recognize that most students had greater knowledge, talents, and potential than they often revealed in EFL classes. They stressed that students ought to be treated with respect. They took the view that NESTs should be professional about how they conducted themselves, both in and outside the classroom. They largely carried themselves in the manner befitting their viewpoint during classroom observations.

4.2.7 Teachers' Ways of Working with Students' Knowledge

Since Kate deemed that students' learning strategies were not very effective for language learning, she usually started her first class by showing them how to enhance their vocabulary. She recognized that it was a strange way of starting a class. She gave a brief description of two activities related to vocabulary learning.

> I have the students sit in a circle. And they have to go around and say everybody's favorite color. [One student says,] "My name is [Eunhae]. My favorite color is red." [Then, the next student says,] "My name is Jieon. Her favorite color is red. My favorite color is blue." You go around the circle, doing colors. It's very difficult. Some people do well. Some people don't. But it's really difficult. Next time we go around, I have them say their favorite animal. But, when they say their favorite animal, they need to do an action. And everybody else has to do that action too [when they name animals]. (Kate)

When some students were asked what their classmate's favorite color was five minutes later, Kate usually found that nobody remembered who liked what color. However, she noticed that many students were able to answer the question, "What's her favorite animal?" She reasoned that her students could recall the favorite animals, but not the colors, because the students did "something other than just strict repetition."

Kate would explain to her students, "So, some of you can learn through repetition; some of you can't." She would then link the explanation to language learning, "Just

saying the same vocabulary word ten times doesn't mean you're learning it in the long term. You need to approach studying language in a different way." She stated that illustration and discussion of different language learning skills could help her students see alternative ways of learning EFL.

Aaron stated that he did not go to his classes thinking that he needed to teach more vocabulary after having taught at the university for the last three years. However, he made sure that he and his students had "some vocabulary on the table" to "get his class rolling" and help them carry out the task of the day. For example, Aaron might work three new words into his lesson. In his class, he told his students the following: "Here are three new words I want you to know for today."

It made sense to Aaron to give his students few to several words that they had to learn and memorize to do the task at hand instead of giving them "200 words". Introduction of few to several words worked for him because he built his lessons around students' pre-existing vocabulary. He planned his lessons around topics and vocabulary that most students were already familiar with.

> What do you do for fun? Most of the kids play soccer. So, … make sure everybody knows how to spell soccer. … What else do you play? Play badminton? Play computer games? This is it. I'm not trying to introduce new sports to them, [like] American football, or some games they don't play. Let's just stick with what you do and some words you know. (Aaron)

Aaron was intent on having his students produce meaning with English words that were already in their heads. Going back to the analogy of students' having tools without an ability to use them, he talked about the primary responsibility of NESTs during a casual conversation. He stated that language teachers' job was not about adding more tools; it was about providing opportunities for students to use the tools that they already had for expressing themselves. In his mind, language practice and use was at the core of EFL learning and teaching.

Aaron was aware that most students had very little practice putting ideas into English words in middle and high school, a situation which made it very difficult for them to articulate their thoughts on demand. He was interested in providing opportunities to his students to practice using English: "We just stick to the same set of vocabulary, and try to recycle and use it just to get them comfortable producing original thoughts." He was determined to get students to practice until they could get sufficiently good with whatever they were supposed to master, as the track and field coach would do with athletes in training.

> We don't move on until this is just too easy. Let's stick with it. Let's get good at it. Let's practice it. [Good language teachers are] just like that coach who doesn't come out and say, "Okay, we're going to do a 100 yard. Great, you did [it]. Let's go over there and do something else." No, you run a 100 yard every day. Practice. Practice. Practice. The trick is you have to get a lot of practice not … to learn more and more words, but to get good with the words you have. (Aaron)

Simply put, Aaron let his students use English words that they had learned or committed to memory over the years. He achieved this by encouraging the students to practice using the words in slightly different situations several times until they became comfortable using them properly. With his students, he was able to add a few new words each time the class met. He said that he would gradually add more words as the students were to feel comfortable using words they recognized.

Similarly, Tina did not care to increase students' vocabulary. She employed a teaching approach that resembled Aaron's approach to vocabulary teaching. She incorporated three themes into the course syllabus, such as high school days and pastime activities, and developed her lessons around the topics. Without trying to cover a dozen or more topics quickly as presented in typical conversation textbooks, she gave multiple opportunities for her students to talk and write about each topic over the course of a semester.

The opportunities were intended to allow students to "feel comfortable practicing with" the words that they knew already and came into contact recently. Tina justified her lessons as follows: "If you stick with that [theme], then you can stick with the vocabulary and just bring in a little more at a time so that they [can] actually internalize it, instead of memorizing it." She believed that it was important to allow students to be exposed to vocabulary multiple times for it to be internalized.

Besides, Tina felt that it would be just too intimidating if she happened to "throw" her students new vocabulary every time she and the students got together. Since her class met once a week, she was careful not to introduce more than a handful of new words. She said, "You just really have to be careful with the amount of vocabulary … you introduce or work into the lesson plans." She added for clarification that a different approach would be necessary if the class met three or four times a week, possibly suggesting that she would bring in more new words into her lessons.

Based on understanding that students' grammar knowledge was impractical and disconnected, teachers were not also intent on introducing new grammar points and terms. Instead, they worked with grammar in much the same way as they handled students' vocabulary by placing a heavy emphasis on getting them to draw on their background knowledge and internalize it through practice. Teachers believed that students needed to start using and applying their knowledge.

4.2.8 Teachers' Ways of Developing the Students' Language Skills

Teachers generally thought that knowledge of English needed to be augmented to accompany skill development, but not the other way around. However, they felt that EFL teaching at the pre-tertiary level of education had provided knowledge to Korean EFL students without developing their language skills in a balanced way. In the eyes of teachers, many students became beneficiaries of higher education without having gotten enough practice to use English in and outside the classroom.

Teachers were aware that what students had done prior to taking EFL classes taught by NESTs was to study English for test after test. Aaron thought that the situation had led to students' having enough knowledge to recognize and spell "quite a number of words" without an ability to produce meaningful sentences. Teachers took

the view that students considered English largely as a subject that consisted of vocabulary and grammar knowledge.

To help students see English as a means of communication, James made a point of providing a great deal of speaking time in the classroom: "As learners of English they need speaking time because speaking time is hard to come by in a culture or in a course of ordinary life where there is no particular reason to speak English for most of the time."

Aaron was also intent upon getting students to speak English as much as possible because he, too, believed that it was the best way to develop their verbal skills. He supposed that experienced NESTs would not give lectures or spend too much time disseminating knowledge. Based on his understanding that a language was not something that could be mastered through memorization of words and grammar rules, he stressed the importance of practice time for language learning.

> There is only one way to get good at English conversation. That is speaking English…. [It's] not talking about English in Korean. [It's] not listening to your teacher talk about English in Korean. [It's] not even listening to the teacher talk about English in English. It's about you talking. (Aaron)

In this light, Aaron made every effort to ensure that students received as much practice time as possible. Going back to his analogy, he went on to paint a picture of what a good track coach might do:

> A good track coach doesn't come about and say, "Let me tell you a history of running…. Let me tell you about the great runner. Let me tell you something about running. Let's talk about running shoes." No. You [i.e., a coach] say, "Get out on the track and run." That's how you make a great runner. You [i.e., a trainee] have got to get out there and run [if you want to be good at it]. (Aaron)

Cecilia explained that learning a language largely meant developing skills to use the language. She said, "If you don't use it, you'll never improve." Aaron shared the view held by Cecilia with respect to the focus of language learning. He said that students could improve their language skills through actual use of English language. He added: "[It is] same for the swimmer. The same thing [is true] for the boxer or the wrestler."

The point that Aaron made was that talking about English was of little value when it came to developing the students' ability to use the language for communicative purposes. Aaron strongly believed that students would learn to speak English when they used it. His words were as follows: "I … think they learn, not by listening or not by hearing, but by doing it." As stated earlier, Aaron thought that getting students to use English was the key role of NESTs, "All we [i.e., NESTs] have to do is get them talking."

James also accentuated the importance of practice time for language learning as follows: "We use small groups to give them practice time, talking time, because the practice time is the most valuable thing [for language learners]. It's just like that the practice time for athletes and the practice time for musicians is the most important

thing for them." James explained the reason underlying the importance of practice time: Language learning was more akin to acquiring skills than knowledge. He made a point of facilitating teacher-student interaction by asking questions, as noted earlier, and getting students to talk to one another in pairs and small groups.

Teachers stressed the importance of language practice and use even though their teaching methods seemed to differ (with an exception of Aaron and Tina). Considering the lack of practice that students had as EFL learners, emphasis on language practice was necessary and highly desirable. Nonetheless, the overemphasis was a cause for concern because it could lead to a comparative lack of knowledge dissemination, a situation which could, in turn, result in discontent with teaching when students expected the teacher to provide additional information about English. The concern was reflected in the field notes.

> If an NEST thinks to himself that he is doing students a service by constantly letting them practice speaking English (or writing in it), he should take a step back and consider whether he is also meeting immediate needs and expectations of his students. When he allocates a significant portion of class time to so-called communicative activities with great regularity, students may conceive that they are not given anything to learn in class. A question could arise: "What is the point of doing all this talking (or writing) with nothing to take home?" (Researcher reflection)

With regard to focus of language skill development, James stated that he intended to ensure that students knew how to carry everyday conversation first. To do so, he had students learn and practice how English was used "in the most common situations, including the most important types of interaction like making requests and offers and advice."

> I think they [i.e., students] need accurate information about how to do that [of carrying out basic social functions] in the most normal way. Because as soon as you go to a place surrounded by English [speakers], these are the skills that can come in handy. It's not the most complicated thing about English that students need most but the most basic things about English. (James)

In addition, believing that students were generally nervous about speaking English, James thought that giving students a chance to make presentations could help mitigate the nervousness associated with their fear of making mistakes, a deep-seated fear which was inhibiting. This opportunity was helpful as presentations provided a relatively safe environment for those who would like to know what they wanted to say well before saying anything.

More importantly, James was of the opinion that the opportunity to make presentations helped students focus on not only what they wanted to say, but also how they wanted to say it. He had a strong feeling that most students wanted to do "a good job of saying" what they wanted to say. He stressed that the shift in focus was pivotal to getting students to talk for a prolonged period without their being concerned about making mistakes. He explained, "If their focus on not making mistakes is inhibiting to them to get to the end, then it's more important for them to focus on 'what they want to say' and 'how they're going to say it'." When students

were well-prepared to speak English for a minute or two, James believed that they would be less afraid of losing face.

Aaron said earlier that what NESTs needed to do was to get students talking in order to improve their verbal skills. He clarified that getting students talking was not as simple as he made it sound. To illustrate, he drew another sports-related analogy by describing what a good weight training coach might ask a trainee to do in a weight room.

> Let's work on building up the chest. Let's start with light weight. And let's gradually add little more weight. And we keep adding more. But we never put so much that it feels difficult, that it hurts, and that it feels discouraging. We're just going to keep adding little more, little more, [and] little more. Someday, you might be tired, so, let's do less. And [when you feel strong enough] go back to doing little more [and] little more [after that]. And in time we'll get stronger. (Aaron)

Aaron stressed the importance of knowing where students were and what they could handle: "You've got to start with what the students can do. That should be the only thing you do with the students, something they can do." To Aaron, teaching tailored to suit the students' language abilities, interests, needs, and expectations was the key to successful language learning and teaching. He believed that NESTs should never make demands that were beyond what students were ready to handle. He said that the bottom line was to have students "start slow, start small, and … not run".

According to Aaron, it was crucial for NESTs to find teaching materials and activities that were not too difficult (but not too easy at the same time) for students to cope with, and make EFL learning more challenging gradually. Otherwise, NESTs would lose students who could not keep up with the class. Tina suggested that students would feel lost if they were overwhelmed. She explained the consequences of leaving students feeling lost repeatedly would cause some of them to tune out and care no more about learning. In other words, some students would lose heart and give up learning English completely. In this sense, teachers thought that NESTs needed to smooth the way for learning.

New learning activities were also introduced gradually in the spirit of getting students to use English without causing considerable discomfort. Tina eased students into classroom activities. For example, she began with some activities that students were already familiar with or could embrace with ease, and progressively move on to more novel and complex activities.

> It is important that they [i.e., students] may not be intimidated by the activity; like something that they could do with just little more involved, with just little more something different, [and] with just little more something new to do to keep them somewhat challenged. (Tina)

Kate did not appear to make use of diverse activities and interaction patterns in the classroom. She provided an explanation that she consciously avoided using them because she placed a higher value on "consistency in content" than a variety of classroom activities. She wanted to keep her class dynamics simple so that she could

deliver her lessons effectively as she planned, with minimal interruptions. It was possible that those who dissented from the view that favored a diverse mix of activities could have felt this way (Section 4.1.3).

Teachers also talked about their approach to writing skill development. As they thought that students should begin to speak English and continue doing so if they were serious about improving their speaking skills, they also had a similar approach to teaching writing. They were of the opinion that students should get on with their writing rather than await lessons on how to write.

Aaron had a feeling that many students expected NESTs to provide writing lessons so that they could learn how to write first. He supposed that a typical student might think as follows: "I need to learn how to do this so I can start doing it." He suspected that the students' expectation was the product of the prevalent way in which they had been taught by Korean teachers of English in the past.

> They [i.e., students] go like this, "I need to learn how to write a paragraph so one day I can write a paragraph." No. You need to start writing a paragraph right now. The first paragraph you write will suck. But you're going to do it again and again. And they [your paragraphs] are going to be great [eventually], and then … writing paragraphs are going to be easy. Failure is the first step on the way to success. (Aaron)

Aaron put forth that students needed to start writing in order to learn to write better, even if their initial sentences and paragraphs were likely unsatisfactory in many aspects. He thought that students had to start writing paragraphs right away and keep on doing that if they were serious about learning how to write in English. He also put forth that the idea of learning by doing was applicable to other language skills.

Aaron emphasized that a good language teacher should let students do their writing and provide them feedback as needed to help them express what they intended to convey. The position he took was that it was better for students to see what they could do and make improvements, instead of spending time and energy just thinking about appropriate ways of using English without ever getting to use it.

A series of in-class activities that Aaron got his students to perform was focused and purpose-driven, with little time wasted. While his students were writing two to three paragraphs on their hometown near the end of class (making use of the grammar structures reviewed in the class), he walked around in the classroom checking students' writing along the way and answering any questions that they had with regard to their sentences. At the end of class, Aaron gave another chance to his students to come and ask him questions regarding their written work. When his students needed correction or help as they were describing what their hometown had and was like, he addressed their needs promptly.

James also used his class time to have his students do their writing. He supposed that having students write in the classroom might be considered an inefficient use of time in the eyes of casual observers (e.g., Korean English teachers, instructors, professors, and administrators): "Sometimes, [some people] … think it's a waste of time to do writing in class because they [i.e., students] can do that at home…. The teachers are

not teaching them [while students are writing]. So, people think, 'Well, teachers are not doing anything.'"

James acknowledged that some writing homework assignment could work well too, depending on the nature of the task. However, he found this in-class writing time invaluable. Based on his belief that students learned by doing, James thought that writing should be the basic activity that students ought to be doing in the classroom if it was a writing class or if the lesson covered writing. The writing time allowed the teacher to monitor what individual students were actually doing when they were engaged in the writing task. It also presented an opportunity for the teacher to give advice to students in real time, as opposed to looking at the final product and giving feedback on it long after the students were done with their writing.

James found that giving advice at the individual level was more effective than teaching rules for the whole class. He remarked: "Rather than teaching rules, it is better to provide guidance as to how to take the next step while looking at the writing sample: 'Okay. This is really good, but it would be even better if you … [could do that instead].' Giving advice is better." He valued the opportunity and called it "a teachable moment" when he could address the problems and questions that students had. Since the writing time enabled the teacher to circulate and teach while students were engaged in writing, James stressed, "Writing in the classroom is not a waste of time."

Teachers were in agreement that it was a good practice to get students to do their writing in the classroom to improve their writing skills. Teachers thought that they could read the students' work and provide instant feedback on its content. Cecilia knew from experience that students were not used to writing in English for readers in mind. This was why Cecilia introduced process writing to her relatively advanced students and worked with them for two to three weeks on a piece of their writing. Process writing differed from product writing, as explained by Cecilia: "A product writing is you write it, [and] it's done. You're finished. A process writing is you write it, … edit it, … revise it, [and] … keep [re]writing." Cecilia thought that it was of practical value to offer opportunities to students to edit, revise, and rewrite their writing.

Cecilia talked about how she tried to enhance students' reading skills. She taught her students how to skim and scan by putting up multiple practice passages on a beam projector one at a time so that she could have control over the time that the students were allowed to have for reading the texts and answering questions posed. She speculated that "roughly 95 percent" of her students who got the lessons on skimming and scanning skills usually went back to their old way of close reading when they were asked several weeks later to answer some questions related to selected paragraphs with time limit. When the students reverted back to close reading after instruction and practice sessions, Cecilia nearly felt an urge to remind them to use scanning skills: "Don't read it. Just look for the answers."

Cecilia thought that students had some wrong ideas about language learning. For example, she speculated that close reading was, and would remain to be, the only way to do English reading for many students: "They went back to it [close reading] because that's what they had been told for 12 years of their school lives or …

[however long it might have been]. That's the only effective way to learn [that they know of]." She was of the opinion that it was not only limited to the students' reading skills but also their ways of learning EFL in general. She acknowledged that it would take much time and effort to undo the damage of past English learning in the formal school system and bring in real changes that could impact how students learned EFL.

However, even with the recognition, Cecilia persisted in ameliorating the situation by making a point of introducing different learning skills and strategies so that students could use them to develop their language skills more effectively. Cecilia and Kate seemed to be the only teachers who explicitly showed that there were various language learning strategies that could help facilitate the development of language skills.

4.2.9 Teachers' Attitudes toward University EFL Education

Teachers were concerned with how EFL education was conducted at Korean universities. They unanimously expressed that university EFL curriculums in place had generally hurt the students' chances of developing their language skills. They reasoned that the curriculums had failed to provide adequate support and sufficient opportunities needed for students to achieve a higher level of proficiency in English. They thought that there was room for improvement and that their input and feedback could help enhance the quality of university EFL education.

Aaron was of the opinion that students would get better if, and only if, they started using English and kept at it. Thus, provided that it was a primary goal of higher education to generate a future workforce who could effectively use English as a language, he thought that an environment should be presented where students could get to learn English by using it.

Regarding whether teachers thought that they could successfully share their thoughts on EFL curriculums with Korean faculty members and administrators, they were of the opinion that their feedback and input usually went unheard and unsought at Korean universities. Based on personal experiences of having articulated their thoughts to Korean EFL program directors (i.e., Korean faculty members) and administrators to no avail, teachers were convinced that most Koreans in charge of running EFL programs wanted to maintain the status quo or stick to the traditional ways of management.

Teachers were dismayed that Koreans faculty members and administrators continued overlooking the simple fact that NESTs were in the field teaching students and interacting with them. The teachers' recognition was supported by the questionnaire results (Item 29) regarding how a majority of the survey respondents, particularly female teachers, felt about how little their feedback and input was valued at Korean universities. Along the line of how Max believed that significant changes often occurred from the bottom up, teachers took the view that NESTs were the ones who were able to help bring about positive changes in the way EFL education was carried out.

Teachers took the view that NESTs were not generally valued as professionals at Korean universities. Their view was supported in the sense that individual NESTs' accumulative teaching experience was seldom taken into account in decision making for employment or pay. In spite of the teachers' acknowledgment that Koreans in charge of managing EFL programs could choose to do whatever they liked to do, they were sure that people in management would not insist on adherence to the traditional language teaching practices if they were serious about the quality of EFL education.

Teachers felt strongly that the voices of NESTs should be heard and represented, qualifying their view by adding that there were well-trained and broadly experienced NESTs teaching in and outside Korea. They were of the opinion that NESTs should have input on how EFL programs were managed instead of being subject to the parameters set by Korean educators and administrators. James pointed out that Korean educators and administrators did not have a strong track record of showing success in developing the students' communicative skills. It was not to suggest that the whole of EFL programs at universities should run the way NESTs saw fit, but it was definitely worthwhile to foster an environment where NESTs could better serve the needs of students in achieving a higher level of proficiency in English.

4.3 Summary

The results obtained through the questionnaire completed by 54 NESTs have been presented first, shedding light on the teachers' perspectives on various aspects of teaching Korean university EFL students. The findings from a subgroup of six NESTs through other instruments (i.e., interviews, classroom observations, and field notes) have also been presented at length with detailed and contextual information. The teachers' perspectives on students' EFL learning have been described, followed by teachers' teaching in relation to students' learning.

Teachers' thoughts on students have been considered. First, their perspectives on the students' motivation have been explored, and the exploration indicated that most students were not highly motivated to learn EFL. In addition, various factors that were thought to have contributed to the students' low level of motivation have been accounted for, including a lack of exposure to English in their everyday life and the knowledge-oriented and test-driven education system.

Teachers' perspectives on students' English knowledge, their vocabulary and grammar knowledge in particular, have been presented, highlighting a disparity between their knowledge and their ability to make use of their knowledge to construct proper sentences. Attention has been drawn to teachers' perspectives on students' study habits and learning strategies. Along the lines of students' EFL learning, to what teachers attributed students' ineffective learning has been addressed – shedding light on what they thought of English education in the formal school system. Also, their perspectives have been examined on the students' ownership of their EFL learning.

Attention has been paid to the teachers' reluctance to generalize students and their EFL learning. In addition, the manner has been covered in which teachers delineated the learner types, based on the students' motivation, as teachers thought that this

categorization was of value to gain insights into the issues at hand. Afterward, teachers' perspectives have been covered on student needs and expectations in the psychological and academic domains.

Teachers' perspectives have been considered on students' learning behaviors in class and their readiness for EFL classes taught by NESTs. While it was deemed to be of great value for students to be taught by NESTs, teachers thought that students were not generally ready to take full advantage of NESTs' teaching on three accounts: (a) a lack of motivation to learn EFL; (b) unfamiliarity with NESTs' teaching methods; and (c) a low level of proficiency in English. Attention has been given to measures that could aid students in deriving full benefits from NESTs' teaching.

Teachers' pedagogical approaches and practices have been examined in relation to their perspectives on students' EFL learning. At the outset, how teachers perceived their role in EFL classes has been presented to illuminate what they thought of their primary responsibilities. Also, the rationale behind their teaching has been explored. Teachers' thoughts have been explored on what they aimed to accomplish in their classes and how they achieved their aims.

Teachers' approaches and strategies have been examined with respect to how they dealt with students' knowledge and language skill development. Based on teachers' philosophies that learning a foreign language was about acquiring language skills, rather than knowledge, their intention was to provide as much practice time as possible to students. Lastly, the teachers' attitudes toward university EFL education have been explored.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

The results of the study are discussed in this chapter. The questionnaire results are integrated with a discussion of the findings from interviews, classroom observations, and field notes to put them into perspective. First, teachers' perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning are discussed in terms of the following: motivation; needs and expectations; knowledge; in-class behaviors; learning approaches; and prior learning. Next, strategies teachers implemented to deal with students' EFL learning are examined with respect to the type of classroom environment they pursued, as well as how they worked with students' knowledge, language skills, and learning strategies.

After the coverage of teachers' pedagogical approaches and practices as related to students' EFL learning, pedagogical compatibility between NESTs and students is considered, as perceived by teachers. In light of the pedagogical gap that could interfere with EFL education and undermine the morale of students and NESTs alike, a viable means that could narrow the gap is contemplated. Together with an attempt to keep the topics of discussion in the same order as in Chapter 4, reference is made to relevant sections where appropriate.

5.1 Matters of Consideration

Before getting into discussion of their perspectives on students' EFL learning, three points brought up during the study are summarized here to help contextualize the discussion. First, when teachers talked about their perspectives on students' learning, it was evident that they had the students' best interests at heart. The main reason for teachers to share their perspectives was to help improve students' learning.

Teachers acknowledged that they were limited in their role as language teachers as their influence was limited outside the classroom (Sections 4.1.6 and 4.2.9). They shared a perspective that significant improvements in EFL education could not be realized unless Korean stakeholders involved in EFL teaching (e.g., Korean teachers, instructors, professors, and administrators) started working together with NESTs. They supposed that mutual recognition of both strengths of and obstacles to EFL education was the first step in forging a cooperative relationship.

There could have been a discord in how the teachers' roles were viewed (Section 4.2.9). Teachers regarded themselves highly as professionals. Having first-hand knowledge of students' EFL learning, they were interested in contributing to the improvement of EFL education. It seemed that they would have liked to have their perspectives and perceptions heard and incorporated into university EFL curriculums and programs. However, teachers felt that Korean educators and administrators did not view them as professionals or pay attention to their voices in general.

Second, teachers were cautious about generalizing students' EFL learning (Section 4.2.4). Making an assumption that students were alike in terms of their learning experience, aptitude, styles, and goals could be dangerous, as explained by Han (2005a):

It may be generally assumed that learners in a culture share the same learning experience, styles, and characteristics. However, there are a number of variables that impact on learners' beliefs, views and learning styles, such as proficiency level, learning experience, age, social status, educational level, gender, etc. Such variables contribute to the complexity of learning processes and create learner differences. (p. 202)

Teachers gave explanations for their reservations on accounts of (a) individual learner differences among students with regard to their EFL learning experiences, aptitudes, styles, and goals; (b) commonality shared with other students outside Korea (e.g., university EFL students in China, Japan, and Taiwan); and (c) mutability of students' EFL learning over time. An effort was made by the researcher to avoid overgeneralization of students' learning. However, in Chapter 4, qualifiers were kept − such as 'most' and 'many', as in most students and many students, respectively − to reflect the teachers' intentions.

Third, it seemed that teachers' perspectives concerning students could have fallen short of covering third and fourth year students in a balanced manner. It could have been because teachers had normally taught first and second year students at Korean universities. The universities generally offered (and still do, to a large extent) EFL courses only to students in the first two years of their studies (Kim, Lee, Ha, & Lee, 1991; Lim, 2001; J.-E. Park, 1997). In other words, although there could have been some exceptions across institutions and departments within an institution, most universities rarely offered EFL courses to third and final year students.

Hence, when teachers were asked to share their perspectives on students' EFL learning in the questionnaire and during interviews, they were likely thinking of first and second year students, as opposed to all university students. In this regard, students' learning discussed by teachers should be assumed to represent mostly EFL learning of first and second year students at Korean universities.

5.2 Students' EFL Learning

Teachers liked students. They concurred that students were generally respectful, polite, and well-mannered. They also agreed that students had some positive learner traits describing them as attentive, cooperative, and open-minded. However, students' EFL learning concerned teachers. Teachers' perspectives are discussed below in terms of the following: students' motivation; knowledge base; needs and expectations; and learning behaviors.

5.2.1   Motivation and Knowledge Base

As stated above, teachers had reservations about characterizing students' EFL learning. Instead of generalizing students' motivation, they elected to categorize students' learning by putting them into four groups based on motivation. Their intuitions to categorize students turned out to be of value as they talked about various aspects of EFL learning and teaching.

Depending on the source and degree of motivation for studying EFL, students were put into four categories to the effect: intrinsically motivated, extrinsically motivated, less motivated, and unmotivated (Section 4.2.1). Teachers put forth that the level of individual students' motivation had an impact on EFL learning and teaching. They seemed to place learner motivation over all other variables, such as gender and age, throughout discussion of their perspectives on students' learning. It could account for why they showed no strong preference for student gender (Section 4.1.2).

Teachers acknowledged that a relatively small number of students were highly motivated to learn to express themselves in English (Sections 4.1.1 and 4.2.1). Hence, with respect to the level of motivation for learning EFL in students, they agreed with the findings of previous studies that students were not highly motivated (Jung, 2011; J.-E. Park, 1997; J. Y. Park, 2011) and appeared to have little desire to be in EFL classes (C. Y. Shin, 2011a; Shin, Kang, & Kim, 2010).

Teachers had the impression that most students took EFL classes taught by NESTs merely because they were told to do so (Section 4.2.6). A lack of enthusiasm in students had a negative impact on EFL teaching, as well, because engaging unmotivated students in communicative activities was a formidable challenge that teachers had to overcome constantly (J. Y. Park, 2011; C. Y. Shin, 2011a). This could have been a major reason why about half the teachers were reluctant to express in the questionnaire that they enjoyed teaching the students (Section 4.1.4).

Since less motivated students were in the majority, teachers seemed to plan and design their language lessons in practice with less motivated students in mind, despite their intention to address needs of all students. Thus, when teachers indicated that they were well aware of students' needs and, by extension, their expectations (Section 4.1.3), it was likely that they could likely have been referring to the students in the majority.

Categorizing students according to their motivation was unusual even though students' motivation has been widely addressed in the literature (e.g., Chong & Kim, 2001; S. Kim, 1998; H.-J. Lee, 2001; Lee & Im, 2005; Lim, 2001; G. Y. Park, 2004; Suh, 2000). The motivation-based categorization helped examine a broad range of issues concerning students' EFL learning. For example, the categorization could help clarify discussion of student needs and expectations, as done in the study, since students in different motivation categories could have different needs and expectations in EFL classes.

A prevalent way of categorizing students in literature is based on their levels of proficiency in English. The proficiency-based categorization could be useful to examine certain issues, such as the degrees of satisfaction and difficulties experienced by the students in mixed-level classes. However, grouping of students by proficiency level, as done by H.-J Lee (2001), appears to be of limited value in understanding how students approach EFL learning and why.

When asked to speculate on why most students were not highly motivated to learn EFL, teachers came up with several reasons. An obvious reason was that there had been a lack of exposure to English in students' everyday life in the EFL context (Section 4.2.1). In other words, being in an EFL learning environment, students had

not been adequately exposed to spoken and written English (O'Donnell, 2006; J.-K. Park, 1999; C. Y. Shin, 2011b).

The lack of exposure had two implications. Teachers thought that less motivated and unmotivated students did not see the relevance of English while being required to study for it, as observed by Lee and Im (2005). Another implication of particular interest here was that these students projected that an ability to speak (and write) English would not be very useful in their future. In other words, from the NEST perspective, English held little to no relevance or value for the students.

When students did not use English or hear it being spoken at great lengths, their need to learn EFL for communicative purposes might not have been as tangible as their immediate need to study English for school exams and standardized tests. Teachers had a perspective that the students did not grasp the fact that English was a language that people used (and still do) to communicate with one another. They also thought that students could not really see that they, too, could use English to communicate with people. It was unrealistic to expect students to start seeing English as a tool of communication on their own when English had been a purely abstract notion at best for most of their school lives.

Beyond EFL learning, teachers had a perspective that students in their first and second years were not motivated to do academic work in general. They thought that the students lacked a sense of direction in life and did not have clearly defined reasons for doing their study in higher education. They reasoned that the students' life-long goal of being a university student had already been actualized. This is because entering a prestigious university has often been considered as the end, rather than a means to the end. This misguided notion concerning admission to higher education has had an effect of creating a motivation vacuum temporarily in the students' lives. The absence of long-term perspectives and career goals is a serious problem as it stands in the students' way of getting themselves prepared to meet the challenges of the real world.

Teachers deemed that students generally had a low level of proficiency for all practical purposes. They were aware that students had spent more than six to nine years studying English before their first university EFL class. All the same, teachers deemed that students' knowledge of English was incomplete and of limited use. This was because students were unable to put their knowledge to use and construct proper sentences verbally and in writing.

Teachers' perspectives on the students' knowledge base seemed to contradict points of view held among some Korean EFL educators (H.-J. Lee, 2001). If a question was posed as to whether the students had theoretical grammar knowledge or whether they could recognize high-frequency English words, it was possible that teachers gave a similar response to the Korean EFL educators. As a matter of fact, some teachers could have been thinking along those lines when they responded in the questionnaire (Section 4.1.1).

In fairness, this situation where students' communicative competence remained underdeveloped, despite many years of English study in school, might not be uncommon among Asian EFL students in general (Han, 2005a). Nonetheless, the

finding was troubling, considering a huge investment of time and effort which had been made by students and all those involved in EFL teaching at the pre-tertiary level of education. What made the situation even more egregious was that a significant proportion of students would leave university with a low level of proficiency in English and with little confidence in their ability to communicate with people in the world who did not speak Korean.

Based on the teachers' perspectives on students' English knowledge, they planned their lessons and carried them out (Section 4.2.7). In the end, lessons given in the teachers' classes could have reintroduced and emphasized rudimentary knowledge at times. Although teachers conveyed that they were well aware of students' previous EFL learning and took that into account to some degree, a question arose as to whether students and Korean EFL educators could fully appreciate lessons that were built on seemingly redundant and unsophisticated vocabulary and grammar.

A disparity between the students' English knowledge and ability to use it had made it necessary for teachers to take an innovative approach. Without explicit teaching on vocabulary, grammar, and/or other pertinent language components in classes taught by NESTs, students could have troublesome feelings – thinking that they had not learned anything worthwhile at the end of a lesson, no matter the amount of language practice that they had.

5.2.2 Behaviors in Class

Teachers thought that students on the whole were reluctant to participate in the classroom (Section 4.2.3). They took the view that students generally shied away from fully engaging in discourse with NEST and their classmates in the classroom if left to their own devices. Teachers were convinced that the more students used English, the better they would become at using it. Thus, the students' reticence was regarded by teachers as an unhealthy trait for language learning.

Teachers were cognizant that the students' silence did not always result from a lack of interest (Section 4.1.2). There were three possible reasons for the students' general silence in the classroom (Section 4.2.5). An obvious reason was that students did not have a level of proficiency needed to articulate their ideas and feelings in English on demand. Or, they lacked confidence to converse with others in English. When they were unable to express themselves in English or unsure of their ability, it was understandable why they would remain rather passive. For these students, measures to improve their proficiency or build their confidence need to be taken.

The other reason provided by teachers was that students might be afraid of venturing their thoughts and opinions in fear of losing face. Teachers observed that most students were often hesitant to say anything unless they were absolutely certain of the right answer. Incidentally, some students even lowered their voice to a whisper when they were asked to repeat what they said, instead of speaking louder or rephrasing their words. The type of self-conscious reaction seemed to support the teachers' perspective that students were afraid of making mistakes in front of others (Section 4.1.2). The students' concern of losing face was prevalent in the educational cultures of Korea and neighboring countries, such as China (Han, 2005a). Teachers stressed the importance of a friendly environment in which students did not feel

threatened or judged for their thoughts and opinions. Accordingly, they took serious their role of providing that environment and encouraging students to move beyond their comfort zone when possible.

Another reason had to do with the students' sociocultural and educational upbringings. Culturally, students had been expected to receive knowledge from school teachers without questioning expert knowledge or challenging its sources (Han, 2005a). Besides influences of the Confucian culture, most teaching in school had taken place through lectures. Lecture-based teaching did not actively promote dialogues in the classroom setting.

As a result, students had been conditioned to listen attentively to their English teachers for years. For students who had been told to remain quiet in the classroom all throughout their school lives, it would be unrealistic for them to be able to switch over instantly and become active participants on the classroom teacher's cue. Moreover, some students might have misguided notions about participation, which could result in scorn for other students' active participation in class by misconstruing active involvement "as a sign of boasting or seeking favoritism" (C. Y. Shin, 2011a, p. 94). As Max suggested, it was be worthwhile to give students explicit permission to be wrong, and remind them, from time to time, that incorrect answers could be a valuable part of discussion in their own ways.

The three reasons given by the teachers could work in tandem and discourage students from taking active roles. Remaining quiet and focused in the classroom was what students were accustomed to, and teachers understood that. Although teachers did not hold the students' taciturnity against them in principle, they strongly disapproved of it in practice because it seriously interfered with language learning and teaching for communicative purposes.

Regarding the students' silence in class, teachers added a cautionary note by acknowledging that NESTs who were not attuned to cross-cultural differences could easily misinterpret it as disinterest (Sections 4.1.2 and 4.2.5). If NESTs were to misunderstand the situation, they could feel offended and even disrespected, especially as their instructions seemed to go unheeded. The NESTs' negative feelings could, in turn, cause them to conduct themselves in a manner that could result in further alienating students (rather than befriending them and putting them at ease).

Therefore, the students' passive behaviors in the classroom could turn into an obstacle to language learning and teaching in the absence of clear cross-cultural understanding between students and NESTs. In addition to the pedagogical gap, cultural differences could also exacerbate tensions in the classroom, as observed in Kate's classroom when the body language of a student was misinterpreted. It seemed that Kate's awareness of cross-cultural differences did not stop her from misinterpreting the student's behavior, as put forth by Robinson (1988):

> Understanding, e.g., that feeling of comfort and positive interaction, did not always increase with awareness of how the people were going to act. Non-observable, implicit aspects of culture, such as my own cultural interpretations and internal reactions to events were more critical to understanding or

misunderstanding than knowledge I had obtained or failed to obtain about cultural values, customs or reasons for particular cultural behaviors. (p. 5)

Considering that teachers had a vested interest in tensions being reduced to ease the students' concerns, the intercultural gap between students and NESTs could stand in the way of engaging students in language practice. The cultural gap could also bring NESTs into conflict with students.

5.2.3   Needs and Expectations

As presented in Section 4.2.2, teachers concurred that Korean students, including university students, generally had a low level of confidence when it came to using English (Miller, 2001; You & Lee, 2008). It was understandable to a degree, considering the ways in which English education was conducted in school plus their scarce exposure to English (O'Donnell, 2006; J.-K. Park, 1999; C. Y. Shin, 2011b).

However, teachers were puzzled by the students' low self-efficacy. It was as if students blamed themselves for their inability to speak (and write) English (Lee & Im, 2005; Lim, 2001; Shin, Kim, Yang, & Kim, 1997; Suh, 2000). Teachers thought that the students' aptitude for, and prowess at, learning the language was far from being at the root of the problem. Rather than the students' intellect or resolve to learn EFL, the education system was responsible for the students' inability to learn to communicate in English.

As a consequence of a low level of confidence and self-efficacy, students often remained self-conscious and withdrawn instead of seizing the opportunity to practice and develop their language skills. Because teachers understood why students were prone to stay passive and silent, they made a point of drawing out those who did not participate actively and making certain that they practiced using English. They took the view that letting students experience success as they used English could boost their confidence.

Teachers also recognized that students needed to have a sense of belonging. The sense of being part of the class was vital (Kim & Jeong, 2008; Miller, 2001) considering that the class was conducted by a foreigner whose language and culture backgrounds could differ markedly from the students' own. Teachers thought that it was important for NESTs to instill a sense of belonging in students (Brown, 2002; Han, 2005a; Lee & Kim, 2002; and H.-J. Lee, 2001). For example, making class, or most of class, accessible to students was necessary to instill the sense in them. There was a consensus among teachers that students expected NESTs to be understanding of this need to be included (Section 4.1.3).

5.2.4   Approaches to EFL Learning

Teachers had a perspective that most students did not exercise ownership over their EFL learning (Sections 4.1.2 and 4.2.3). It was understandable, especially when the students' lives had been highly structured and constantly weighed down by pressing demands placed on them to do well in school (and on high-stakes exams). In other words, most students had been in school all their lives doing what their parents and teachers told them to do, without real opportunities to claim ownership of their

learning. Teachers strongly felt that students needed to be autonomous and take control over their EFL learning. They wished that students could spend time and energy to learn EFL on their own.

Many students were thought to care more about their course grade than their academic achievement, a view which was also supported in literature (S.-R. Lee, 2011). With regard to the reason why many students were overly concerned about their grade and seemed to care very little about the work that was not counted toward the grade, teachers explained that students had been conditioned to associate success of learning with the outcome of assessment. In essence, the learning process had been devalued to the point where the final letter grade was the only object that mattered.

Teachers believed that students' pre-collegiate English learning experiences had evolved around written tests where students were expected to demonstrate their knowledge, not their ability. Because students' test performance had determined the grade and class rank to a large extent, many of them had learned to deal with the demand placed on them. If new learning materials were dumped on students in a dozen subjects in school every week, it would have been inevitable for them to cram for tests demonstrating their short-term memory. If students had acquired effective ways of learning English (or another foreign language) in school, teachers thought that they would take a different approach to EFL learning.

Notwithstanding the students' fixation with their grade, teachers put forth that students were capable of learning and doing their best even in the absence of external pressure. When students wanted, or felt compelled, to communicate, they would be engaged in using English, as people have normally done in the real world. When students were actively engaged in discourse, teachers thought that they would perform their very best. At that moment, meaningful learning could spontaneously begin taking place without conscious thought on the students' part. That was one of the reasons why teachers relied heavily on practice time in their classes and subscribed to the idea of 'learning by doing'.

Teachers felt that NESTs had a limited capacity to help students see the relevance of English as a language in the EFL context. The only practical thing that teachers were able to do was to provide an opportunity for students to see that English was a language. This was achieved by letting students use English to communicate with one another in the classroom as much as possible.

5.2.5   Prior Learning of and Exposure to English

Teachers knew from experience that students were not able to make even simple sentences properly. They speculated about reasons why students could not construct sentences after years of studying English in school. Teachers believed that knowledge-oriented and test-driven English education in the formal school system had stood in the way of effective EFL learning and teaching (Han, 2005b; C. Y. Shin, 2011b). Simply put, teachers identified the students' previous English education as the primary culprit for their low proficiency in English.

Teachers believed that the English education system at the pre-tertiary level had major shortcomings (Section 4.2.5). First, students had generally been taught and tested on English vocabulary and grammar out of context at the sentence level. In other words, English had been treated as an academic subject. Second, receptive skills had been overly stressed in the system (S.-R. Lee, 2011), with minimal attention to development of productive skills. As students had prepared for written exams that largely tested their reading and listening skills, very little or no time was allotted to writing and speaking practice in English classes. Third, the system had failed to demonstrate that the different language skills were inextricably linked. For example, students could not make use of written texts to articulate their responses verbally. In essence, English education in the formal school system had fallen short of achieving a high level of proficiency in students.

Teachers were also of the opinion that students had not acquired language learning strategies in the formal education system (Section 4.2.3). In this regard, there was a viewpoint among teachers that NESTs should introduce and develop students' learning strategies to help them become more effective language learners. As teachers' attempts to improve students' strategies had been unsuccessful, they recognized that a concerted effort was required over time to change students' perceptions of English and alter their EFL learning.

When the central cause of the students' inability to speak English and carry conversation was thought to be the system, teachers thought that there was no need for students to feel responsible for their inability. Teachers firmly believed that EFL education in Korea needed to undergo significant changes to fully accommodate students' needs and enhance their communicative competence. If English education in school could change its course and integrate productive skill development, teachers thought that students would be far better off than now. Nevertheless, teachers were skeptical about whether desirable changes would be realized in the near future.

In spite of the students' limited exposure to English and scarce opportunities to use it in and outside school (Section 4.1.4), teachers believed that students could increase their exposure to English if they were willing to do so (Section 4.2.5). Moreover, students could practice conversing with their classmates in the classroom, hallway, and school yard (or practically any place where occupants and passersby would not be disturbed). They could also make use of the NESTs' office hours to have face-to-face consultation (Section 4.1.2).

Teachers thought that increased exposure to English would lead to a higher level of motivation in students to learn EFL because communication with people outside class would help make EFL learning in school more relevant and meaningful than before. They thought that opportunities to use English could also induce further development of communicative skills in students. As suggested by all teachers, students needed to come to see that English was a language that they could use to communicate with real people.

Thus, teachers recommended that students actively seek ways to converse with a wide assortment of English speakers. They suggested that students had better suspend their belief that native English speakers were the only viable English

speakers around them. It was more likely for students to have encounters with a non-native English-speaking foreign national than a native English speaker in Korea, as pointed out by teachers. Students would also have a greater chance of meeting non-native English speakers abroad unless they were in English-speaking countries, as there were far more non-native English speakers than native English speakers outside Korea (Kachru, 1996).

As teachers thought that students preferred North American English to other varieties of English (Section 4.1.3), there might also be a general consensus among Korean English educators that English should be taught as a foreign language that belonged to North Americans, the British, and possibly other native English speakers. The viewpoint in question is outdated and nearly obsolete during the expansion of internationalization and globalization. If students started using English to communicate with people from around the world, they would see the role of EIL and its significance.

5.3 NESTs' Ways of Dealing with the Students' EFL Learning

Teachers generally had a positive attitude toward teaching students and working with them. While there were some differences with regard to teaching philosophies, strategies, and methods among teachers, teachers seemed to conduct their classes as well as they could. In this section, their approaches to EFL teaching and their pedagogical methods are discussed in relation to students' EFL learning, followed by some reflection on NESTs' teaching in general.

As acknowledged by teachers, there were NESTs at Korean universities who did not possess experience and/or training to conduct EFL classes satisfactorily. Teachers accentuated that their own perspectives might not encompass the thoughts of inexperienced and untrained NESTs. Simply put, teachers' ways of teaching and handling students should not assumed to be typical of NESTs working at Korean universities.

5.3.1   Setting the Tone for Success

Teachers stressed the importance of an environment conducive to language learning and teaching. They were intent on creating an environment where students felt relaxed and intrigued enough to learn English. They agreed unequivocally that it was their responsibility to create and foster such an environment to promote EFL learning and teaching for communicative purposes.

An ideal atmosphere was described as a place where students were (a) comfortable and safe enough to talk and enjoy talking; (b) able to engage in speaking because they wanted to, not just because they were told to; (c) not completely lost with regard to what was happening in class; (d) both excited and challenged enough to get past their comfort zone to accomplish tasks; and (e) allowed to enjoy success in expressing themselves in English along the way. Teachers strongly believed that many students could stay focused and improve their language skills significantly in such an environment.

Teachers agreed that the responsibility of creating and fostering an optimal learning environment had to be carried out carefully and persistently throughout the academic term. They employed various tactics to create an environment conducive to language learning. They felt that it was good to be attentive, enthusiastic, and well-prepared. A friendly demeanor and caring tone of voice were of help to assure students of a safe learning environment, and all teachers were, by and large, amiable and genial in the classroom, as observed in their classes.

There was a view among students and Korean EFL educators that NESTs' personality traits, such as calmness, friendliness, and sensitiveness, were the most important factors for successful EFL learning and teaching (K. J. Kim, 2006). The traits were considered valuable because students with a low level of confidence and English proficiency needed to feel safe to express their thoughts in front of others without fear of being ridiculed or laughed at.

Interestingly, teachers felt that the responsibility of creating and fostering an environment conducive to language learning and teaching could be shared at times with students who were relatively more motivated than others. By letting and encouraging more motivated students to set good examples for other students to follow, they could do away with much of the necessity of drawing out individual students.

In addition, getting the relatively more motivated students involved in maintaining the right atmosphere could leave more class time for teachers to do actual teaching and for students to practice using English. What was not explicitly pointed out by teachers was that the responsibility of nurturing a productive atmosphere could be time-consuming and energy-intensive in a class full of not-so-highly-motivated students.

Although it was highly commendable for teachers to take full responsibility of providing a productive environment, a question arose why they thought that it was their sole responsibility. Based on the researcher's personal experience, students could also exert a considerable influence on class dynamics collectively. If teachers could adopt measures to have a larger number of students, motivated or not, to be involved in making an optimal language learning environment, they would feel less burdened in this aspect.

As teachers were aware that students generally had a low level of confidence and a need to have a sense of belonging, they seemed to be friendly in general and paid extra attention to accommodate the students' psychological needs. Teachers also agreed that students expected NESTs to provide assistance to struggling students as needed. The questionnaire results suggested that male teachers attached a greater importance to helping students in need than their female counterparts (Section 4.1.3). Interestingly, it was found during naturalistic inquiry that male and female teachers seemed to differ in the extent to which they were willing to provide help. The questionnaire results were corroborated below by the findings from interviews and classroom observations.

Cecilia, Kate, and Tina felt uncomfortable with extending help unless they were explicitly asked by individual students in need. The female teachers seemed to be

discomfited by the idea of providing help unasked, help which could have been unwanted. They seemed to place individual students' privacy higher on their list of priorities than the students' involvement. Accordingly, they did not go out of their way to offer help to those students who were seemingly uninterested. For a similar reason, they did not really push unwilling students to take an active role even though they did encourage students to get involved and made a point of recognizing the participation (or the lack thereof).

In contrast, male teachers sometimes urged even plainly uninterested students to get involved, possibly in the spirit of leaving no one behind. Although the findings were inconclusive, the teachers' gender-specific attitudes in question were of interest. While the attitudes of male and female teachers in and of themselves might not dictate the effectiveness of their classroom management, the differences could have an impact on affective experiences of students who wanted to, but could not, actively participate.

If the psychological needs of students were addressed inadequately, unsettling displays of emotion could manifest in various forms. Despite her best intention, Kate did not seem to have an excellent rapport with some female students. Kate felt that some students were disrespectful and hostile toward her and her teaching practices. However, it was possible that she misread the students' demeanor and reacted in the way that the students did not anticipate. The student's surprise could turn into a sense of frustration and dismay. Cross-cultural misunderstandings could instigate a hostile learning atmosphere.

5.3.2 Promotion of Learning by Doing

Teachers thought that practice time helped students internalize and integrate language elements that had been presented in the formal school system in the past and in their present university EFL classes. They thought that practice time was crucial for the students' language skill development. They supposed that students would get comfortable putting together English words to construct sentences through practice and actual use of English.

Teachers were of the opinion that learning a foreign language was all about acquiring, developing, and mastering language skills, as opposed to gaining knowledge of the language. They were determined to get students to use English, despite the students' reluctance to take an active role and speak English. They were convinced that students had to try out their language skills and continue using them if they cared to develop their skills well enough to communicate through English.

As NESTs were normally put in charge of EFL courses that focused on the development of speaking skills at Korean universities, teachers had also been mostly responsible for such courses. Teachers allotted most of their class time to allow students to engage in speaking practice through tasks and activities. As far as they were concerned, students ought to start using English from the outset.

All teachers thought that an effort to learn English had to be accompanied by exercises to make use of it to communicate with others. In other words, in their minds, EFL learning and teaching without adequate practice time was of little use to

students in their pursuit of enhanced communicative competence. Teachers did not see any merit in the students' tendency to put the use of the language on hold while learning it.

Teachers spent relatively little time teaching English per se. They believed that dissemination of knowledge, or talking about how to use the language, could not enable Korean EFL students to use it. Thus, getting students to make use of what they already knew was of primary importance in the educational context. This was because students already possessed more than they needed to know but were unable to put their knowledge to use.

Practice was vital for students, as indispensable as training was for athletes and musicians. All teachers were firmly convinced that the development of language skills was attainable only through actual use. Since students did not get enough practice time outside English classes in the EFL context, teachers felt that the goal was to get to where students used English as a language.

Teachers put in time and effort to prepare their lessons and address student needs. A primary consideration that went into preparation seemed to be that they had materials that could help make the most of language practice time. Teachers said that they made certain that tasks and activities complemented language lessons by building tasks and activities around pertinent language elements and functions. They seemed to collect teaching resources available, in print and online, and adapt them as needed to best utilize class time.

Teachers were intent on having students use English verbally (and in writing when appropriate). They felt that most students had a negative connection to English because they had been tainted in the past by having learned it as a difficult academic subject, rather than as a language. They believed that the students' successful experiences of using English were necessary to break the association of English as a subject before students could start seeing English as a language.

Nonetheless, a concern arose that practice time could be wasted if students did not share its value (or if they did not truly want to be in class at all). Moreover, practice time provided by teachers could backfire if students perceived that the teacher neglected to teach English the way to which they had been accustomed. The same misunderstanding could also exist in the minds of Korean teaching/administrative staff members, as teachers did not teach about the language in a way that any good English teacher ought to do in the conventional sense of teacher-centered and lecture-based teaching. In the eyes of Koreans involved in EFL education, it might appear what NESTs did in the classroom was to ask questions to the students and have them talk to one another in a disorganized manner.

The casual and seemingly spontaneous ways NESTs conducted their classes did not seem to have inspired confidence in Korean EFL educators and administrators, causing discomfort among the educators and administrators (Y. Kim, 2004; H.-J. Lee, 2001; S.-R. Lee, 2011). NESTs' manners of conducting EFL classes could partially explain how some Korean EFL educators came to view NESTs as incompetent and unwilling to carry out their teaching responsibilities. NESTs' teaching practices could also account for why some Korean educators attributed unsatisfactory

outcomes of EFL education to NESTs' shortcomings. NESTs were deemed unsuccessful because they were not good at disseminating knowledge of English (J.-W. Lee, 1996), while imparting knowledge had not been generally what NESTs set out to do in their EFL classes in the first place, as shown in the present study.

As students did not largely seem to do their writing with great care, it was also possible that the value of writing practice was not appreciated. Students could have difficulty understanding and embracing the value of writing exercises if they expected NESTs to show and explain how to write properly in English. It could also be the case that most students were not excited about writing practices in EFL classes simply because they were not particularly interested in improving their writing skills (O. Kwon, 2000; Lim, 2001).

Thus, the teachers' ways of developing the students' writing skills emerged in the study as another potential cause for concern for Koreans EFL educators. For the present, students were not required to work on their writing skills. If students were required to demonstrate their ability to write in English for school or employment, they would conceivably place a greater value on writing exercises. If NESTs were to take a greater role in conducting English writing classes at Korean universities in the future, their approach to teaching writing would surface as a problem.

Teachers thought that NESTs needed to exercise due diligence to meet student needs and expectations while engaging them in using English for communicative purposes. To do so, they thought that it was imperative for NESTs to have a sense of where students 'were' and tailor their teaching to suit them. They recognized that teaching materials and methods needed to be compatible with knowledge, proficiency, and aptitude of students as EFL learners. They readily acknowledged that language teachers should be attuned to students' learning and conduct their classes accordingly.

However, the teachers' acknowledgment notwithstanding, they did not hesitate to convey that they did not see a need to modify their teaching styles. They had high regard for their teaching approaches and methods. As revealed through the survey, the teachers believed that their approaches and methods were superior to typical teaching adopted by Korean faculty members when it came to improving students' communicative competence and developing their language skills (Section 4.1.5). Teachers confirmed during the naturalistic inquiry that they were confident that their teaching methods were highly effective for enhancement of the students' communicative ability.

To put it another way, teachers saw no need to change their teaching approaches and methods. If that were the case with many other NESTs teaching at Korean universities, the suggestion made for NESTs to modify the ways they taught and conducted themselves to be in line with students' learning styles (Lee & Dash, 2003) would not be realized.

Moreover, it seemed that teachers did not see an urgent need to explain their teaching methods to students. It was conceivable that many other NESTs, too, did not also perceive the need to account for their pedagogical approaches and methods to students. It was possible that students would not be able to comprehend the NEST's rationale even if NESTs explained their pedagogies. Nonetheless, in the absence of a

satisfactory explanation, students had little choice but to remain clueless as to why the NEST kept asking them to perform tasks and activities.

Teachers were aware of students' proclivity to receive knowledge to use English, as opposed to using it to learn it. They surmised that students were inclined to increase their knowledge because it was the only way that they knew how EFL learning was supposedly done. They could have known that students expected NESTs to pass on knowledge. If NESTs failed to satisfy the students' particular expectation, then students could become disappointed and even irritated. Without a good grasp of NESTs' pedagogical practices and their rationale behind the practices, students would suffer.

Teachers expected students to accept their teaching styles and get on with EFL learning by conforming to their standards of behavior. This kind of irrational expectation was problematic. In the absence of clear insights into how NESTs taught and why they taught the ways they did, students who happened to be unfamiliar with NESTs' teaching styles were being practically forced to make sense of NESTs' teaching from personal experiences that might not always be positive.

If students were given a copious amount of time to adjust to NESTs' teaching, then there is no doubt that they would adapt successfully; however, limited EFL course offerings at Korean universities did not allow that to happen in reality. As a matter of fact, teachers supposed that most students would barely come to experience what it was like having NESTs as English teachers by enrolling in a few EFL courses taught by them. Students would then go out into the real world or go on to graduate schools without having had a real chance to have first-hand experience of fully interacting with native English speakers.

5.3.3 Working with the Students' Knowledge

When teachers (re)introduced basic knowledge and worked with it, they intended to help integrate, activate, and internalize students' knowledge (Section 4.2.7). They did not attach great importance to teaching or, more specifically, disseminating information. They were intent on addressing the students' inability to produce English words on demand or combine words to create proper English sentences. They accomplished this by having students make use of their knowledge of English as opposed to enlarging or deepening their knowledge.

However, it could not be safely assumed that inexperienced and/or untrained NESTs would exercise the same kind of reasoning. It would be far more likely that NESTs who lacked experience and training would teach the basics fit for beginners all over again without realizing the disparity. Relatively inexperienced and untrained NESTs could grossly underestimate the students' knowledge base. They could inadvertently end up making the pedagogical content of their lessons overly simplistic and redundant.

It could easily happen because the students' ability to put their thoughts into words in English did not usually come close to their knowledge of English or their intellect. NESTs who were oblivious to the students' past English learning could fall short of meeting student needs and expectations. If rudimentary knowledge were to continue

being given in class, students and Korean EFL educators would be repelled. Moreover, students could become bored, even feeling resentful of teaching materials that were tritely familiar and uninteresting.

Hence, the students' inability to speak (and write) English can influence what NESTs teach (and the extent to which they cover specific content). In addition, the dynamics of interpersonal interactions in the classroom are shaped by not only NESTs' competence and dedication but also through the students' preparedness and willingness. The students' preparedness and willingness should be taken into account in discussion of the effectiveness of NESTs or EFL programs in future research.

The disparity stemming from the students' prior learning experiences could compound the difficulty of EFL learning and teaching. After all, conscientious NESTs would not teach English to students in the same way that they would normally do with real beginners. The dilemma brings into question whether the responsibility of recognizing and narrowing the disparity should be solely left to NESTs.

For example, teachers recognized that one way to get around the students' inability to come up with words was as follows: They built lessons around the words that students recognized and got them to use the same words multiple times until they became comfortable using them. No more than a handful of new words were introduced per class. It was possible that the way teachers introduced only a small number of new English words might not be looked upon favorably by Korean instructors and professors who would often present a dozen or more new words in each class session. Korean faculty members might like to see that NESTs expand on the students' vocabulary.

By the same token, teachers would not take kindly to the way Korean faculty members had handled vocabulary teaching in the researcher's opinion. Teachers might come to understand why Korean instructors and professors taught vocabulary the way they did as they worked with reading passages in their classes. However, teachers could be displeased because students would face more or less the same problem of having words that they had no idea of how to use in a meaningful way.

If students had opportunities to revisit their knowledge on a practical level and elevate their ability close to their knowledge, they would be able to focus on language practice and use at the discourse and pragmatic levels in classes taught by NESTs, as opposed to spending an inordinate amount of time putting together words at the sentence level. If students had such opportunities, then NESTs would not have to take up time to go over the basics, freeing time for NESTs to focus their efforts on developing the students' language skills. When students and NESTs could converse with one another in the classroom, the ultimate expectations of NESTs held by Korean EFL educators and administrators would come close to being fulfilled.

5.3.4   Addressing the Students' Learning

All teachers thought that students did not possess the know-how needed to learn EFL effectively. They had a feeling that the formal school system had failed to provide students effective language learning strategies by having taught English (and other

foreign languages) to knowledge-oriented tests.

A few teachers spent time introducing language learning strategies, whose intentions were to equip students with strategies that could help students more effectively learn English. For example, Kate demonstrated a strategy to learn and recall vocabulary, showing her students that the widely-used ways of memorizing English words (e.g., use of index cards and a list of English words with their Korean equivalents) were not so effective.

Teachers also thought that the formal school system had failed to accentuate that many basic studying skills could be transferred to EFL learning. The students adhered to close reading persistently, regardless of the nature of a given task. While students probably utilized basic reading skills, such as skimming and scanning, for reading texts written in Korean, they tended to forego these skills completely when they were given texts written in English. Students would have been able to switch to various reading modes with ease if different reading skills had been promoted in middle and high school English classes.

Cecilia talked about how she went over various reading skills, such as skimming and scanning, and trained students to use the skills. She acknowledged that her efforts to develop the reading skills had not been fruitful. Even after explicit training on basic learning skills, her students had trouble making use of them. Teachers seemed to agree that it was generally difficult to wean students from inefficient learning skills and behaviors that had been formed and fortified over their school years. They believed that it would take a systematic approach to undo students' unhealthy learning behaviors.

Going back to the example regarding skimming and scanning skills, an implication of not developing the students' skills would be as follows: Graduates from Korean universities would need to find ways of handling and processing a large amount of information written in English the hard way if they were asked to do so in the workplace. Therefore, various skills and strategies to learn and use English should be developed at university in a way that students could take advantage of various learning tools at their disposal.

Teachers expressed that they spent time working with students' language misuse and showing proper ways of using English when appropriate. However, they were not generally intent on correcting learner mistakes and errors, thinking that it was only natural for them to make mistakes and errors. They thought that maintaining an environment where students could talk freely was far more important than making certain that English was used correctly.

The teachers' decision not to address the students' misuse could be in conflict with the students' expectation of being corrected (K. J. Kim, 2006). While students and Koreans involved in EFL education could be puzzled by the NESTs' practice of not addressing student mistakes and errors in the classroom, it was clear from the present study that NESTs could have withheld corrections at times with a clear conscience, as was the case with teachers.

Closely related to the teachers' ways of dealing with learner mistakes and errors were their ways of dealing with student behaviors in the classroom. The teachers liked to use praise and encouragement, in preference to criticism, to influence and modify students' behaviors. A question arose whether students were acutely aware of what kind of classroom behaviors were expected of them and worthy of praise. More specifically, having been told that they should participate actively in class, students would know that they needed to participate. However, they might not be aware of when and how to participate in class discussion even though they would be happy to answer questions posed by the NEST and perform small group activities in their own ways. Also, they might be uncertain of what would be considered as active participation unless the NEST explicitly showed what was considered desirable.

With regard to the students' fixation with their grade, the teachers considered it distasteful. Teachers observed that most students seemed to care more about their course grade than their EFL learning. They were of the opinion that students were conditioned to associate the success of their learning with test scores and course grades that they received. They thought that the formal school system was responsible because it had failed to provide opportunities for students to experience using English for communicative purposes.

However, teachers stated that the fixation was not necessarily all dreadful because students could at least be held accountable for their work. It was not always possible to maintain an environment conducive to language learning. There were occasions when the teachers resorted to taking advantage of the students' fixation with course grades to hold them accountable and nudge them to do their work. They exploited the students' attachment to grades to keep them accountable in class. In other words, teachers were able to use the students' vested interest as the leverage necessary to persuade them to participate in class and take homework, quizzes, and exams seriously.

Teachers took advantage of the students' need to perform well in order to encourage them to do a better job of participating in class and doing the course work. They sometimes tried to give students an impression that all the work that they accomplished in class was counted toward their grade. They believed that students could learn something useful in doing the work.

However, a heavy reliance on students' fixation could be dangerous. If students did not care about their grade that they would receive or the curriculums did not allow room for NESTs' subjective evaluation of the students, NESTs who relied heavily on the students' fixation with their grade would encounter difficulties in facilitating students' learning or conducting effective classroom management. Teachers strongly believed that students were quite capable of doing their best even in the absence of external pressure associated with assessment.

Although it was to the teachers' advantage to capitalize on the students' need to perform well, the teachers' true intention was to have them experience success along the way while using English. Teachers hoped that students could start seeing beyond the need to perform well. To provide that experience, they created and fostered an atmosphere where students genuinely felt excited and challenged to engage in using English as a language. As mentioned earlier, praise and encouragement was used to

acknowledge students' laudable learning behaviors and get them immersed in language learning.

Homework was used to keep students engaged in learning outside the classroom. All but one teacher assigned homework on a regular basis. They broke down learning materials into manageable segments for their students so that the students could continue studying outside class, as an extension of in-class learning. They thought that homework could help students exercise ownership over their learning even if they recognized that homework alone was not enough to foster autonomy and promote ownership. Some teachers also thought that homework assigned regularly could help mitigate the students' study habit of cramming for quizzes and tests.

As what kind of homework and how much of it they assigned was outside the scope of the study, these questions were not explicitly asked. However, it seemed that teachers did not expect their students to spend more than 20 minutes on it per lesson, which could appear to be insufficient in amount to some Korean EFL educators (H.-J. Lee, 2001). While the amount of homework may not be of a particular concern, it would be interesting to find out the nature of homework given by NESTs to see how it helped develop the students' skills (or how it did not).

Teachers made a point of checking a large portion of the students' homework by means of spot-checking, quizzes, and class presentation while providing feedback when possible. Moreover, homework could also be used as a means of identifying students who lagged behind others or excelled to provide extra help and praise, respectively.

5. 4 Students' Compatibility with NESTs

Teachers were asked as to whether they thought the students were ready to take EFL classes taught by NESTs. It was an indirect attempt to find potential areas where NESTs and students were pedagogically incompatible from an NEST perspective. All teachers answered affirmatively to the inquiry, giving an initial impression that students were well prepared to take advantage of the services provided by NESTs.

Moreover, teachers felt that it was hardly the issue of whether or not students were ready to learn English from NESTs. Together with their belief that the success of students' EFL learning largely depended on the language teacher's abilities and willingness to provide teaching tailored to students, teachers put forth that the real issue had to do with whether individual NESTs were able and willing to meet student needs.

However, when the question was rephrased, teachers acknowledged that the students whom they had taught were far from ready to make full use of NESTs. It became clear that they thought that students were ready to learn EFL – in the sense that anybody could learn a foreign language regardless of age, proficiency, or aptitude – but not ready enough to make the most of NESTs' teaching. From the words of teachers, students were not fully prepared for NESTs' teaching on three accounts. In essence, the students' unfamiliarity with NESTs' teaching and the students' low proficiency in English reduced efficiency of EFL learning and teaching while a low level of their motivation to learn EFL (Section 5.2.1) had compounded the difficulty.

5.4.1 Unfamiliarity with Teaching Methods

From a pedagogical standpoint, teachers knew from experience that students were unfamiliar with NESTs' teaching styles. Although students could have had one or more English classes where NESTs assisted Korean English teachers at school, their overall exposure to NESTs' teaching was limited because the NESTs' roles had been largely limited to team teaching situations. Having had little or no experience of being wholly taught by NESTs previously (Miller, 2001), students were generally unfamiliar with NESTs' teaching styles and felt out of sync with them. Teachers were aware of this situation.

In contrast, from the standpoint of students and Korean educators involved in EFL education, NESTs' ways of teaching could appear to be out of alignment with students' learning styles and needs. No matter through whose perspective the situation was viewed and no matter wherein problems were thought to lie, it was undeniable that a pedagogical gap between NESTs and students existed, as shown in the study.

Teachers generally thought that students were not accustomed to communicative tasks and activities. That was why teachers introduced new activities, not all together at once, but slowly and gradually despite their belief that a diverse assortment of tasks and activities could help draw out students and engage them in using English. Teachers thought that time and effort it took for students to understand and get familiar with new activities could be better allotted to practice time.

Without intervention, most students who had little or no exposure to NESTs' teaching in the past would be at a loss in class for a significant period of time and likely lose out on EFL learning. As a limited number of EFL classes taught by NESTs were offered at Korean universities, a large number of students would not get sufficient time and opportunities to adapt to NESTs' teaching styles to reap the full benefits of NESTs.

As a means of intervention, some Korean EFL educators suggested that NESTs should accommodate students by modifying their teaching practices (Park & Kim, 2000). Although elaboration was not given of what modification entailed in the minds of the Korean EFL educators, the suggestion in and of itself seemed to be reasonable. It was reasonable in the sense that it would be more efficient to effect changes in NESTs than to transform students, who were substantially greater in number. In addition, students at Korean universities had to take a limited number of EFL classes taught by NESTs while NESTs were obligated to teach students at all times during their employment.

Thus, it would be sensible if NESTs could modify their teaching styles to make them more pedagogically acceptable to students until students could come to see the value of 'learning by doing' and embrace the concept on their own. While the aforementioned proposal sounded viable, it might not have been, and would not be, well received by NESTs in practice – assuming that the teachers' perspectives concerning the effectiveness of their teaching approaches and methods were also shared by NESTs at large. Searching for some means to reach out to NESTs and convince them to align their teaching methods with students' learning styles and

needs would be apposite and necessary.

At the same time, it would be highly beneficial for students to receive explanations on NESTs' teaching practices and the rationale behind their practices. The explanations would enhance students' understanding of typical teaching practices adopted by NESTs. They would also raise the students' awareness of what to expect of NESTs and what was expected of them by NESTs in return (I.-D. Kim, 2000). The issue of bridging the pedagogical gap is discussed further in Sections 5.5 and 6.1.3.

5.4.2 Lack of Ability to Converse in English

Teachers thought that the students' inability to converse freely in English prevented them from engaging in EFL classes taught by NESTs and taking full advantage of the classes. When a primary reason for employing NESTs at university was to provide an opportunity for students to practice using English with fluent English speakers (M. Kwon, 2007), the students' inability to carry conversations made it nearly impossible for NESTs to have meaningful dialogues. Had students been able to put together sentences with greater ease, then they would have been more forthcoming to engage in dialogue with NESTs and vice versa.

While blame might have been apportioned in the past to NESTs for a lack of complex and meaningful teacher-student interactions in EFL classes, teachers seemed to disagree with how the nature of the NEST-student interaction was rationalized. Teachers felt that students were unable to handle more than the exchange of a couple of sentences. They thought that the students' English proficiency was the main factor for lack of teacher-student and student-student discourse in the classroom.

To put it another way, if students had a high degree of proficiency in English, they would interact and converse with NESTs to hone their language skills as intended. The more students were at ease with expressing themselves in English, the higher the probability they would be interested in conversing in English. It should be mentioned that the teachers' good will not to cause discomfort and unnecessary tensions could have been misinterpreted as their inability to promote full interaction in the classroom.

The irony was that NESTs were supposed to develop the language skills of students, but could not fully carry out their responsibility unless students possessed a certain level of proficiency that enabled them to have conversations in English. It could be said that the students' command of English posed a quandary. It would take a great amount of time to develop the students' language skills to a point where they could converse comfortably in English. Considering that students usually started using English for communicative purposes in EFL classes taught by NESTs, it would be unrealistic to expect students to have opportunities to develop their skills sufficiently in advance.

As teachers stressed that it was the students' inability to converse in English which stopped them from conversing with NESTs (and their classmates), they conveyed that they made an effort to engage students in conversation regularly even if typical classroom interactions were often limited to the exchange of just few (and often

incomplete) sentences. While the primary reason for engaging students was to develop their language skills, teachers thought that the effort also helped mitigate the students' anxiety about speaking English.

Further investigation was warranted since having NESTs as classroom teachers had been justified on the grounds that NESTs were good at lowering anxiety in Korean students of English (Y. Choi, 2001; Chung, Min, & Park, 1999; H.-J. Lee, 2001; S.-O. Park, 1988; Suh, Pai, Yoo, & Park, 1999). The justification might have been based on the premise that anxiety among students about talking with English-speaking foreigners was what had kept them from speaking English. If anxiety had been the key deterring factor, then it would have sufficed to provide few EFL classes taught by NESTs, as suggested by S.-O. Park (1988). Utilizing NESTs merely to lower anxiety seemed to be a wasteful use of resources.

In addition, promoting the use of NESTs by reason of lowering student anxiety could be dangerous. There seems to be a huge difference between placing low-proficiency students to get their anxiety reduced and having well-prepared students to further develop their language skills. Instead of seeking solace in the NESTs' ability to reduce the students' anxiety as the motive for offering EFL classes and having NESTs teach the classes, Koreans involved in EFL education should focus on serving the intended purpose of EFL education, which is to enhance the students' communicative competence.

To that end, it would be imperative to improve the students' English proficiency while improvements might need to be made independent of EFL classes taught by NESTs. Giving students support to acquire an operational command of English early on would be a more financially viable alternative to providing more classes taught by NESTs arbitrarily.

Also, persuasive and argumentative discourse styles needed to be taught to students. During the rare occasions when students took it upon themselves to share their views, they often failed to articulate their thoughts in a logical manner. They usually fell short of supporting their claims with factual information and reasonable explanations.

The students' inability to present compelling cases could make them appear less intelligent than they really were. It could practically stop inexperienced NESTs from looking beyond the students' incoherent reasoning to take their words seriously. In other words, the students' difficulty in building a convincing argument could have made it easy for NESTs to overlook what students wanted to convey. When students felt comfortable sharing their views and supporting them reasonably well, it would help even inexperienced NESTs take serious what students had to say.

5.5 Viable Means of Bridging the Gap

With respect to desirable changes that students could make in their EFL learning, the teachers' suggestion was that students needed to take control of their learning and do what was necessary to hone their language skills on their own. Possibly based on the teachers' perspectives that the ways in which EFL education had been provided fell short of achieving a higher level of proficiency in students, they did not give any other suggestions on further inquiry.

When teachers were asked about what changes were desirable to help enhance the effectiveness of EFL learning and teaching, they stressed that university EFL education had to undergo significant changes (Section 4.2.9). Incidentally, they were convinced that Korean educators and administrators in charge of overseeing university EFL education had generally been intent on maintaining the status quo. Therefore, they did not anticipate any significant change in the near future.

Furthermore, teachers, especially female teachers, took the view that the people in charge were not generally interested in NESTs' feedback and input with regard to EFL curriculums and programs (Sections 4.1.6 and 4.2.9). They put forth that the voices of NESTs needed to be incorporated into EFL curriculum revision and program management. What teachers would like to see was establishment of a working relationship between NESTs and Korean EFL educators. They thought that NESTs and Korean EFL educators should be able to discuss pertinent curricular issues and future directions of EFL programs constructively. They hoped to work together with Korean EFL educators as partners to provide the very best education that students deserved, as recommended by J.-K. Park (1999).

Since teachers saw no clear need to modify their teaching or explain it to students, the only suggestion that they proposed was that NESTs could and should provide extra time and support to aid students in need (Section 4.2.5). This suggestion was of value because additional care and help could facilitate students' EFL learning. However, the suggestion was found to be unrealistic because it could be difficult to satisfy the specific needs of individual students during the limited contact hours, especially in mixed-level classes.

A viable remedy was to prepare students for NESTs' teaching in advance so that students could make the most of NESTs' teaching, assuming that significant changes that could enhance the quality of EFL teaching could not take place. Getting students prepared was beneficial because students who took the NESTs' classes were not generally ready to reap the full benefits of the classes, as brought to light in the study. It was conceived that students could supposedly take one or more prerequisite courses to further develop their language skills and become familiar with typical teaching styles employed by NESTs.

When asked about their opinion on such courses, teachers were not supportive of the prospect of making students take them. Teachers opposed the prerequisite courses on two accounts. First, they thought that Korean faculty members would not be of real help, insinuating that most Korean instructors and professors were incapable of smoothing the way for NESTs' teaching practices and inept to develop the students' language skills. Second, having Korean faculty members conduct preparatory courses also meant to teachers that EFL classes taught by NESTs would be placed on hold, where students could start using English for communicative purposes. On the two accounts, teachers were adamantly opposed to preparatory courses. They believed in presenting opportunities for students to start and keep using English as early and much as possible, respectively.

Teachers regarded involving Korean faculty members as a waste of resources that could be better utilized to develop the students' language skills. How teachers

viewed Korean faculty members' EFL teaching was ironic, considering that NESTs have been blamed by the latter for the low quality of teaching (H.-J. Lee, 2001; J.-W. Lee, 1996; Lee & Dash, 2003; Lee & Im, 2005; G.-P. Park, 1999; Suh, Pai, Yoo, & Park, 1999). Teachers were not necessarily against the concept of preparatory courses that could enhance the students' familiarity with NESTs' teaching styles and their language skills.

After showing disapproval of preparatory courses, teachers said that the NESTs' conscious act of providing extra time and support to their students in the classroom was far more helpful than any preparatory course(s) (to be taught by Korean faculty members). They figured that extra time and support provided in class could help students make necessary adjustments and get through EFL classes taught by NESTs successfully. While it was understandable that any additional help provided by NESTs would certainly be of use, it might be unreasonable to expect all NESTs to realistically have enough time or incentive to extend extra help while conducting their classes.

Another viable means is to use tutorials to help achieve the desired effect of having NESTs at university to enhance the communicative and intercultural competence of students. Tutorials can be created and made available to students. Preparatory and/or accompanying tutorials could be designed and implemented in a format of online tutorial sessions that students could view at their pace. Students could review and familiarize themselves with conversational grammar, social expressions, and other pertinent topics.

For example, a 20-minute tutorial session could be produced on how to read years (e.g., 1935, 1960s, and 2007). During the particular tutorial, an interesting situation where an adult was stuck being unable to read a year could be played out, followed by a lesson using presentation software and a quick summary. After students view the tutorial using their smartphone or personal computer, they could do a five-minute exercise, written and verbal, to try reading off the 'years' themselves. Tutorials can help students preview and review in a systematic way what NESTs are inclined to, or may neglect to, cover in the classroom.

In addition to a wide range of topics that can be addressed pertaining to EFL learning and teaching, tutorials can be of great value by encompassing cross-cultural issues in various settings to help develop intercultural competence of students. Instead of relying on individual NESTs to throw light on cross-cultural encounters and broaden the students' understanding of other cultures, tutorials may provide a systematic approach to enhancing the students' intercultural competence.

Tutorials can be of great value, especially for those who are interested in learning to work with people from around the world. Lessons in tutorials can be built around cross-cultural incidents and present opportunities for students to think about possible causes behind the conflicts and ideal resolutions. Tutorials can even show uncomfortable situations that might arise as a result of cross-cultural misunderstandings between students and foreigners in and outside Korea.

Furthermore, tutorials can be used to bridge the gap between students and NESTs by providing explicit explanations of the teachers' expectations and teaching practices.

By explicating how NESTs teach and why they do it the way they do, tutorials can be used to illuminate NESTs' ways of teaching for students, familiarize them with NESTs' teaching strategies, and improve the effectiveness of EFL learning and teaching.

Tutorials will increase efficiency and productivity of EFL education by supporting the students' ability to become well-informed and better prepared for EFL classes taught by NESTs. With the help of tutorials, NESTs can focus their attention on developing students' language skills and fostering teacher-student and student-student interactions. In essence, tutorials can accelerate the students' language skill development and help prepare them to take full advantage of NESTs.

Since many universities in Korea are equipped with facilities to produce user-created content with professional quality nowadays, such facilities can be put into use for making and conducting tutorial sessions. NESTs could play a part in developing, conducting, managing, and/or updating tutorial sessions. NESTs can be left to work together to decide the content of tutorials. Korean faculty members can take advisory roles providing resources, ensuring the appropriateness of the tutorial content, and overseeing the students' accessibility to tutorials. Tutorials can be put together either at a university with a dozen of NESTs or more in staff or in a collaborative fashion with three or four universities working together. It may be worthwhile to coproduce and share tutorials for EFL students across Korean universities for the sake of enhancing the competitiveness of the future.

5.6 Summary

The teachers' concerns about characterizing students as a whole have been noted highlighting that the teachers' perspectives on students' EFL learning need to be understood in context. Their perspectives on students' EFL learning have been discussed in terms of the following: their motivations; needs and expectations; English knowledge base; learning behaviors; and study habits. Their perspectives on various aspects of students' EFL learning have shown their understanding of the subject in question and provided contextual information.

The teachers' perspectives on the manner in which English teaching was conducted in the mainstream school system have been considered in connection with the lack of exposure to English use in students' everyday lives. Their perspectives have shown that the students' inability to use English and learn it could be attributable to English education provided in school. An implication offered by teachers was that substantial changes would be necessary to achieve a high level of proficiency in students.

The teachers' ways of working with students' EFL learning have been discussed in terms of their pedagogical approaches and practices. Based on the premise that students would learn to speak and write English by using it, their perspectives on how to engage students in language practice have been discussed with respect to their classroom atmosphere and ways of conducting EFL classes. Their perspectives on the effectiveness of their teaching have been examined in light of certain needs and expectations of students and Korean stakeholders involved in EFL education.

A gap in EFL learning and teaching has been explored highlighting areas where students' EFL learning was incongruent with teachers' teaching. In connection with the gap, the teachers' thoughts on effectiveness of their teaching have been covered. Also, their recognition has been considered of the need to modify their teaching practices to be more closely aligned with what was expected of them by students and other stakeholders.

The teachers' thoughts on why students were unable to take full advantage of EFL classes taught by NESTs have been examined with respect to three dimensions: (a) the students' motivation to learn EFL; (b) unfamiliarity with NESTs' teaching styles; and (c) inability to converse in English. The teachers' perspectives on the prospect of preparatory EFL courses have been discussed.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION

Conclusions drawn from this study are presented below in response to the research questions. The teachers' perspectives on students' EFL learning are revisited briefly, as well as their teaching practices as related to the students' learning. Contributions made to a body of EFL education research are noted. In light of the teachers' perspectives, recommendations are made to offer a fair chance of success for students who take EFL learning seriously and enhance the effectiveness of EFL education. Then, limitations of the study are acknowledged. Lastly, directions for future research are suggested which can further address students' EFL learning and/or NESTs' teaching.

6.1 NESTs' Perspectives on Korean University Students' EFL Learning

6.1.1 Students' EFL Learning

The first research question was posed as follows: "What strengths and weaknesses do NESTs see in Korean university students' EFL learning?" During interviews, teachers talked about several issues pertaining to students' EFL learning in response to the research question. They conveyed that they liked students, who were, by and large, deemed respectful, polite, and well-mannered. They also thought that students had some positive traits that could facilitate their learning. According to teachers, students were generally attentive and willing to work with the teacher and their classmates to accomplish given tasks at hand, for example. Teachers were of the opinion that students had potential to be successful in EFL learning.

Teachers revealed their perspective during interviews that most students were not highly motivated to learn EFL, and this perspective was corroborated by the questionnaire results. They placed the students' level of motivation over other factors (e.g., gender and age) in language learning and teaching. Hence, they were deeply concerned with the low level of motivation. They identified the low level as a major obstacle to EFL learning and teaching.

Nevertheless, teachers thought that the low motivation level was understandable, which was congruent with the students' realities. They were aware that English had been a difficult academic subject throughout the students' school lives. They also recognized that students had limited opportunities to use English in a meaningful way in or outside the classroom. They took the view that the situation was no different in higher education as English was still a compulsory subject that students had to take to satisfy the general education requirements with limited opportunities to use it.

Moreover, teachers had a perspective that students perceived English to be of little value to their futures. This was because students presumably did not believe that they would use English at their future workplace regularly. Considering the realities that students faced, teachers understood why English was felt to be largely irrelevant and of limited value by students whose study areas and/or career paths were not directly linked to substantial English usage.

To put it simply, in addition to discussion of the students' motivation levels, teachers talked about what they thought accounted for the prevalent level and how this low level affected EFL learning and teaching. It appears that scant attention is given in literature to discussion of the students' motivation levels in line with their exposure (or a lack of their exposure) to English spoken.

Moreover, it seems that previous studies on students' English learning fall short of drawing attention to the fact that their motivation to learn EFL can affect their attitudes, perceptions, performances, and learning outcomes. In other words, the studies do not show signs of taking the students' motivation into account while interpreting study results. As recognized by teachers, students were not highly motivated to do their best in learning EFL. Since the recognition appears to challenge an implicit assumption made in the studies, which students want to learn to speak English, the insights provided by teachers deserve further attention.

Teachers concurred that students' knowledge was incomplete, fragmented, and impractical while referring to their vocabulary and grammar. The students' vocabulary was limited in the sense that they could not produce English words on demand nor put them together in a meaningful way. The students' grammar foundation was also far from being solid; students were unable to construct even simple sentences properly in general, let alone complex sentences. As disturbing as it may sound to students' parents and other Korean stakeholders involved in EFL education, teachers unequivocally agreed that students had still a beginner level of proficiency for all practical purposes. It is reasonable that various stakeholders have an expectation that students have adequate vocabulary and grammar knowledge after six to 12 years of English learning in the formal school system (plus private education).

Teachers were of the opinion that the students' language skills were underdeveloped. For this, they determined that the students' approaches to learning EFL were largely unproductive. They pointed out that a consequence of having knowledge acquisition overly stressed in the mainstream school system was that students were rarely given adequate practice time to develop their productive language skills of speaking and writing. The students' underdeveloped productive skills were problematic in and of themselves because they were unable to express themselves in English after years of EFL education.

Furthermore, the discrete and lopsided teaching of receptive and productive skills had practically prevented students from seeing an inseparable connection between language skills. Evidently, students experienced difficulties in making use of what they read and heard to articulate similar ideas verbally and in writing. Since the formal school system had failed to teach different language skills in a balanced way and integrate them, teachers thought that the whole language approach was necessary and beneficial to enhance the effectiveness of EFL education.

Another grave issue related to knowledge-oriented teaching was that many students had a negative attitude toward EFL learning, partially based on the following belief(s): (a) they were not good at learning English; and/or (b) English was a difficult language to learn. It was within reason for students to develop such beliefs

when they did not see improvement in their communicative ability (and in their performance on English tests) even after many years of studying English in school (and outside school).

Such beliefs were likely damaging as they could hold back those who subscribed to the beliefs, consciously or otherwise, until the beliefs were dispelled considerably. Students might go on feeling a sense of inefficacy blaming their inaptitude and inability for unsuccessful language learning. This particular sense could take a toll and linger for many years, even after graduation. In the teachers' minds, the students' low proficiency in English had more to do with the shortcomings of the formal school system than those of the individual students. The imbalanced paradigm of EFL education may have been leaving many perfectly-capable students to go on feeling inadequate and suffer for the flaws in the system.

Teachers shared a perspective that students were largely ineffective as EFL learners. They supported the perspective highlighting different aspects of students' EFL learning, including study habits and learning strategies. They expressed that the study habits and learning strategies adopted by students were not helpful in developing their language skills. They were of the opinion that students should not be held responsible for their study habits and learning strategies because they had been formed as a result of tightly-established teaching and assessment practices in the formal school system.

For example, teachers were aware that both memorizing English words out of context and studying English by closely reading English texts might have been sufficient for students to do well on the types of written tests that were given to them in school. At the secondary level of education, it might also have sufficed for students to wait until midterm and final exam periods and cram for English tests. However successful students might have been in school by cramming, teachers strongly disapproved of it when it came to language learning. Teachers frowned upon the students' ways of treating EFL as an academic subject and acting like they could get through EFL classes simply by committing information to short-term memory.

Teachers deemed students' learning strategies unsuccessful. They observed that students usually remained silent (and even appeared indifferent) in class when they should have taken the initiative to engage in discourse in English. Although teachers were aware of the sociocultural and educational context behind the students' reluctance to participate actively, their tendency to stay quiet and passive was a substantial obstacle that teachers needed to overcome on an ongoing basis, especially when a large proportion of students were not highly motivated in the classroom.

Teachers felt obligated to draw out students and engage them in articulating their thoughts in English. The students' reluctance could be a challenging aspect of teaching them EFL. This was because teachers' pedagogical approaches relied on the premise that students would take an active role in the classroom. It appears that the students' in-class behaviors are not fully documented in the studies carried out by Korean EFL scholars, possibly because the pedagogical approaches taken by the scholars do not involve a great deal of teacher-student and student-student interaction.

Teachers also thought that students did not take control over their learning outside class. Being convinced that it was vital for students to speak (and write) English as much as possible, teachers found it puzzling that students seldom spoke to one another in English unless they were explicitly asked to do so. They also found it unhealthy that students seldom made use of the teacher's office hours. They felt compelled to assign homework and give quizzes since students did not study English on their own.

Teachers acknowledged that students were not ready to take full advantage of NESTs. While it was highly beneficial for students to have EFL classes taught by NESTs from the first semester of their post-secondary study, teachers knew from personal experience that the students whom they had taught were not ready for the classes on three accounts: (a) the low degree of motivation to learn EFL; (b) unfamiliarity with NESTs' teaching styles; and (c) the low level of proficiency in English.

To put it another way, the lack of motivation in students made them less than enthusiastic about taking ownership of their learning. The situation was compounded by the students' unpreparedness as follows: Students' unfamiliarity with NESTs' ways of teaching, combined with their inability to converse in English, rendered them unable to have a full interaction with NESTs. Considering the key reason for having NESTs conduct their own classes has been to provide opportunities for students to converse and interact with them in a safe and structured environment, it is not the most sensible way of allocating resources to have unwilling and unprepared students in EFL classes taught by NESTs.

Teachers' perspective that students are not ready to take full advantage of EFL classes taught by NESTs is underrepresented in studies on students' EFL learning and the quality of university EFL education. Further research is warranted to prepare the ground for students to thrive in the classes. It will be worthwhile improving the students' readiness for EFL teaching given by NESTs in the interests of efficiency and fulfillment.

6.1.2 Teachers' Ways of Dealing with Students' Learning

The second research question was: "How do NESTs address the learning issues of Korean university students in EFL classes?" During interviews, teachers talked about how they taught EFL and why they did it the way they did in relation to what students' EFL learning meant to them. Considering the students' reluctance to take an active role in EFL learning, teachers underscored the importance of establishing an environment where students could feel comfortable, safe, and intrigued. Teachers concurred that a congenial atmosphere was an absolute necessity to draw out students who might be feeling out of place in order to engage them in EFL learning. Naturally, they attached great importance to a right environment. They thought a good atmosphere helped facilitate conversation and promote teacher-student and student-student interactions.

Moreover, teachers thought that it was largely their responsibility to create and foster an environment conducive to language learning and teaching, a responsibility which they carried out duly in their classes. As a means of making such an environment, they strove to make classes interesting, engaging, relevant, and incrementally

challenging while utilizing diverse instructional techniques and in-class activities.

Teachers made efforts to recognize good work done by students and praise them in order to elicit further participation and inspire confidence in them. They had a perspective that students would perform at their best when they were deeply involved in what took place in class so much that they forgot the obvious reason why they were there in the first place (i.e., to study a foreign language as they had done for years in the past).

Teachers were also careful not to put students into awkward situations. For instance, they eschewed criticizing individual students in front of their classmates. Accordingly, they consciously refrained from correcting students' grammar mistakes and mispronunciation in many cases. They avoided corrections in fear of discomfiting students and getting in the way of promoting fluency. They believed that facilitating fluency is far more important than achieving accuracy as far as typical students were concerned. (They might pay more attention to accuracy with more advanced students, for instance.)

Teachers stressed the need to meet students at where they 'were', and provide teaching tailored to them. Teachers thought that it was important to have a good understanding of students' knowledge, as well as their needs and expectations. They put forth that it was vital to work this understanding into choosing teaching materials and methods to ensure enjoyable and productive language education. Thinking that they had a fairly good idea about where students had been and where they were schooling-wise, they took account of students' background knowledge in their pursuit of meeting student needs and expectations. They made a point of asking students to do what they could manage successfully until students became comfortable to handle more challenging tasks.

Teachers tried to procure as much practice time as possible for students, as opposed to increasing students' knowledge of English. While they made use of students' former knowledge, they strongly believed that the students' acquisition of language skills had little to do with knowledge enhancement. They openly admitted that they did relatively little teaching about English since they were intent on providing a maximum amount of practice time to develop the students' language skills and enhance their fluency. They thought that practice time was what students needed most because language practice could help integrate and internalize students' knowledge of English to be of practical use.

By having students put their knowledge to use, teachers hoped to bridge the disparity between students' knowledge and their language skills, especially productive skills. Teachers thought that language practice could help students begin to see English as a tool of communication rather than an academic subject. When students normally had scarce opportunities to use the language outside the class, practice in the classroom was probably the next best move that could get them to use English for communicative purposes.

Another perceived benefit of practice time was that students' having a positive experience of using English could boost their levels of confidence. Moreover, first-hand experiences of using English could aid in dispelling erroneous beliefs

pertaining to difficulties in learning EFL. Thus, teachers deemed practice time invaluable. In essence, teachers promoted the idea of 'learning by doing' because they were of the opinion that language practice helped develop students' fluency and boost their confidence in speaking English (and writing it).

6.1.3 Bridging the Gap

In response to the third research question "What pedagogical changes could help improve the Korean university students' EFL learning?", teachers did not offer specific suggestions that were geared toward students. It was not because students' EFL learning was flawless as teachers talked about what made their EFL learning ineffective in length (e.g., memorizing vocabulary out of context, adhering to close reading all the time, and failing to practice using English in and outside school). Thinking that students were not the source of their ineffective EFL learning, teachers were not forthcoming with their suggestions.

When asked whether teachers could think of any instructional changes that would help enhance students' learning, they seemed to reject the idea behind the question. Teachers were confident that their teaching methods worked well. They neither saw any reason to modify their teaching methods in any way nor wanted to adjust their teaching styles. A few teachers were even offended by the suggestion that they should consider modifying their teaching styles in line with students' EFL learning. With regard to the development of language skills, teachers believed that their teaching methods were superior to those of Korean English teachers and faculty members.

Hence, it is possible that a call for instructional changes would be easily misconstrued by NESTs if the feeling is shared among NESTs at large, a feeling which teachers employed the best ways of developing the students' language skills. In this regard, mere words of suggestion would not raise the NESTs' awareness about the need to closely align their teaching styles with the students' learning styles. It would also be unrealistic to expect NESTs to make significant changes in their pedagogical practices on their own, considering how teachers dismissed the idea of modifying their teaching steadfastly.

It appeared that teachers were either oblivious to a pedagogical gap between their teaching and students' learning styles in EFL classes or did not particularly care to attach significance to it. In this study, the gap in several areas was noticed and discussed with explanations as to why teachers preferred and adhered to certain practices. Although the pedagogical gap in part is identified in literature, the rationale behind the teachers' practices has not been fully addressed in connection with students' EFL learning. A clear understanding of the rationale is of great value in understanding the nature of EFL learning and teaching in the broad context of EFL education.

To give an example of the gap, teachers' reliance on language practice is considered below. Teachers thought that practice time was of primary focus in their classes in order to develop the students' speaking skills, and thus relied heavily on teacher-student and student-student interaction to ensure a maximum amount of practice time. Teachers even questioned the validity of EFL teaching that was not accompanied by

practice time. However, the downside of overly emphasizing practice was that the students' needs to receive an explicit instruction on how to use English went unmet. In other words, the teachers' efforts to engage their students in conversation and promote student-student interaction might not have been embraced enthusiastically by students. To casual observers who were not accustomed to NESTs' teaching practice, all the talk occurring simultaneously in the classroom could appear anything but chaotic.

Instead of holding students responsible for their ineffective EFL learning, teachers thought that students' learning had been created and reinforced in the formal education system. They explained that the students' inability to verbalize their thoughts and opinions in English was the fault of the education system in place. Unless there were some major changes in the EFL education system, they believed that students would continue spending time to acquire knowledge of English with little success in gaining an ability to communicate in the target language.

Being critical of how EFL education was carried out at Korean universities, teachers felt that the ways in which the education was provided had to be changed so that students could have ample opportunities to be engaged in speaking English and writing in it. In other words, they took the view that university EFL programs had to ensure that students who were motivated and able to learn English received sufficient contact hours and practice time throughout their university study.

Teachers strongly advocated significant revisions of university EFL curriculums. They were acutely aware that NESTs were generally confined to a role of classroom teacher and had no influence on what transpired outside the classroom. They wanted to engage the Korean stakeholders in conversation about changes needed to enhance EFL education. They recognized that it was crucial to involve Korean university educators and administrators who were the gatekeepers and decision-makers. To put it another way, without active involvement of management in open discussions about areas of improvement, teachers thought that it was virtually impossible to bring about far-reaching changes in EFL education. They hoped that their thoughts and viewpoints revealed in the present study could help engage Koreans involved in EFL education in conversation.

Teachers thought that it would be mutually beneficial to work in partnership with Korean administrators, scholars, educators, and field practitioners. The finding of the study that teachers considered the Korean stakeholders as key partners with whom they could collaborate merits attention. If the stakeholders started taking heed of the voices of competent and dedicated NESTs and working with them, they were of the opinion that significant improvements could be brought to EFL education.

Although the study aimed to explore the pedagogical gap between NESTs and students as a means of ascertaining EFL learning and teaching involving the two parties, it was clear that the cross-cultural gap needed to be accounted for, as well. Cross-cultural incidents were bound to happen when each NEST brought his or her own cultural baggage to the classroom full of students who had not left the sphere of their own culture. To fully understand students' EFL learning from an NEST perspective, intercultural aspects need to be further investigated in the future study.

6.2 Contributions to the Research of EFL Education

The present study adds to a body of knowledge that has accumulated over the past few decades of research on EFL education in the Korean higher education context. It yields fresh and in-depth insights into NESTs' perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning. A greater understanding of the students' EFL learning from the perspective of the NESTs participating in the study can be instrumental in reappraising the students' ways of learning English. The reappraisal is, in turn, of tremendous value as it allows the students to see what the teachers think of their EFL learning needs and styles. For the same reason, it is also of great value to Koreans involved in EFL education in their pursuit of both harnessing the students' strengths and effecting positive changes in the ways that EFL education is provided.

Additionally, by shedding light on the NESTs' pedagogical practices and rationale, the present study equips Korean EFL educators and administrators with a better understanding of NESTs' teaching approaches and methods. In this study, it was explained why NESTs preferred and adhered to certain practices – such as participants' emphasis on a hands-on approach to learning and their inclination to eschew providing error correction–even though the practices have been met with disapproval of Korean stakeholders involved in EFL education.

Korean stakeholders in EFL education can come to terms with the recognition that NESTs operate differently in some areas. Korean educators and scholars can explore ways of aligning NESTs' teaching practices with student needs and expectations in order to bring about instructional and curricular improvement at Korean universities. Moreover, the study findings can lead to a more inclusive environment for NESTs to teach EFL effectively and work with their Korean counterparts harmoniously by bringing Korean educators and administrators a step closer to seeing the reality that NESTs see.

The present study makes a methodological contribution to EFL education research in the Korean higher education context, as well. It was carried out utilizing multiple research methods in a complementary manner, whereas a majority of previous studies conducted within the context have employed a single research method. Specifically, the study employed a quantitative research method that was incorporated into naturalistic inquiry; alternatively, qualitative research methods helped clarify and elaborate on the results obtained through the quantitative method.

There were several instances where the teachers' survey responses indicated mixed results, as in Items 24 and 25 that dealt with student gender preferences, for example. It was not feasible to draw precise interpretations of the teachers' perspectives based on the results alone. However, naturalistic inquiry made it clear that the teachers having the students' motivation on top of their list of priorities did not have a strong preference as to the student gender or age. While some survey results might not seem to correlate with the findings from qualitative research methods on the surface, quantitative and qualitative research methods provided a balanced and complete understanding of the teachers' perspectives on the students' EFL learning and related issues in the end.

Integration of multiple methods from the quantitative and/or qualitative research paradigms can be highly beneficial, especially when it comes to examining issues related to NESTs, other foreign faculty members, and international students. In particular, the concurrent use of in-depth interviews and classroom observations to confirm and, when necessary, make further inquires on the participants' thoughts can be of great value to yield fresh insights.

6.3 Recommendations

Online tutorials, as proposed in Section 5.5, can help support the students and prepare them for successful learning in EFL classes taught by NESTs. Tutorials can cover a wide range of topics, such as grammar rules, cross-cultural issues, and NESTs' teaching. Thus, they can be useful to (a) help the students review and preview teaching materials; (b) enhance their intercultural understanding; and (c) familiarize them with NESTs' teaching styles. Simply put, they can improve the effectiveness of EFL learning and teaching.

In conjunction with tutorials to enhance Korean university students' understanding of NESTs' ways of conducting EFL classes, there needs to be an effective means of bringing actual changes in the teachers' instructional methods to augment the quality of EFL teaching. In this sense, measures need to be adopted to induce NESTs to modify their teaching better attuned to Korean university students' EFL learning styles. NESTs may not initially be eager to change their ways of teaching on the grounds that they do not see a pressing need to alter their ways of teaching or dealing with the students given that they think that their pedagogical approaches and methods are effective.

Hence, raising awareness of NESTs alone would not induce pedagogical changes in line with the students' EFL learning while a deeper understanding of the students' learning is the first step. It is recommended here that those involved in EFL education start searching and experimenting with suitable and active means to better align the NESTs' teaching with the students' learning than is currently employed in many cases. When NESTs' teaching becomes more aligned with the students' learning, the teachers would come closer to actualizing their true potential as language teachers.

6.4 Limitations of the Study

Despite efforts made to achieve trustworthiness of the study, there were a number of limitations. First, the ways the samplings were carried out might present a potential limitation. The questionnaire was administered to NESTs who had taught Korean university EFL students. However, it was not clear whether the study's findings represented the perspectives of NESTs teaching Korean university EFL students. It was not technically feasible to find out how close the sample was to the entire body of NESTs owing to lack of reliable information of NESTs working at Korean universities.

Moreover, the questionnaire seemed to have had the effect of practically excluding NESTs who were not serious about, nor committed to, EFL teaching since such individuals would not care to spend time completing the questionnaire. A large

proportion of NESTs who filled in the questionnaire were also willing to participate in naturalistic inquiry. The NESTs' willingness to be involved further in the research project seemed to indicate how dedicated they were to their profession.

Based on the researcher's personal experience, there were NESTs who considered teaching merely as a job and thus were not particularly concerned about the students' EFL learning. Such individuals, too, could have similar perspectives as shown in the study. However, the individuals' perspectives could diverge in some aspects when it came to teaching practices – owing to their substandard pedagogical practices stemming from a combination of inexperience, inadequate training, and poor work ethic. In essence, the study could have excluded the individuals' perspectives inadvertently.

Second, generalization of the questionnaire results should be handled carefully due to the way in which mixed methods were employed. Efforts were made to establish the validity and reliability of the survey instrument to give care that the participants' perspectives deserved. However, there were other aspects that seemed to take priority over the instrument's validity and reliability. The questionnaire was originally designed to cover a variety of issues on the students' EFL learning, as well as other pertinent issues in a relatively short time (Section 3.1). Also, the questionnaire was never meant to be used by itself as the survey was incorporated into the study to facilitate and support naturalistic inquiry in a complementary manner. The questionnaire needs to be narrower in scope and further refined if it is going to be adopted in the future.

The present study did not fully examine the NESTs' pedagogical practices and the rationale behind their practices. It aimed to explore Korean university students' EFL learning from an NEST perspective, even though it touched upon other issues, such as NESTs' teaching practices, to better understand the students' learning. A thorough examination of NESTs' pedagogical practices was well beyond the scope of the project (as well as several pertinent topic matters). However, recognition of the NESTs' varying perspectives on effective ways of addressing and handling the students' EFL learning opened the door to a possibility of exploring in detail NESTs' practices on a wide range of teaching-related issues, such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, as well as work-related issues at Korean universities in the future.

6.5 Directions for Future Research

Being exploratory and descriptive in nature, the present study provides a broad foundation on which further research can be built. One promising direction would involve reexamining or expanding upon the issues covered in this work, possibly with a larger number of NESTs working with Korean students in and outside Korea in terms of EFL and ESL learning context. By doing so, future studies on students' English learning could yield comparable results, in whole or in part, which can be used to corroborate or question the findings of this study.

Coverage of NESTs' perspectives on how they interact and work with students will be of particular value. The coverage may be achieved by taking advantage of focus groups to have NESTs discuss the pros and cons of their teaching practices that they employ to deal with specific EFL learning issues. For example, the following issues

could be discussed: student gender effect; learner motivation; and a disparity in language skills. Full coverage of NESTs' perspectives on university EFL curriculums and programs will also be of value to foster an environment that is consistent with NESTs' teaching approaches and methods.

Moreover, research on Korean university students' EFL learning from the NESTs' perspective could be extended to cover the thoughts of Korean instructors and professors of English. Involving Korean faculty members would be worthwhile because it can shed light on the students' language learning from different angles and further enhance our understanding of the complex and multi-faceted aspects concerning the students' EFL learning. If Korean faculty members' perspectives could be compared and contrasted with NESTs' perspectives, it would reveal whether or not the perspectives of their Korean counterparts diverge from the perspectives held by NESTs on the students' EFL learning. If differences in perspectives are found to exist, then further research can be carried out to investigate where Korean faculty members and NESTs differ in perspective and provide insights to the reasons for the differences.

Going a step further, research could also be undertaken to involve Korean university EFL students in reflecting on and talking about their own EFL learning, possibly in relation to the known perspectives of NESTs and/or Korean faculty members who teach English. By examining the students' views in comparison to perspectives of teachers, NESTs and/or Korean faculty members, a more complete picture of EFL learning and teaching in higher education could be painted. The purposes of such studies should be about ascertaining where problems lie in the EFL educational context to improve EFL education in a progressive manner.

In essence, studies on students' EFL learning from various vantage points can help build a consensus and find the most effective way of delivering the best quality education to EFL learners in Korea and, by extension, in other countries with a similar educational context.

REFERENCES

Aaltonen, S. (2006). Exploring corporate Websites as a setting for ELF research: The case of Ostrobothnian export companies. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, *5*(2), 189-220. Retrieved from https://gupea.ub.gu.se/bitstream/2077/3154/1/5-2-Aaltonen.pdf

Ahn, H., & Dickey, R. J. (1999). Communication between Korean and "native speaker" faculty in university English departments. *Korean Journal of Communication Studies*, *7*(1), 167-191.

Alper, T. (16 Nov., 2008). If Korea wants to become a bilingual country like Singapore or Hong Kong. *Chosun Weekly*, *2031*. Newspaper

Alptekin, C. & Alptekin, M. (1984). The question of culture: EFL teaching in non-English speaking countries. *ELT Journal*, *38*(1): 14-20.

Arva, B., & Medgyes, P. (2000). Native and non-native teachers in the classroom. *System*, *28*, 355-372.

Atkinson, R. (1998). *The life story interview*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bae, S. Y. (2006). *Language learners' perceptions of nonnative English speaking teachers of English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of San Francisco.

Balhorn, M., & Schneider, J. (1987). Challenges of teaching EFL in Korean universities. *TESOL Newsletter*, *21*(5), 15-18.

Barratt, L., & Kontra, E. (2000). Native English-speaking teachers in cultures other than their own. *TESOL Journal*, *9*(3), 19-23.

Benson, M. J. (1991). Attitudes and motivation towards English: A survey of Japanese freshmen. *RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research in Southeast Asia*, *22*(1), 34-48.

Breen, M. (1998). *The Koreans: Who they are, what they want, where their future lies*. London: Orion.

Brinton, D. M., Snow, M. A., & Wesche, M. (1989). *Content-based second language instruction*. New York: Newbury House.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by principles*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brown, H. D. (2002). *Strategies for success: A practical guide to learning English*. Petaluma, CA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Burns, G. E., & Olson, C. P. (1989). Planning and professionalizing immersion and other FSL programs. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *45*(3), 502-516.

Busbee, E. (2001). Computer training to improve word recognition and reading speed. *English Teaching*, *56*(2), 143-165.

Byram, M. (1991). Teaching culture and language: Towards an integrated model. In D. Buttjes & M. Byram (Eds.), Mediating languages and cultures: Towards an intercultural theory of foreign language education (pp. 17-32). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

142

Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Byram, M., & Morgan, C. (1994). *Teaching-learning language-culture*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Cao Ngoc, L. V. (2009). Teaching efficacy of native and non-native teachers of English in Vietnam: A triangulation of student and teacher perceptions. Unpublished Master's thesis. Southern Illinois University at Carbondale.

Calderhead, J. (1996). Teachers' beliefs and knowledge. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 709-725). New York: Macmillan.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical basis of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(), 1-47.

Carter, K. (1990). Teachers' knowledge and learning to teach. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 291-310). New York: Macmillan.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd Ed.). Heinle & Heinle.

Chang, B.-M. (2004). A critical study on native English-speaking professors' perceptions of English educational contexts in Korea. *Journal of Namseoul University*, *10*, 271-294.

Chang, H.-J. (2009). The study on team teaching of native and Korean English teachers for English conversation instruction. *Studies in English Education*, *14*(1), 217-235.

Chin, C. (2002). Native English-speaking teachers' perceptions of learning and teaching EFL in Korea. *English Teaching*, *57*(2), 113-135.

Cho, H. (2007). *An exploratory study about the relationship between teacher's beliefs about communicative language teaching (CLT) and their instructional practices*. Hangukhaksuljeongbo [Korean Research Information]: Seoul, Korea.

Choi, C. T. (1997). Effective methods to improve college English education. *Hanshin Nonmunjip* [Academic Journal of Hanshin University], *14*(5), 181-223.

Choi, S.-A. (2002). *The use of the English language in the Korea workplace: A focus on the manufacturing industries*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California.

Choi, Y. (2001). Suggestions for the re-organization of English teaching program by native speakers in Korea. *English Teaching*, *56*(1), 101-122.

Choi, Y.-S. (2008). Practical tips for EFL native teachers and their employers in Korea. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *14*(3), 29-47.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Chong, D.-S., & Kim, H.-D. (2001). A study for the development of a university-level general English course. *English Teaching*, *56*(4), 265-292.

Chosun Ilbo (May 17 2006). Most first- and second-graders learn English privately. Retrieved from English.chosun.com/w21data/html/news/200605/200605170023.html

Chou, J. C.-H. (2003, January). *Exploring English teachers' beliefs and practical knowledge about communicative language teaching in EFL contexts* (pp. 1-36). Paper presented at the 2003 Hawaii International Conference on Education, Honolulu, USA.

Christison, M. A., & Krahnke, K. J. (1986). Student perceptions of academic language study. *TESOL Quarterly*, *20*(1), 61-81.

Chung, A. Y. (March 8, 2006). 'Study abroad' experience at Korean college. *The Korea Times*. Retrieved from times.hankooki.com/1page/nation/200603/ kt2006038118050110600.htm

Chung, A. Y. (May 2, 2006). Professors, students struggle with English. *The Korea Times*.

Chung, B. S. (1997). A suggestion for utilizing native English speaker teachers effectively. Proceedings of the Joint Conference of Honam English Teachers' Association and the Korea Association of Foreign Language Education (pp. 5-10).

Cortazzi, M. (1990). Cultural and educational expectations in the language classroom. In B. Harrison (Ed.), *Culture and the language classroom* (pp. 54-65). Hong Kong: Modern English Publications and the British Council.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crozet, V., Liddicoat, A. J., & Lo Bianco, J. L. (1999). *Striving for the third place: Intercultural competence through language education*. Melbourne: National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia.

Crystal, D. (1993). *An encyclopedic dictionary of language and languages*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Crystal, D. (1997). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dash, R., & Lee, C.-I. (2003). Critical Analysis of Problems Associated with the learning styles and strategies of Korean students. *The Journal of Studies in Language*, *19*(1), 101-121.

Dengen, T., & Absalom, D. (1998). Teaching across cultures: Considerations for Western EFL teachers in China. *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *3*(2), 117-132.

Dennis, B. (2012, October). *The Yin and Yang of language education research in Korea: Is there a place for qualitative research?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of Pan-Korea English Teachers Association, Busan, Korea.

Denzin, N. K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. New York: Praeger.

Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign language learning. *Language Learning*, *40*(1), 46-78.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford, the UK: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, L. (2002). Teaching from experience: A new perspective on the non-native teacher in adult ESL. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, *25*(1), 71-107.

Erlandson, D., Harris, E., Skipper, B., & Allen, S. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Evans, S. (1997). Teacher and learner roles in the Hong Kong English language classroom. *Education Journal*, *25*(2), 43-61.

Fleet, M. (2006). The role of culture in second or foreign language teaching: Moving beyond the classroom experience. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED491716).

Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher training, development and decision making: A model of teaching and related strategies for language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *23*(1), 27-45.

French, H. W. (April 27, 2003). South Koreans seek affirmative action to end regional bias. *New York Times*.

Gang, J. S. (1999). On the effective utilization of native English-teachers at college level. *Inmungwahak* [Liberal Arts Study, University of Seoul], *6*, 217-242.

Garrido, C., & Alvarez, I. (2006). Language teacher education for intercultural understanding. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *29*(2), 163-179.

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *Qualitative Report*, *8*(4), 597-607.

Gorard, S., (with Taylor, C.). (2004). *Combining methods in educational and social research*. New York: Open University Press.

Greene, J. C., & Caracelli, V. J. (2003). Making paradigmatic sense of mixed methods practice. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in the social and behavioral sciences* (pp. 91-110). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gress, D. R., & Ilon, L. (2009). Successful integration of foreign faculty into Korean universities: A proposed framework. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, 6(2), 183-204.

Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (1983). *Ethnography: Principles in practice*. London: Routledge.

Hammersley, M., & Atkinson, P. (1995). *Ethnography: Principles in practice* (3rd ed.). London: Routledge.

Han, S.-A. (2003). Do South Korean adult learners like native English speaking teachers more than Korean teachers of English? In Educational research, risks and dilemmas: NZARE/AARE Conference 2003 29 November – 3 December. Auckland, New Zealand: New Zealand Association for Research in Education.

Han, S.-A. (2005a). Good teachers know where to scratch when learners feel itchy: Korean learner's views of native-speaking teachers of English. *Australian Journal of Education*, *49*(2), 197-213.

Han, S.-A. (2005b). *Effective environments for English language learning and teaching in Korea: A study of adult EFL learners' perceptions*. Doctor of Education thesis, Monash University, Australia.

Holliday, A. (2007). *Doing and writing qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hong, S., & Jung, Y.-S. (2006). A study on the roles and responsibilities of native English teachers for the effective English education. *Modern Studies in English Language & Literature*, *50*(3), 137-164.

Honna, N. (2005). English as a multicultural language in Asia and intercultural literacy. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, *14*(2): 73-89.

Honna, N., & Takeshita, Y. (2001). On Japan's propensity for native speaker English: A change in sight. *Asian Englishes*, *1*. Retrieved from http://www.alc.co.jp/asian-e/honna.html

Hramiak, A. (2005). A method for analysis of data from online educational research. *Journal of interactive online learning*, *4*(2). 82-93. Retrieved January 20, 2008 from http://www.ncolr.org/jiol/issues/PDF/4.2.2.pdf

Hustler, D. (2005). Ethnography. In B. Somekh & C. Lewin (Eds.), *Research methods in the social sciences* (pp. 16-23). London: Sage.

Hyun, J., Lee, J., & Lee, H. (2003). *A study on the education fever of Korean parents*. Seoul: Korean Educational Development Institute. (in Korean)

Ide, J. H. (1982). Teaching culturally appropriate English. *English Teaching*. *23*, 61-76.

Jenkins, J. (1998). Which pronunciation norms and models for English as International Language? *ELT Journal*, *52* (2), 119-126.

Jeon, M., & Lee, J. (2006). Hiring native-speaking English teachers in East Asian countries. *English Today*, *22*(4), 53-58.

Johnson, K. (1992). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practice during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *24*(1), 83-108.

Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *1*(2), 112-133.

Jung, M. A. (2011). The Relationship between university students' communication apprehension in English and affective factors in learning English. *The Journal of Studies in Language*, *26*(4), 965-1000.

Kachru, B. B. (1982). Models for non-native Englishes. In B. B. Kachru (Ed.), *The other tongue: English across cultures* (2 ed.) (pp. 48-57). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification, and sociolinguistic realism: the English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures* (pp. 11-30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kaneko, E., Rozycki, W., & Orr, T. (2009, July). *Survey of workplace English needs among computer science graduates* (pp. 1-6). Paper presented at the IEEE Professional Communication Conference 2009, Waikiki, HI.

Kang, H.-D., Son, J.-B., & Lee, S.-W. (2006). Perceptions of and preferences for English language teaching among pre-service teachers of EFL. *English Language Teaching*, *18*(4), 25-49.

Kang, S., & Park, H. (2005). English as the medium of instruction in Korean engineering education. *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *21*(1), 155-174.

Kim, C. H. (1995). English learning in provincial universities: Problems and solutions. *English Teaching*, *50*(1), 65-92.

Kim, E. Y. (2001). *The yin and yang of American culture: A paradox*. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Kim, D.-O., Jung, D.-S., Chang, S., & Uhm, C. J. (1999). A desirable curriculum model for Korean Open Universities' freshmen English and English department programs. *English Teaching*, *54*(1), 253-296.

Kim, G. S., Lee, D. Y., Ha, J. E., & Lee, G. J. (1991). Daehak gyoyangyeongeo gyoyukui munjejeomgwa gaeseonbangan [Identifying problems in General English education programs at Korean universities and recommending solutions]. *Inmungwahakyeongunonchong* [Academic Journal of Myongji University for Humanities], *8*, 141-212. (in Korean)

Kim, H. (2005). A case study on the Blended Learning for university-level conversation classes by native English instructors. *The New Korean Association of English Language and Literature Journal*, *47*(3), 159-182.

Kim, J., Lee, J.-G., & Lee, S.-K. (2005). Understanding of education fever in Korea. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, *2*(1), 7-15.

Kim, I.-D. (2000). A study of teaching modes by native speaker teachers. *The Journal of English Language Teaching*, *12*(1), 69-82.

Kim, J.-O. (2008). *Roles of native and non-native teachers in test-preparation courses in Korea: Teachers' and students' perceptions.* Unpublished Master's Thesis. McGill University.

Kim, J. W. (2000). Methodological changes in TEFL research in Korean and new directions for the future. *English Teaching*, *55*(4), 345-366.

Kim, K. J. (2006). Examining roles for EFL teachers: From the Korean learners' perspectives. *Foreign Languages Education*, *13*(4), 23-45.

Kim, K.-J., Shin, M., Yang, H.-K., & Kim, J.-W. (1999). Needs assessment of Korean university EFL learners: A case study. *Foreign Language Education Research*, *2*, 1-28.

Kim, M. (2009). Native English speaking teachers (NESTs) and teaching their culture in Korea. *The Journal of Studies in Language*. *25*(3), 421-445.

Kim, S. (1998). Difference in effectiveness between native and non-native speakers in English language teaching: An experimental study. *Studies in English Education*, *3*(1), 87-99.

Kim, S.-B. (1998). Woneomin gwa biwoneomin yeong-eo gyosa ui gyoyugjeog hyogwasang ui chai wa geu jean [The educational effectiveness of native and non-native speaker teachers: The differences and suggestions]. *Studies in English Education*, *3*, 87-90.

Kim, S. D., Song, H. H., Kim, S. J., Lee, J. B., & Byeon, I. S. (1993). Daehak gyoyanggyoyukui hyeonhwanggwa gaesun banghyang [Current status and future direction of university General Education]. *Inmunnonchong* [Academic Journal of Ajou University for Humanities], *4*, 297-326.

Kim, S.-W. (2001). A study on the English education in Kwangwoon University. *Inmun-sahoegwahakyeongusononmumjip* [Academic Journal of the Kwangwoon University's Institute of Humanities and Social Sciences], *29*(1), 145-165.

Kim, T. J. (January 2005). Discussion paper No. 055 shadow education: School quality and demand for private tutoring in Korea. 21COE Interfaces for Advanced Economic Analysis, Kyoto University, Japan. Retrieved from www.kier.kyoto-u.ac.jp/coe21/dp/51-60/21COE-DP055.pdf

Kim, T. H. (December 5, 2005). Number of TOEIC takers reaches world's highest. *The Korea Times*. Retrieved from times.hankooki.com/1page/200512/ kt2005120517350210160.htm

Kim, Y. (2003). Intercultural personhood: An integration of Eastern and Western perspectives. In L. A. Samovar and R. E. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication* (pp. 436-448). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.

Kim, Y. (2004). Teaching English overseas: From EFL instructors' perspectives. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *10*(3), 67-88.

Kim, Y. B., & Kim, M. S. (2002). *Analysis of cramming institutions' education status*. KEDI Research Report RR 2002-1. Seoul, Korea: Korean Educational Development Institute. (in Korean)

Kim, Y.-E., & Jeong, S.-H. (2008). A study on the effect and the preference of the English class by native English speaking instructor: Focused on the students related to the hospitality in college and university. *Gwangwangyeongu* [Tourism Research], *23*(2), 427-447.

Kim, Y. H., Ryu, H., Kim, H., Lee, H., & Lee, J. (2003). *Investigation of the current conditions of private education*. Seoul, Korea: Korean Educational Development Institute. (in Korean)

Klopf, D. W., & Park, M. S. (1992). *Intercultural communication fundamentals*. Seoul, Korea: Hanshin.

Kong, N.-H. (1996). The communicative approach to Korean college English. *English Teaching*, *51*(1), 97-118.

Korea Immigration Service. (2009). *KIS Statistics 2008*. Retrieved from http://std.kedi.re.kr/

Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation. (1999). *Curriculum, assessment and College Scholastic Ability Test in the Republic of Korea*. Seoul: Author.

Korean Educational Development Institute. (2009). *Daehak Gongsijeongbo Bunseokjaryogyp 2008* [Analysis of College Information Disclosed 2008]. Retrieved February 23, 2010, from www.academyinfo.go.kr

Kosofsky, D. (1986). *Common problems in Korean English*. Seoul, Korea: Sogang University Press.

Kwon, M. (2007). A study on the qualities of native English instructors of university. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, *7*(3), 411-438.

Kwon, M.-B. (2009). A study on the quality of class by native professors and students' satisfaction. *The New Korean Association of English Language and Literature Journal*, *51*(2), 199-218.

Kwon, O. (2000). Korea's English education policy changes in the 1990s: Innovations to gear the nation for the 21st century. *English Teaching*, *55*(1), 47-91.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1991). Language-learning tasks, teacher intention and learner interpretation. *ELT Journal*, *45*(2), 98-107.

Lan Yu, H. K. S. (2005). Historical and contemporary exam-driven education fever in China. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, *2*(1), 17-33.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1986). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lee, C.-I., & Dash, R. (2003). Critical analysis of problems associated with the learning styles and strategies of Korean students. *Journal of Studies in Language*, *19*(1), 101-121.

Lee, C. J. (2005). Perspective: Korean education fever and private tutoring. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, *2*(1), 99-107.

Lee, D. W. (April 13, 2005). Native English speakers in Korea. *The Korea Times*.

Lee, H.-J. (2001). The role of native English-speaking teachers in the Korean EFL education system. *The Study of English Education*, *6*(2), 33-67.

Lee, H. S. (2008). *Yeongeogwa gyoyukgwajeong mich gyogwayong doseo gaeseon bangan yeongu*. [Study on improvement measures of English curriculum and textbooks]. Retrieved from http://library.mest.go.kr/edu/components/searchir/viewer/frame.aspx?type=FILE&cid=271073&rid=5

Lee, J.-S. (1993). A proposal for the improvement of the basic [General] college English teaching in Korea. *Injenonchong* [Academic Journal of Inje University], *9*(2), 463-479.

Lee, J.-W. (1996). Effective use of Korean EFL teachers after English-language market opening in Korea. *English Teaching*, *51*(1), 39-58.

Lee, K.-R. (1999). Differences in questioning behavior between native teachers and nonnative teachers. *English Teaching*, *54*(3), 157-175.

Lee, S., & Kim, S. (2002). Exploratory research into a framework to measure quality of English education. *English Teaching*, *57*(4), 559-573.

Lee, S.-R. (2007). A qualitative inquiry into autobiographies of native English-Speaking Teachers. *The Journal of Korean Educational Forum*, *6*(2), 1-14.

Lee, S.-R. (2011). *A hermeneutic inquiry into the conflicts of native English speaking teachers*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Alberta, Canada.

Lee, Y.-H. (2003). Research on General Education English curriculum in Osan College. *Haksaengsaenghwalyeongu* [Study on Life of Students at Osan College], *8*, 79-94.

Lee, Y. J. (2000). A study on the improvement of college English education. *Inmungwahak Yeongu Nonchong* [Academic Journal of Myongji University for Humanities], *21*, 77-95. (in Korean)

Lee, Y.-S., & Im, H.-M. (2005). A study on the General English education. *Jungdeunggyoyukyeongu* [Educational Research at the Secondary Level], *53*(3), 257-276. (in Korean)

Lee, W. (1994). *Chodeung yeongeo gyoyuk* [Theory of elementary English education]. Seoul, Korea: Munjindang.

Lee Bollen, V. (1999). Teaching and promoting the use of strategies to improve critical thinking and problem solving skills in the EFL classroom. *English Teaching*, *54*(4), 223-237.

Li, D. (1997). Absolutely not the same: The potential and problems of communicative language teaching in China. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Alberta.

Li, D. (1998). "It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine": Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(4), 677-702.

Li, M. (2002). *Roles, expectations and pedagogical awareness: A case study of expatriate English teachers in China*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED475522).

Li, M. (2003). Roles, expectations and pedagogies: Cross-cultural differences and implications. *New Zealand Journal of Adult Learning*, *31*(1), 63-81.

Lichtman, M. (Ed.). (2011). *Understanding and evaluating qualitative educational research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lim, S.-B. (2001). A study on CNUE [Chinju National University of Education] students' attitudes toward General English education. *Haksangsanghwalyeongu* [Study on Life of Students at Chinju National University of Education], *10*, 45-81. (in Korean)

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. London: Sage.

Liu, M., & Zhang, L. (2007). Student perceptions of native & non-native English teacher's attitudes, teaching skills assessment and performance. *Asian EFL Journal*, *9*(4), 157.

Long, M., & Crookes, G. (1992). Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. *TESOL Quarterly*, *26*(1), 27-56.

Marshall, M. (1998). Sampling for qualitative research. *Family Practice*, *13*(6), 522-525.

Matsuda, S. (2003). Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom. *System*, *32*(1), 21-36.

Mauranen, A., & Metsä-Ketelä, M. (2006). Introduction: English as a lingua franca. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, *5*(2), 1-8. Retrieved from https://gupea.ub.gu.se/bitstream/2077/3146/1/5-2-Introduction.pdf

McCargar, D. F. (1993). Teacher and student role expectations: Cross-cultural differences and implications. *Modern Language Journal*, *77*(2), 192-207.

McClelland, N. (2000). Goal orientations in Japanese college students learning EFL. In S. Cornwell & P. Robinson (Eds.), *Individual differences in foreign language learning: Effects of aptitude, intelligence, and motivation* (pp. 99-115). Tokyo: Japanese Association for Language Teaching.

McKay, S. L. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

McNeill, D. (2008). South Korea seeks a new role as a higher-education hub. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, *54*(28), A1-A24.

Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal*, *46*(4), 340-349.

Medgyes, P. (1994). *The non-native teachers*. London, Macmillan.

Medgyes, P. (2001). When the teacher is a non-native speaker. In M. Celcie-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed.) (pp. 415-427). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Meijer, P. C., Verloop, N., & Beijaard, D. (1999). Exploring language teachers' practical knowledge about teaching reading comprehension. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *15*(1), 59-84.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Brass.

Midgley, W. (2008). Searching for gems in the mud: An example of critical reflection on research in education. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, *4*(1), 14-24.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman. A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Miller, J. (February 28, 2006). What was she thinking? (column). *The Korea Times*.

Miller, L. S. (2001). Needs analysis in a university English conversation program. *English Teaching*, *56*(4), 113-139.

Min, S., & Jung, K. (2000). Communicative language teaching and uses of Korean (L1) in the English classroom. *English Language Teaching*, *12*(1), 55-68.

Moon, E.-J., Park, O.-H., Oh, Y.-J., & Choi, W.-K. (2009). A study of an effective way for English vocabulary acquisition: Utilizing Flying-Popcorn and cooperative learning activities in ABEEK Program. *Journal of Korean Institute of Information Technology*, *7*(2), 264-275.

Moon, Y. (1976). A historical review of the teaching of English in Korea (1883-1976). *Eungyoung Eonohak* [Applied Linguistics], *8*(2), 203-222. (in Korean)

Moon, Y. (1991). English education in Korea: A retrospective review of last 100 years. In D. B. Jeong (Ed.), *English education* (pp. 1-18). Seoul, Korea: Hanshin.

Morrison, K., & Lui, I. (2000). Ideology, linguistic capital and the medium of instruction in Hong Kong. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *21*(6), 471-486.

Moussu, L., & Llurda, E. (2008). Non-native English-speaking English language teachers: History and research. *Language Teaching*, *41*(3): 315-348.

Murray, N. (1998). A conundrum for language teaching. *ELT Journal*, *52*(2), 154-155.

Naiman, N., Fröhlich, M., Stern, H., & Todesco, A. (1978). The good language teacher. Research in Education Series No. 7. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Nakamura, T. (2005). Educational system and parental education fever in contemporary Japan: Comparison with the case of South Korea. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, *2*(1), 35-49.

Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner-centered curriculum: A study in second language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1991). Communicative tasks and the language curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, *25*(2), 279-295.

Nunan, D. (1995). Closing the gap between learning and instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, *29*(1), 133-158.

Nunan, D. (1999/2000). Yes, but is it English? *TESOL Matters*, *9*(6): 3.

Oak, S., & Martin, V. (Eds.). (2003). *Teaching English to Koreans*. New Jersey: Hollym International Corporation.

O'Donnell, T. J. (2006). Learning English as a foreign language in Korea: Does CALL have a place? Asian EFL Journal, Professional Teaching Articles, *11*, 1-27. Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/ pta_april06_TJO.pdf

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*, 307-332.

Park, B.-S. (1998). Problems in college English education in Korea. *English Language Literature*, *44*(3), 721-747.

Park, C. (1997). Learning style preferences of Korean, Mexican, Armenian-American, and Anglo students in secondary schools. *National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) Bulletin*, *81*(585), 103.

Park, C. (2002). Peer pressure and learning to speak English: Voices from the selected learners. *English Teaching*, *55*(4), 231-268.

Park, C. (2002). Crosscultural [*sic*] differences in learning styles of secondary English learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *26*(2), 443-459.

Park, C. (2004). When are Korean students ready to talk? *English Language Teaching*, *16*(2), 209-245.

Park, G.-P. (1999). Research on the efficiency of English teaching by native speakers. *Studies in English Education*, *4*(1), 183-195.

Park, G. Y. (2004). *Yeongeogyoyukgwa yeonguui munjedeul* [Problems in English education and research]. Seoul; Hanbichmunhwa.

Park, J.-E. (1997). Communicative freshman [*sic*] English teaching program by native speaker teachers. *English Teaching*, *52*(1), 161-187.

Park, J.-K. (1997). Integrating culture into communicative English teaching. *English Teaching*, *52*(4), 135-154.

Park, J.-K. (1999). Teaching English: Korean culture and context. *English Teaching*, *54*(3), 3-21.

Park, J.-K. (1995). Issues in teaching EFL in elementary schools in Kwangju area. *Language Teaching*, *24*, 131-156.

Park, J. S. (1996). Daehak Yeongeogyoyukui siltaebunsukgwa hyoyuljeokin hakseuphwan-gyeong joseongeul wihan jeon [Analysis of current status of English education at Korean universities with accompanying suggestions for creating and fostering an effective educational environment]. *Daehakbaljeonseminajaryojip* [Compilation of Seminars Held in 1996 for University Improvement at Gwangju University] (pp. 113-134).

Park, J. S., & Kim, D. J. (2000). Pedagogical effects of team teaching with native English speakers: An experiment to compare alternative teaching models. *Foreign Languages Education*, *7*(1), 97-121.

Park, J. Y. (2011). On the relationship between affective factors and speaking achievement. *Studies in English Education*, *16*(1), 167-180.

Park, J. W. (2003). *Understanding qualitative research: Learning by doing*. Seoul, Korea: Hangukmunhwasa.

Park, K.-P. (1999). Research on the efficiency of English teaching by native speakers. *Studies in English Education*, *4*(1), 183-195.

Park, K. S. (2009). *Reflective language teaching in the Korean context*. Paju, Korea: Jimoondang.

Park, P. (2006). A preliminary study of developing an English learning and teaching model for students of electronic and computer engineering. *English Language Teaching*, *18*(3), 191-222.

Phillipson, R. (1992). ELT: The native speaker's burden? *ELT Journal*, *46*(1), 12-18.

Pica, T. (1994). Questions from the language classroom research perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*(1), 49-80.

Pica, T. (2002). Subject-matter content: How does it assist the interactional and linguistic needs of classroom language learners? *Modern Language Journal*, *86*(1), 1-19.

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(), 737-758.

Rha, J.-H. (2009). Investigating EFL college students' expectations of an intensive English camp and their affective involvements in the camp. *Jungang Journal of English Language and Literature*, *51*(1), 189-209.

Rampton, M. B. H. (1990). Displacing the 'native speaker': Expertise, affiliation, and inheritance. *ELT Journal*, *44*(2), 97-101.

Rao, Z. (2001). Matching teaching styles with learning styles in East Asian contexts. *The Internet TESL Journal*, *7*(7). Retrieved January 23, 2010, from http://itesij.org/ Techniques/Zhenhui-TeachingStyles.html

Reid, J. (1987). The learning style preferences of ESL students. *TESOL Quarterly*, *21*(1), 87-111.

Richards, J. C., & Nunan, D. (1990). *Second language teacher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Rogers, T. S. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, M. (1995). Planning for successful teaching: Questioning in the language classroom. *Mosaic*, *2*(3), 21-22.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Richards, T., Fisher, D., & Fraser, B. (1996, December). *Gender and cultural differences in teacher students interpersonal behavior*. Paper presented at the conference of the Educational Research Association, Singapore and the Australian Association of Research in Education. Singapore.

Robinson, G. L. N. (1988). *Cross cultural understanding: Processes and approaches for foreign language, English as a second language, and bilingual educators*. New York: Pergamon.

Roh, S. (2006). A research on methods for English native-speakers' teaching in Korean EFL classes. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *12*(3), 51-78.

Ryu, H.-Y., Hwang, S.-Y., Nam, E.-H., & Lee, M.-K. (2006). Learners' perception [sic] of contextual variables of their English studies. *Jungang Journal of English Language and Literature*, *48*(4), 91-116.

Sale, J., Lohfeld, L., & Brazil, K. (2002). Revisiting the quantitative-qualitative debate: Implications for mixed-methods research, *Quality and Quantity*, *36*(1), 43-53.

Savignon, S. J. (1983). *Communicative competence*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Savignon, S. J. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. *TESOL Quarterly*, *25*(2), 261-277.

Seliger, H. (1977). Does practice make perfect? A study of interaction patterns and L2 competence. *Language Learning*, *27*(), 263-278.

Seo, I. H. (2006, November 20). Neureonaneun Woneomin Gangsa [Increasing NESTs], *Juganjoseon* [the Weekly Josun], *1930*, pp. 78-80.

Seth, M. J. (2002). *Education fever: Society, politics, and the pursuit of schooling in South Korea*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

Shaw, W. D. (1981). Asian students attitudes towards English. In L. Smith (Ed.), *English for Cross-Cultural Communication* (pp. 108-122). London: Macmillan.

Shin, C. Y. (2010a). Problems encountered by Western English teachers with the paperwork and feedback mechanism. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *16*(2), 147-168.

Shin, C. Y. (2010b, June). *Getting to know native English-speaking teachers: Cursory review of research methods used to tap their perceptions*. Paper presented at the 2010 KETA Joint Conference & ETAK International Conference, Gongju, the Republic of Korea.

Shin, C. Y. (2011a). Native English-speaking teachers' quandary: What to do with so many students? *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, *8*(3), 79-103.

Shin, C. Y. (2011b). Rethinking the guideline for the course portfolio based on the Western English teachers' perceptions. *English Language Teaching*, *23*(4), 177-204.

Shin, C. Y. (2014). Hear, oh hear, the voices of the marginalized: Assumptions, methods and implications in capturing the voices of expatriate teachers in Korea. In W. Midgley, A. Davies, M. E. Oliver, & P. A. Danaher (Eds.), *Echoes: Ethics and issues of voice in education research* (pp. 83-93). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense.

Shin, C. Y., Kang, Y.-C., & Kim, I.-J. (2010). Fostering the use of multimedia in language classes: Practical suggestions based on western teachers' perspectives. *Journal of Korean Institute of Information Technology*, *8*(3), 125-133.

Shin, I.-S., & Chung, J. Y. (2009). Class size and student achievement in the United States: A meta-analysis. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, *6*(2), 3-19.

Shin, S. C. (1981). Teaching English as a foreign language at Korean colleges. *English Teaching*, *22*, 205-218. (in Korean)

Shiozawa, T., Simmons, T., & Noda, K. (1993). Working conditions and career parameters in the educational environment for foreign teachers of language in Japan: Conflict and resolution, discrimination, and empowerment. *Journal of International Studies*, *3*(10), 157-194. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED380358)

Smith, L. E. (Ed.) (1983). *Readings in English as an international language*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Somekh, B., & Lewin, C. (2005). Glossary. In B. Somekh & C. Lewin (Eds.), *Research methods in the social sciences* (pp. 344-349). London: Sage.

Song, M.-J. (1994). A study on common factors affecting Asian students' English oral interaction. *English Teaching*, *49*(?), 191-219.

SPSS Inc. (2011). *SPSS Statistics 18.0 applications guide*. Chicago, IL: Author.

Spodark, E. (2001). The changing role of the teacher: A technology-enhanced, student-centered lesson on French fashion. *Foreign Language Annals*, *34*(1), 46-51.

Stewart, E. C., Danielian, J., & Foster, R. J. (1998). Cultural assumptions and values. In M. J. Bennett (Ed.), *Basic concepts of intercultural communication: A reader* (pp. 157-171). Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Suh, G. W. (2000). Daehakyeongeo gyoyukui munjejumgwa gyosubangbeopui gaesunyeongu [Study on problems with English education at Korean universities with accompanying recommendations to bring forth improvement in teaching methods]. *Nonmumjip* [Academic journal of Samcheok University], *33*(3), 245-266.

Suh, K.-H., Pai, M.-S., Yoo, J.-K., Park, J.-S. (1999). The development of effective English teaching methods for the industrial university. *English Teaching*, *54*(1), 297-325.

Tajino, A., & Tajino, Y. (2000). Native and non-native: What can they offer? *ELT Journal*, *54*(1), 3-11.

Talebinezhad, M. R., & Aliakbari, M. (2001). Evaluation and justification of a paradigm shift in the current ELT models in Iran. *Linguistik online*, *10*(02). Retrieved from http://www.linguistik-online.de/10_02/talebinezhadaliakbari.pdf

Tang, C. (1997). On the power and status of nonnative ESL teachers. In B. Norton (Ed.), Teaching issues: The identity of the nonnative ESL teacher, *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*(3), 577-580.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2003). Major issues and controversies in the use of mixed methods. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 3-50). London: Sage.

Tonkin, H. (2001). Language learning, globalism, and the role of English. *ADFL Bulletin* (Association of Departments of Foreign Languages) *32*.2, 5-9. Retrieved XX from http://uhaweb.hartford.edu/TONKIN/pdfs/langlearning.pdf

Trochim, W. M. K. (2006, October 20). *Research methods knowledge base: Nonprobability sampling*. Retrieved from http://www.socialresearch methods.net/ kb/sampnon.php

Walker-Gibbs, B. (2004). No more bricks in the wall: Researching postmodernism, post-literacy and education. In P. Coombes, M. Danaher & P. A. Danaher (Eds.), *Strategic uncertainties: Ethics, politics and risk in contemporary educational research* (pp. 171-184). Flaxton, Qld: Post Pressed.

Todd, R. W. (2006). The myth of the native speaker as a model of English proficiency. *rEFLections*, *8*, 1-7.

Weir, C. J., & Roberts, J. (1994). *Evaluation in ELT*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Widdowson, H. G. (1992). ELT and EL teachers: Matters arising. *ELT Journal*, *46*(4), 333-339.

Widdowson, H. G. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*(2), 377-389.

Wiersma, W. (2000). *Research methods in education: An introduction*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Won, E.-S., Lee, J.-B., & Jeong, D.-B. (2009). A survey of teaching stresses of native English teachers: Based on teachers engaged in N university. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *15*(1), 229-249.

Xiao, L. (2006). Bridging the gap between teaching styles and learning styles: A cross-cultural perspective. *Journal for Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, *10*(3), 1-15.

Yeung, D. (2001). Toward an effective quality assurance model of Web-based learning: The perspective of academic staff. *Online Journal of Distance learning Administration*, *4*(4). Retrieved from http://www.westga.edu/~distance/ojdla/ winter44/ yeung44.html

Yom, M.-S. (1997). Effective management of native EFL teachers in Korean educational environments. *Usongsaneopdaehakgyo Nonmunjip* [Journal of Woosong University], *2*, 301-323.

You, I., & Lee, J. (2008). A qualitative study on EFL teacher's empowerment factor. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, *8*(4), 473-500.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire

<u>Survey of native English-speaking teachers' (NESTs') perspectives on Korean university students' EFL learning</u>

This questionnaire will be used only for academic purposes. Your information will be kept strictly confidential.

A. Please circle the appropriate response and fill out the following information to the best of your knowledge.

Gender: □ Male   □ Female   **Age**: _____ years old
Nationality: Australia/Canada/England/Ireland/New Zealand/Southern Africa/USA
               Please specify: _____
Affiliated institution: □ 2-year college   □ 4-year university
Number of years teaching EFL in Korea: _____ years
Number of years teaching ESL/EFL: _____ years

B. If you are interested in expanding on your responses, please provide contact information for a follow-up interview. If not, skip this section and proceed to Section C. Your identity will be kept confidential, and any information that can link data to your identity will not be released.

Name: _____   **Telephone number**: _____
City of residence: _____   **e-mail address**: _____

C. Indicate the degree to which you disagree/agree with the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree) by circling the appropriate number.

		disagree ↔ agree				
1.	Korean students have respect for NESTs.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Korean students have a strong foundation in grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Korean students make use of the NEST's office hours.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Korean students tend to be responsible for their own learning.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Korean students can have a plenty of exposure to English outside the classroom if they like.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	All four major skill areas (speaking, listening, writing and reading) should be developed in a balanced way.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Korean students want to have a one-on-one conversation with the NEST in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	A friendly, comfortable class atmosphere is ideal for language teaching and learning.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	The NEST is largely responsible for creating a friendly, comfortable class atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5

10.	Korean students are visually oriented.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	A diverse assortment of tasks and activities are required to captivate Korean students' interest.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Korean students are not serious about developing English skills for communication.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Encouragement can elicit the participation of Korean students.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Korean students want their mistakes to be corrected right away by the NEST.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	The Korean students' silence indicates their lack of interest.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	NESTs' teaching methods are superior to those of Korean teachers of English for communicative language teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Provided that Korean students do their best during their study, they can learn to pronounce English well enough to be understood with ease by a native English speaker.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	With the current curriculum, Korean students can have a good command of English by the time they graduate.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Korean students prefer American English to other varieties of English.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I am well aware of the needs of Korean students.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Korean students do their best when they are under pressure, such as quizzes and tests.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I enjoy teaching Korean students.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Korean students are generally afraid of making mistakes in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Korean female students are easier to work with than Korean male ones.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Having both male and female can induce Korean students to talk more in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Homework is necessary for Korean students to review/preview lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	NESTs occasionally must discipline Korean students for class management.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Korean students' language learning behavior is effective.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Korean administrators and faculty members put NESTs' inputs and feedback into consideration in decision making.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Most Korean students are already familiar with NESTs' teaching methods when they take their first college-level English course taught by the NEST.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Korean students want to have an interaction with their NEST outside the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	It is expected of the NEST to provide help to his/her students if some of them are struggling.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Fresh-out-of-high-school Korean students are ready to get the most of English courses taught by NESTs.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Korean students have a strong desire to learn to express themselves in English.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Only NESTs are fit to teach English Conversation courses.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B: Color-Coded Survey Data Sheet

1=Y, 2=N

M=1, F=2   2=1, 4=2   Nationality: Australia=1, Canada=2, England=3, Ireland=4, New Zealand=5, Southern Africa=6, USA=7, others=8

Appendix C: Letter of Invitation to Participants

[Date]   Christian Youngwan Shin
                                          [Address]
                                          [Additional contact information]

Hello.

I am interested in exploring the perspectives of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) on Korean university students' EFL learning. By making the concerns and wants of the teachers known to Korean scholars, faculty members and policy makers, I hope to raise an awareness of those involved in English education and foster an environment in which NESTs can enjoy and thrive. At the same time, I would like to raise an awareness of NESTs about their own perspectives at the conceptual level.

More specifically, I would like to examine the following three issues: (a) what aspects of working with Korean college and university students concern NESTs; (b) how the teachers deal with the matters of concern; and (c) what changes are deemed desirable to improve EFL education. The study I intend to undertake partly fulfils the requirement for a graduate degree in education at the University of Southern Queensland, Australia.

In addition to the survey, I would like to have a chance to interview you in person. Of course, the participation is completely voluntary. You may refuse or withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences. I assure you that every effort will be made to protect your identity and maintain confidentiality of all your input and feedback.

If you agree to be interviewed, I will contact you within a couple of weeks to arrange a time and place for interview. Should you have any questions, comments or suggestions in the mean time, please do not hesitate to contact me at [e-mail address] or at [phone number].

I thank you in advance for your time and effort.

                                          Sincerely,

                                          Christian Youngwan Shin
                                          [Job title]
                                          [Affiliated university]

Appendix D: Interview Questions

Korean University Students' EFL Learning

1. What has it been like to teach Korean university EFL students?
   a. How do you like teaching students?
   b. What is your overall impression of students?
2. How motivated do you think students are to learn EFL?
   a. What factors can account for the students' level of motivation?
   b. What motivates students to put in time and effort?
3. What are student needs and expectations?
   a. What are student needs and expectations in the classroom?
   b. How do you address student needs?
   c. How do you meet student expectations?
   d. What do you think students expect of you and your teaching?
   e. What difficulties, if any, have you encountered while teaching students?
      i. What challenges do you think students face in EFL learning?
      ii. Do you have any anecdotes or stories?
4. How is students' knowledge, such as vocabulary and grammar?
5. How are students' language skills (i.e., speaking, writing, listening, and reading)?
6. What do you think of students' EFL learning behaviors?
   a. What are students' study habits like?
   b. Do you think students study better under pressure of quizzes and tests?
   c. Do you think students' EFL learning strategies are effective?
      cf. Can you give some examples of students' learning strategies?
7. What are students like in the classroom?
   a. Do students participate actively in class?
      i. What does students' general silence in class mean to you?
      ii. What do you think it possibly means to other NESTs?
   b. Are students ready to take EFL classes taught by NESTs?
   c. Can students take full advantage of NESTs' teaching?
      cf. If not, why? What measures can be taken to better prepare students?

NESTs' Teaching in Relation to Korean University Students' EFL Learning

8. What is your approach to EFL teaching?
   a. What do you think your role is?
      i. Do you consider yourself a professor?
      ii. If not, how do you identify yourself in relation to your responsibilities?
   b. What is an ideal environment for students to practice using English?
   c. How do you create and foster such an environment in your class?
   d. How do you engage students in EFL learning in the classroom?
      cf. What measures do you take to keep students engaged? And how often?
   e. How do you keep students engaged in EFL learning outside the classroom?
   f. How do you deal with any teaching-related difficulties in and outside the classroom?
9. How do you work with students' knowledge, such as vocabulary and grammar?

10. How do you develop students' language skills?
   a. Which language skill(s) do you normally teach (or emphasize) in your classes?
   b. What do you do to develop students' speaking skills?
   c. Do you develop students' writing skills? And, if so, how do you do it?
   d. What is your thought on development of all four skills in a balanced way (through the whole language approach)?
   e. Have you modified your teaching to be more compatible with students' learning? And, if so, how?

Changes Necessary to Enhance Korean University Students' EFL Learning

11. Can you identify obstacles that stand in the way of university EFL education?
   cf. Have you tried to introduce changes? How did that work out?
12. What changes are deemed desirable in students (and NESTs at Korean universities) to improve the effectiveness of EFL learning (and teaching)?
   a. What changes do you like to see in students' learning?
   b. Can you think of any changes you would like to make in your teaching?

Appendix E: Letter of Consent

<div align="center">

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN QUEENSLAND
Doctoral Program in Education

LETTER OF CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

</div>

Project Title:

Native English-speaking teachers' perspectives on Korean university students' learning of English as a foreign language

Purposes of the Study:

The study intends to explore the perspectives of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) on Korean students' EFL learning at the tertiary level. This study aims to identify obstacles to English teaching and learning from the individual teacher's perspective.

Non-participation Statement:

The participation in this study is voluntary, and the participants who agree to be interviewed may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without any negative consequences.

Procedures:

First, a face-to-face interview will be arranged and held with one instructor/professor at a time. Each interview is expected to last for about two hours. If mutually agreed, follow-up interviews shall be conducted. The interview will be tape-recorded. The whole process of collecting data and feedback will be conducted in person and by e-mail in the fall and winter of 2010. The final report of the study will be forwarded upon request to the participants and those involved in this study via e-mail.

Confidentiality:

Every effort will be made to ensure the protection of confidentiality. Each participant for interview will choose, or be given if preferred, a pseudonym which will appear on all written materials instead of the participant's real name or any pertaining personal information thereof. Also, all information that could compromise confidentiality will NOT be released, verbally or in writing, to any individuals, parties, or institutions under normal circumstances. All recordings and documents which could expose the identity of the participants will be either kept in a locked box or stored in the researchers' personal computer (secured with a password) in the researcher's residence for safekeeping.

Potential Risks and Benefits:

There are no apparent risks to the participants. The benefits of this study are twofold. This study can increase public consciousness, in academic circles, of particular

concerns of NESTs and therefore help improve a teaching environment. It can help beget discussions among NESTs to reflect on how to meet the needs, expectations, and learning styles of Korean university EFL learners, a discussion which will enhance the effectiveness of EFL teaching over time.

Publication Statement:

This study will be submitted to fulfill the requirement for a research dissertation. A whole or part of the study may be published in academic journals or books. It may also be used for professional presentations and educational purposes. Irrespective of a medium of presentation, the identity of the participants will be protected; confidentiality ensured.

READ THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS CAREFULLY

Participant Rights:

1. I understand that informed consent is required of all persons participating in this study.
2. All procedures have been explained to me as well as any potential risks/discomforts and benefits.
3. All questions have been answered. I understand that I may direct my questions to the chief researcher, Christian Y. Shin, at [e-mail address] or at [cell phone number].
4. I understand that if I wish to make a complaint about any aspect of the study I may do so by contacting the NHMRC Secretary, USQ Human Research Ethics Committee at 011-617-4631-2956.
5. I have been informed of my right to refuse to participate or to withdraw from this study at any time before or during the study. I may also refuse to answer any question.
6. All information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can identify me will remain confidential as far as possible. Information gained from this study that might identify me may be released to no one except the chief researcher, Christian Y. Shin. The results may be published in, professional journals, or educational presentations without identifying me by name.

I HAVE READ THIS CONSENT FORM AND HAVE BEEN GIVEN THE OPPORTUNITY TO ASK QUESTIOINS, WHICH I HAVE RECEIVED ANSWERS FOR. I CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY.

Study Participants (print name):

_____

Signature of Study Participant:

_____

Date: _____

---------------------------DO NOT WRITE BELOW THIS LINE------------------------

THE PARTICIPANT HAS READ THIS FORM. AN EXPLANATION OF THE RESEARCH WAS GIVEN, AND QUESTIONS FROM THE PARTICIPANT WERE ANSWERED TO THE PARTICIPANT'S SATISFACTION.

Chief Researcher (print name and title):

_____

Signature of Chief Researcher:

_____

Appendix F: Class Observation Sheet

· Instructor: Date:

1. Learner level: Mixed   L/M/H Beginner   L/M/H Intermediate   L/M/H Advanced

2. Setting: □ Fixed □ Movable   Gender distribution: Male ___ Female ___
                                                          Segregation by gender: □ Yes □ No □ N/A

Class hour: min

	Memo (Give a brief description on the field note when applicable)
3. Greeting:	□ Yes □ No
4. Attendance:	□ Yes □ No □ Call Ss by Korean or nick name □ _____
5. HW check:	□ Yes □ No
6. Quiz:	□ Yes □ No
7. Introduction:	□ Yes □ No □ List of things to do □ Objectives □ _____

8. Material:	□ Textbook □ Realia □ Audiovisual □ PPT □ None □ Other supplementary materials: _____
9. Content:	□ Vocabulary □ Pronunciation □ Fluency □ Grammar □ Communication □ Accuracy □ Dialogue □ Discourse strategy □ Reading □ Writing □ Listening □ Speaking skills
10. Input:	Made comprehensible by □ Modifying speech □ Comprehension check □ Paraphrasing □ Summarizing □ Giving examples □ Contextualizing Comprehensible input is □ Adequate or □ Inadequate
11. Activities/ Interaction:	□ Communicative □ Task-based □ Knowledge-based □ T-S (min) □ Individual (min) □ Pair (min) □ Small-group (min) □ Whole-class (min)

12. T attitude:	□ Relaxed □ Humorous □ Energetic □ Friendly □ Authoritative □ Critical □ Detached □ _____
13. Ss attitude/ behavior:	□ Active □ Attentive □Highly engaged □ Bored □ Inattentive □ Indifferent □ Silent □ Frustrated □ Disruptive □ Note taking □ Looking at the text □ Code switching to Korean
14. Class Managed:	□ Effective □ Ineffective □ Laissez-faire □ Tightly controlled □ Record-keeping (participation grade) □ Praise & encouragement given
15. Environment:	□ Relaxed □ Strict

16. Ss talk time:	Invitation made for participation: □ Yes □ No If yes, □ Polite □ Top-down style □ Well-distributed □ Not enough □ Often □ Constantly Encouragement for clarification and elaboration: □ Yes □ No Ss take an initiative: □ Yes □ No Length of time:　　　　min
17. Error correction:	□ Never □ Seldom □ Sometimes □ Often □ Constantly □ Direct& immediate □ For a broad audience □ Explicit grammar instruction
18. Review:	□ Yes □ No
19. Assign HW:	□ Yes □ No Mention about the next class: □ Yes □ No

Notes: