EVALUATION OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE HIGH SCHOOL LANGUAGE PROGRAMME IN SOUTH KOREA

By

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ABSTRACT
The Korean Ministry of Education has been inviting a number of native speakers from various countries to teach at foreign language high schools throughout Korea with the goals of “globalisation” and the improved language proficiency of Korean foreign language high school students. This paper analyses the implementation of the foreign language programme in one foreign language high school based on the statistical results of surveys given to the principal/vice-principal, foreign language native speakers, Korean foreign language teachers, non-language teachers, and tenth and eleventh graders. In particular, the attitudes towards the foreign language programme and the use of native speakers versus Korean foreign language teachers was examined. The main purpose of this study was to arrive at conclusions that would contribute to the improvement of the foreign language programme in the foreign language high schools.
This dissertation is dedicated to

my father, Robert Murdoch,

without whom I may not have passed high school English and
who is still in shock that I am actually doing a Masters connected with English

and to

my mother, Yvonne Murdoch,

who, sorrowfully, passed away at the onset of my studies.

In addition a special thanks is made to Fran Eitel, for without whose incredible proof-reading ability I would have failed on incorrect comma use alone.
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Chapter 1: Introduction

In South Korea students usually study foreign languages in order to be successful in their respective career development or as in the case for the study of English, for the purpose of obtaining a higher score on standardized proficiency tests such as TOEFL and TOEIC. Like students in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) situation, students in other foreign language situations are often perplexed because language learning does not permit favourable acquisition of the target language due to limited exposure to natural language input. Furthermore, there is little reinforcement or retention of what has been learnt in language classrooms throughout their schooling, not to mention the scarcity of social interactions with native speakers. Consequently, this has created the dilemma of functionally under-developed foreign language speakers in Korea. In addition, according to Park (in Lee and Park, 2001:54) many Korean English teachers, for example, lack proficiency and confidence in English language instruction.

With the era of globalization, some Korean parents and/or students have felt it necessary to start majoring in foreign languages in high school to keep abreast of the rapidly changing world because as research findings have suggested, people in general acquire a language more easily if they are exposed to an appropriate learning environment at an early age. A study by Scarcella (1983),

“while not directly addressing the age factor, produced results consistent with the idea that late starters will not be able to achieve true native competence in such subtle (but as Scarcella shows, measurable) areas as culturally appropriate topic choice and sequencing, back-channel cues, and other conversational strategies.” (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:163)

Hence, “as revealed by long-term studies, younger is better in the most crucial area, ultimate attainment.” (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:155)

Foreign language was, therefore, adopted as a means of specializing in several distinct high schools in South Korea in an effort to provide students with the skills needed to be internationally competitive and communicatively competent in foreign languages. This adoption follows Kennedy and Edwards (2000:63) assertion that, “governments often see education as a means of making their countries more competitive internationally and will put pressure on educational systems to change accordingly.” A student attending one of these language high schools is assigned a foreign language starting from the first grade of high school, grade 10 and continues to major in that language for the next 3 years. At the onset of this study, XX years have passed since the initiation of majoring in foreign languages (L2) at foreign language high schools (FLHS). However, there have been few
studies that attempt to look at the overall impact of the current foreign language programme (FLP) in those high schools and whether target language instruction by native speakers is better than non-native speakers. Thus, it is an opportune time to evaluate the present FLP as a preliminary assessment of the success of FLHSs’ language programme in South Korea.

“As with other types of research, it is extremely important to clarify from the beginning the aims and objectives of the evaluation.” (Nunan, 1992: 197) Consequently, the purpose of this paper was made known to all participants and is two-fold. First, to assess the present FLP and its use of native speakers versus Korean foreign language teachers with regard to the school’s principal/vice-principal, native speakers, Korean foreign language teachers, non-language teachers, and students through questionnaires. Second, to suggest alternative ideas and possible solutions for the current FLP to enhance the quality of the foreign language programme. Although it would be premature to make conclusive statements about the FLP, the results gained from the study can aid language educators and policy makers to improve FLHSs’ foreign language programme for the future.
Chapter 2: Research Methodology

2.1 School Background

There are several FLHSs located throughout South Korea, however, the school chosen for this study is located in Chungbuk Province. In Chungbuk there are two FLHSs, but the school in Cheongju City presented the best means for research because of its location to the researcher and the fact that it is a public, rather than a private-operated school meant that there would be less reluctance to investigation.

The Chungcheong North Province Board of Education decided in 1990 that the Cheongju Central High School was to alter its regular curriculum and adopt an L2 programme, hence establishing the Cheongju Foreign Language High School.

The following figures represent the 2001 school year breakdown of school faculty and curriculum subjects upon which research was performed.

### Faculty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personnel</th>
<th>Principal</th>
<th>Vice-Principal</th>
<th>Assigned Instructors</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Native Speakers</th>
<th>General Staff</th>
<th>Technicians</th>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
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*Figure 2.1.1*

### Curriculum Subjects

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<td>Teachers</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foreign Language Native Speakers</td>
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*Figure 2.1.2*

2.2 Research Participants

In the process of FLP change there exists some important participants, some “key stakeholders” (a term to cover anyone with an interest in the change process who will effect or be affected by the change.” (Kennedy and Edwards, 2000:31) Looking at FLHSs, the key stakeholders are the school heads, native speakers, non-native speaker
teachers, non-language teachers, students, and parents. Subsequently, the subjects of this study include the FLHS’s principal, vice-principal, 7 foreign language native speakers (NS), 17 Korean foreign language teachers (KFLT), 32 non-language teachers (NLT), and 514 tenth and eleventh graders.

The 17 KFLTs are comprised of instructors of English, Russian, Spanish, Japanese, French, Chinese, and German. One native speaker from each of the L2 also comprise the 7 NSs. The 32 NLTs consist of all other subject teachers at the school, such as maths, the sciences, and the arts. Only grade 10 and 11 students were employed because grade 12 students were busily preparing for the university entrance examination.

The figures below show the number of students in each grade and language class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade and Student Enrollment</th>
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<tr>
<td>Grade 10</td>
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<td>Russian</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
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<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
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<td>French</td>
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<td>Chinese</td>
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<td>German</td>
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Figure 2.2

2.3 Research Method

The questionnaire, used in elicitation of people’s attitudes, beliefs, and perception was chosen as the method of research. Although completion time could not be extended, consistent with previous discussions and arrangements with school authorities, all participants were given sufficient time during morning announcements in their respective language homeroom classrooms to complete their respective questionnaires.

The questionnaire consisted of both fixed-response items and open-ended items. The fixed-response items required respondents to specify the extent of their agreement to a particular statement, which facilitated data analysis. On the other hand, open-ended items were used to gather insight on attitudes, beliefs, and/or perceptions, which could not be collected from the fixed-response items. In a like manner, in an effort not to appear
biased, a comment line was added under the fixed response items for further input to be expressed by the respondent.

All questionnaires were written in Korean, except the English-version given to NSs, and have been translated for purposes of this paper. (Appendix I) This made it easier for respondents to comprehend items and/or express themselves. Questions and/or hypotheses that arose from the quantitative analysis were unable to be investigated through interviews of teachers, students, and native speakers due to the school principals’ strong assertion that further investigation required official authorization from school board officials.

White (1988:151) states that, “there is no one ‘best’ method of data collection, although some methods are better for some kinds of data than others.” It is noted here that one of the problems of questionnaire research is that it is difficult to quantify attitude and/or opinion and, as a result conclusions reached in this research are given tentatively. In fact, according to Holland and Shortall (1997:24-25)

“the fact remains that all questionnaires and most interviews - to a greater or lesser extent - follow the researcher’s agenda and not the agendas of the research subjects. And this raises difficult questions regarding the use of these research instruments… researchers must be aware of this kind of problem… if they are to avoid, as far as possible, giving the impression of bias or pre-judgement or of ‘cooking’ their data.”
Chapter 3: Evaluation

Evaluation clarifies achievement of a language programme’s goals and objectives as well as its effectiveness. Additionally,

“evaluation may be concerned with how teachers, learners, and materials interact in classrooms, and how teachers and learners perceive the program’s goals, materials, and learning experiences.” (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:158)

This section will take an overall look at literature on FLP assessment and FLHS individuals.

3.1 Foreign Language Programme Evaluation

English language teaching (ELT) is a large business around the world with thousands of schools and centers worldwide devoted to English teaching. In fact, The British Council once estimated that by the year 2000 over one thousand million people would be learning English. (Crystal, 1997:103)

It is also known that most ELT projects involve multi-variables such as teachers, students, parents, materials, and resources, and that they transpire under a complex network of political, cultural, and educational systems. (Williams and Burden, 1994:23) Hence, if this holds true for English language teaching, the same may seem to be said for other L2 programmes as well.

“Where an ELT innovation is initiated at the national or institutional level its successful adoption will require the support and acceptance of both teachers and administrators. It is difficult for people to accept something they do not feel involved in, especially if it demands of them a change in their working practices or conditions.” (Stephenson, 1994:231)

Following this idea in ELT, contributions in evaluation and participation in change by key stakeholders in other L2 may also lead to enhanced and successful programme development.

3.1.1 School authority

Although they may stay for up to 3 years in one particular school in Korea, Principals and Vice-Principals are randomly transferred each March and/or September. This means that the administrators of a FLHS may not feel it significantly important to major in a L2 in high school. In other words, someone from a computer teaching background may not have the same concern and/or interest for the FLP as a person from a language teaching
background.

In addition,

“National language policies are determined by socio-political pressures which vary from one culture and socio-political system to another; the primary consideration of most governments being to maintain, and if possible extend their power, influence and acceptability.”

(Johnson, 1989:3)

“Policy” being a general assertion of the national curriculum’s goals, and hence under this view, “stages of policy determination, specification and implementation are ordered.”

(Johnson, 1989:2)  As such, although it follows that authority figures in FLHSs must adhere to national policy, their opinions on the current FLP should be valued and considered significant, and hence, these were investigated.

3.1.2 Teachers
In addition to persons of authority,

“schools are also organizations, which is to say, they consist of a network of relationships among the individuals who regard themselves as belonging to that organization.”

(White, Martin, Stimson, and Hodge, 1991:6)

These other individuals at a FLHS may include the L2 teachers, NSs, and NLTs. However, unlike regular academic high schools in which KFLT teachers and NS teachers maintain similar standings with teachers teaching established curriculum subjects, at a FLHS KFLTs and NSs are considered more important because of the school’s L2 specialty. As a result, opinions, beliefs, and preferences were gathered from KFLTs and NSs as well as NLTs to help elucidate the current FLP.

3.1.3 Parents
Besides FLHS staff and students there exists,

“the relationship of the school to its social, economic and political environment. The school is, therefore, subject to internal and external forces which greatly complicate the manager’s job.”

(White, Martin, Stimson, and Hodge, 1991: 29)

Moreover, according to Kennedy and Edwards (2000) parents, particularly if they have some association with a school, can often influence heads of schools.

In Korea there is a great amount of communication between parents, in particular mothers, and their children, their children’s teachers, and authorities in the school on school teaching practices and student records. Michael Megranahan (in White, Martin, Stimson,
and Hodge, 1991:110) may restate this type of communication as “counselling.” He summarizes counselling as,

“a process which enables problems to be identified and clarified and to facilitate the exploration of potential solutions or ways in which the problem can be managed more effectively by drawing on the individual’s inner resources.”

As this type of counseling transpires and due to the amount of work and difficulties involved in getting questionnaires directly to parents, survey participants were polled as to parents’ opinions.

3.1.4 Students

Unlike regular secondary school conditions in Korea, where entrance is attained through the “high school entrance examination” and L2 is simply learnt as a compulsory course similar to mathematics and/or science, in FLHSs students volunteer as potential candidates for entrance and once admitted become immersed in the L2.

Jones (1995: 232) states that a “good” language learner is one that takes responsibility for his/her own learning. In fact, he found that students became inspired when requested to help make decisions and, “with enthusiasm came a sense of pride… and responsibility.” Extending Jones’s finding and having students voice ideas and/or opinions in the assessment process, some of which may eventually be adopted or put into practise, may lead to more informative evaluation and change. Hence, students were also questioned as to their opinions on the current FLP.
Chapter 4: Foreign Language Programme Investigation Results

Having looked at FLP assessment and FLHS key participants in chapter 3, this section will present an analysis of the FLP and FLHS individuals at the Cheongju Foreign Language High School.

4.1 School Heads Interest in the FLP

Results from research seem to indicate that both the Vice-Principal and Principal appear to be genuinely interested in L2, with 100% in strong agreement. (Table 1, Appendix II) This finding would seem to promote the FLP and changes deemed necessary because, applicable to secondary schools, Dalin (1994) found that at the primary school level educational change is more likely if the head is a committed professional. (Kennedy and Edwards, 2000:73)

KFLTs appear to also agree that the authority figures in the school are in favour of foreign language with 41.2% and 58.8% in strong agreement and agreement, respectively. (Table 1, Appendix II)

Both these findings may be a direct reflection of the fact that the school heads have backgrounds in language teaching. That is to say, both individuals were English teachers before being promoted, and as a result may have more concern, interest, and/or knowledge in language teaching than someone from a non-language teaching background. This fact may be beneficial to the workings of the FLP because according to Pennington (1989:106-107),

“whether department chair, director or faculty supervisor, whoever is coordinating the faculty should be experienced and highly skilled in the techniques and procedures of the language teaching field.”

4.2 General Support for the FLP

Looking at chart 4.2 on the next page, it appears that there seems to be a tendency for all members of the FLHS organization surveyed to show a preference for majoring in L2 in high school.
Although it may be expected that NSs and KFLTs, directly involved in L2 teaching, lean towards support for majoring in a L2, it is interesting to note the amount of support from NLTs.

### 4.3 Student Support for Majoring in Foreign Languages

Taking a closer look at individual student classes, shown in chart 4.3 below, it appears that generally students view L2 to be of high importance in high school, with highest support coming from English-1 Grades 10 and 11, Russian Grade 10, Japanese Grade 10, and French Grade 10. This trend to view L2 as important would seem to support the national policy of having students attend specialized FLP high schools.

There does, however, appear to be a slightly negative or neutral opinion on the importance of L2 in high school from English-2 Grade 10, Russian Grade 11, French Grade 11, and German Grade 11. There also seems to be slightly more agreement with grade 10 classes than grade 11 classes.

The differences between grades may be due to individual attitudes towards L2 or attitudes towards school, classmates, teachers, and/or parents that have developed based on the
length of time in the FLHS. That is to say, according to Spolsky (in Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:178),

“in a typical language learning situation, there are a number of people whose attitudes to each other can be significant: the learner, the teacher, the learner’s peers and parents, and the speakers of the language.”

Also, student beliefs may be affected by their degree of anxiety and motivation. Through his research on motivation and anxiety, Park (1998:73) found that motivation and anxiety vary with grade and level of oral performance. In any case, generally students appear to view majoring in L2 in high school to be of importance.

### 4.4 Parent Opinion on the Current FLP

“It is important to find out what the individual learner wants but it is also important to determine what society requires.” (Stern, 1992:43) In chart 4.4.1 it appears that from the students’ point of view, although students appear to support majoring in foreign language in high school, and generally view majoring in foreign language important, their parents do not seem as supportive with under 50% in both grades supporting the idea. This may be due to the heavy bias for Korean parents to push their children to enter “Seoul National University,” regardless of high school studies and/or their children’s interest or views on study.

![Support from Parents for Majoring in Foreign Language in High School](chart.png)

What appears to be a lack of support for majoring in L2 in secondary school may be negatively affecting the FLP and their children’s proficiency in the L2 because evidence provided by Feenstra showed that “not only [did] Anglophone Canadian children [adopt] their parents’ attitudes but… that these attitudes… affected the children’s achievement in learning French.” (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:178)

A survey of parents views on the teachings of the FLP from authorities, KFLTs, and students, however, seems to indicate satisfaction from parents, even though parents do not
appear to greatly support the majoring in L2 in high school, as seen in chart 4.4.2

![Chart 4.4.2](chart.png)

The satisfaction by parents may not be a reflection on language teaching or the L2 ability of their children, but of the schools’ reputation for producing high numbers of students able to enter what are considered by Koreans to be prestigious Seoul universities. This finding may, however, show support for the current FLP in the sense that it appears sensitive to the social factors which influence language teaching. (Stern, 1992:35)

4.5 FLP Objectives Awareness

Widdowson (1983) refers to objectives as,

“the pedagogic intentions of a particular course of study to be achieved within the period of that course and in principal measurable by some assessment device at the end of the course.”

(White, 1988:27)

However, objectives may also be, as Harmer (1983:231) claims, “the aims the teacher has for the students. They may refer to activities, skills, language type or a combination of all of these.” In any case, language teaching policy is better when both objectives and teaching content are, as much as possible, clearly identified. (Stern, 1989:212)

KFLTs and NSs appear to be neutral in their awareness of FLP L2 teaching objectives, 58.8% and 71.4% respectively. However, NSs appear to claim slightly more understanding, with 28.6%, compared to their KFLT colleagues, with only 17.7%. What is most interesting about FLP objective awareness is that NLTs appear to have more understanding of the objectives than individuals directly involved in L2 teaching, with 9.1% in strong agreement and 28.1% in agreement (see Table 19, Appendix II).
4.6 Satisfaction with Current FLP

Realistic Goals and Objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal / Vice-Principal</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KFLT</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>76.5%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Speaker</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td>57.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking at figure 4.5 above, taken from Table 16, Appendix II, there does not appear to be significant opinion for or against FLP goals or objectives being realistic among school heads or KFLTs, which may be related to their neutral understanding of FLP L2 objectives. There does, however, appear to be a split in opinions between satisfaction and dissatisfaction, with slightly more tendency towards dissatisfaction from NSs, which is interesting because NSs also appeared to be neutral in their FLP L2 objective understanding.

In chart 4.6.1 there appears to be more agreement from NLTs than KFLTs that the FLP, itself, enforces and/or enhances the regular curriculum. Therefore, it appears that NLTs, more so than KFLTs, believe that a FLP is “good” for secondary schools.

These results, however, may be related to earlier discussion in section 4.5, where NLTs appear to have more FLP objective awareness than KFLTs.

KFLTs appearing neutral on current FLP approval and in disagreement that the FLP cultivates the regular curriculum, do not appear to feel that students’ preference for L2 hinders regular curriculum studies. Looking at chart 4.6.2 below, KFLTs appear to voice a strong disagreement over the issue. In addition, it seems that NLTs and school heads also feel that the preference of students for L2 does not affect regular subject learning,
considered to be “core” material necessary for the Korean university entrance examination.

![Chart 4.6.2](image)

Although students have chosen to attend a high school that majors in L2, and while individuals involved in teaching L2 appear to believe that L2 does not hinder studies of other subjects, responses from survey participants indicate that students do not appear to be contributing enthusiastically in their L2 classes. In chart 4.6.3 most respondents seem to believe that there is little passion by students in the L2 class, with NLTs voicing the strongest negative opinion. KFLTs and NSs directly involved in L2 teaching appear significantly neutral and/or in disagreement of student participation in their classes, with minor agreement for enthusiasm.

![Chart 4.6.3](image)

The amount of enthusiastic participation in L2 classes may be due to the quantity of teacher-talk. “In some language classrooms it has been shown that teachers talk for up to 89 per cent of the available time.” (Nunan, 1989: 26) Also, teachers may be using a greater number of display-type questions; questions in which the answer is already known, than reference-type questions; questions in which the answer must be supplied by the respondent. This may be reducing the stimulus to acquisition and hence,
participation since “discussion becomes a fragmented ritual rather than a meaningful enjoyable process.” (Good and Brophy in Nunan, 1991:192)  However, “it is also obvious that other factors such as the topic area, the learner’s background knowledge, and contextual and interpersonal variables will also be operating, and thus having an effect.” (Nunan, 1989:31)

Furthermore, opinions gathered from NLTs on student passion in the classroom, should be viewed cautiously because only 56.2% of all NLTs have actually observed a L2 class. (Table 20, Appendix II) Opinions of school heads should also be viewed cautiously because it is not known whether they have observed a L2 class at the FLHS, but it is known that in the past both school heads were involved in L2 teaching and as a result their opinion may be influenced by their past experiences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4.6.1 Foreign Language Team-teaching</th>
<th>L2 Teaching Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ability to Teach Alone</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KFLT</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>support</td>
<td>KFLT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At present, in FLHSs NSs teach alongside their KFLT colleagues, a sort of “team-teaching.” KFLTs, however, have additional L2 classes, which are taught alone and do not involve the presence of a NS. From figure 4.6.1.1 and 4.6.1.2 both KFLTs and NSs appear to be satisfied with L2 teaching, but appear to support the notion that separately they could effectively teach the L2 language. This emotion may be hindering the FLP’s co-teaching because students may not receive the “best” possible input if secretly a teacher believes his/her role can be accomplished without the other.

4.7 Foreign Language Exchanges
Horwitz et al. (1991) observed that, “learning a foreign language is a psychologically unsettling process, threatening learners’ self-esteem as a competent communicator.” (Tsui, 2001:123) And in a like manner, Walker (Tsui, 2001:123) discovered that “there is a close relationship between learners’ oral participation, their foreign learning anxiety and their self-esteem as a competent speaker of English.” Looking at chart 4.7.1 there appears to be a large support for student self-esteem, which would therefore suggest that oral participation, should be high, however, there appears to be relatively little L2 oral
contribution by students.

In chart 4.7.2, although NSs appear to remain neutral on this issue as well, KFLTs, and school authorities appear relatively fixed in their stance that L2 exchanges do not, for the most part, occur. Also students, themselves, appear to take the strongest position, with the majority in either strong disagreement or disagreement over L2 exchanges occurring among fellow schoolmates.

These results may be a “consequence of the learner’s proficiency.” (Chaudron, 1988:97) Strong (1983), through his research of kindergarten children in bilingual education supports this notion by reporting that proficiency is related to talkativeness and gregariousness. (Chaudron, 1988:97) In the like manner, the low frequency of L2 exchanges among students in the classroom may also be a result of cultural differences. In fact, Sato (1982) found that Asians maintained a stricter pattern of bidding for turns in class instead of just sharing their thoughts or ideas. (Chaudron, 1988:105) Hence, cultural differences may be affecting the amount of L2 exchanges in the classroom. A third reason behind this finding may also be that classroom activities and/or social
interaction inside class do not facilitate L2 interactions among students, because the “types of task in which learners engage and the number of participants in a task also affect learners’ participation.” (Tsui, 2001:122) A final possible reason for what appears to be infrequent student interaction may be the attitudes of fellow classmates, because these attitudes “can affect learners’ acquisition of a second language.” (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:178)

Noticing that L2 exchanges do not appear to be taking place among students chart 4.7.3 and chart 4.7.4 look at exchanges between individuals directly involved in L2 teaching and students. Schools heads appear to believe that both KFLTs and NSs are not interacting much with students. NLTs, KFLTs, and NSs, however, appear to some extent to support the notion that exchanges with students and either KFLTs or NSs occur. They also appear to suspect that KFLT-students exchanges occur less frequently than NS-student exchanges. However, looking at the amount of L2 exchanges from students’ perspective, there does not appear to be many more L2 exchanges taking place between students and NSs over those with KFLTs.
“Many teachers find it difficult to engage students in interaction, especially in teacher-fronted settings.” (Tsui, 2001:124) Looking at these two charts in combination there seems to be general agreement that teacher-student exchanges are not transpiring frequently. It also appears that the vast majority of disagreement over the issue of teacher-student exchange occurrence comes from all grade 10 classes, with the exception of French. In addition, native speakers generally seem to be quite fixed in their neutral position on teacher-student exchanges, and those that believe teacher-student exchanges do occur appear to number less than KFLTs.

The appearance of a relatively general belief that interactions are not taking place often may be due to

“a number of factors, e.g. individual learning styles: while some learn better by actively participating, others learn better by listening and internalising the input.”

(Tsui, 2001:123)

The low support for exchanges between teachers and students may also be associated with turn-taking, how turns are organized and controlled by teachers. Cook (1989:53) states that “turn-taking mechanisms, the way in which speakers hold or pass the floor, vary between cultures and between languages” so these different procedures for turn-taking may be a cause of the appearance of low interactions between teachers and students. Also, the amount of time devoted to explanations or management instructions may lessen the amount of time learners have to produce or interact in the target language. (Chaudron, 1988:52) Similarly, the “amount of time the teacher pauses after a question and before pursuing the answer with further questions or nomination of another student” (Chaudron, 1988:128) may also be affecting the number of exchanges. White and Lightbown (1984) in their study of teacher “wait-time” discovered that

“average wait-time was only 2.1 seconds and argued that learners should be given several
seconds to begin to answer questions, and several more to finish answering them.”

(Lee, 1999:168)

In addition to classroom possibilities, it may also be that outside of class students are not in an environment suited for natural uninhibited interaction with teachers. In Japan, it is reported that the students in schools benefited from having ALTs [Assistant Language Teachers] participate in school lunches, cleaning hour, break-time, school events, club activities because it allowed for an atmosphere of natural communication and familiarity. (Ahn, Park, and Ono, 1998:261) So, it may be that both the KFLTs and NSs need to become more actively involved in activities influencing human relations to bring about more L2 communications.

4.8 Objectives of Students

“Teachers use certain indicators which tell them whether what they teacher is effective. In the language class we intuitively assess from our students’ reactions the extent to which the strategies we employ are successful and the objectives we have set ourselves are being met.”

(Stern, 1992: 37)

It would appear from results that NSs do not feel that students are accomplishing the objectives set out for them in the FLP. It also does not appear as though KFLTs feel confident to claim goal achievement. However, showing a difference of 3.5%, KFLTs appear to be slightly more satisfied that students are attaining set objectives than NSs. Below in chart 4.8, taken from Table 29, Appendix II, these two ideas are clearly shown.

![Chart 4.8 Approaching Objectives set for Students](chart4.8.png)

Although, there appears relatively little support that students are approaching FLP set objectives it should be noted that, “teachers are generally concerned about their students and will want to do their best for them” (Kennedy and Edwards, 2000:35) so there may be other factors underlying these results that would have to be obtained through further investigation.
4.9 Student Opinion on the FLP

Looking at chart 4.9.1 on the previous page, from students’ perspective there appears to be a large number of students that do not feel proficient and/or neutral in their L2 proficiency. One reason for this finding may be related to teacher’s attitudes towards learners, because these attitudes “can also affect the quality and quantity of the learning which takes place.” (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 179)

In a FLP, proficiency is central, but “what is much more debatable is the degree of proficiency that is appropriate for a given language course.” (Stern, 1992:29) Feelings of weak L2 proficiency may be affecting students’ satisfaction with their L2 major.

A large number of students in chart 4.9.2 appear neutral and there also appears to be a significant dissatisfaction in English-2 Grade 10, Japanese Grade 10, Russian, Chinese, and German Grade 11. The greatest amount of satisfaction appears to be in Chinese and German Grade 10, and Spanish and Japanese Grade 11.

Looking at the desire to change one’s major in chart 4.9.3 on the next page, however, although there appears to be a large neutral standpoint, there also appears to be a significant number of students in disagreement of changing their major; students wishing to continue with their L2 studies. In addition, there appears to be significant desire to
change from Russian Grade 10 and 11, French Grade 10, and German Grade 10 and 11. It is interesting that, although some grades feel dissatisfied with their L2 major, Russian and German Grade 11 are the only two classes that appear to have a strong desire to change their major.

Motivation may be influencing students’ position on this issue. “Motivation is... an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action.” (Brown, 1994:152) That is to say, a student who has to study L2 because it is part of the curriculum will have different perspectives and/or desires than a student that is studying the L2 because they have some personal goals and/or aims. Looking at chart 4.9.4, it appears that the least amount of desire to study L2 in the future comes from German Grade 11 followed by French Grade 11, and Russian Grade 10.

It is interesting to note here that, once again, German Grade 11 appears in the most
opposition and that grade 10 classes appear to have slightly more desire to study L2 more in the future than grade 11 classes.

Looking at figure 4.9.1 (taken from Appendix III) on the following page, it appears that the reasons for the differences between grades may be the various differences in reasons for attending a FLHS. It appears that 10th graders seem to have more interest and be more future orientated than their seniors. Reasons behind low L2 satisfaction and low desire to study L2 in the future may be connected with reasons also seen in figure 4.9.1. As shown, a number of students only entered the FLHS to avoid taking the high school entrance exam, entering a non-academic high school, or because of poor junior high school grades, or the school’s location. Hence, just as Park’s (1998:73) research would suggest, KFLTs and NSs may do well to consider and observe students’ psychological factors, such as anxiety and motivation, when teaching the L2 to encourage a positive outlook to the L2. (Stern, 1992: 93)

### Summary of Reasons for Entering a FLHS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Grade 10</th>
<th>Grade 11</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was interested in foreign languages.</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To live in an international world, I felt I needed to learn a language</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A teacher, a parent, etc. recommended that I go there</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To major in a foreign language and make a living by doing something</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be better than others at a foreign language</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn a foreign language deeply and systematically</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like foreign languages and to speak well</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneous high schools suppress students so for various reasons</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>languages and having freedom I came here</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of my junior high school grades</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hated to enter an academic/industrial/commercial high school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wanted to know about other countries</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I didn’t want to take the high school entrance exam and/or prep tests</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A friend recommended that I go/I followed my friend</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s near my home</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No reason</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn a foreign language to go abroad someday and try a bit of</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>everything in my life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.9.1**

### 4.10 Staff Relationships

School heads appear to be neutral in their opinion of cooperation among teachers at the school. Although further investigation would result in more concrete reasoning behind
their opinion, more encouragement for cooperation between school teaching staff may aid the FLP because “faculty morale-building is an important function of the program administrator.” (Pennington, 1989:107) KFLTs, on the other hand, seem to feel that there is cooperation among teachers, with 11.8% and 58.8% in strong agreement and agreement, respectively. (Table 2, Appendix II) This relationship among fellow colleagues may add to FLP effectiveness because “substantial research also suggests that an individual’s sense of efficacy can be influenced by interactions with others as well as by organizational factors.” (Darling-Hammond, Wise and Pease in Pennington, 1989:107)

School heads seem to believe that there exists, however, a “good” relationship between NSs and other teachers, with 100% in agreement. (Table 14, Appendix II) NSs also seem to support this cooperation with 14.3% and 57.1% in strong agreement and agreement, respectively.

“Cooperation and discussion between the ELI [English Language Instructor] and the KTE [Korean English Teacher] before the class is essential for effective teaching.” (Ahn, Park, and Ono, 1998:255) From the KFLTs’ perspective there appears to be “good” communication between KFLTs and NSs, on matters of methodology, culture, and pronunciation, with 5.9% and 76.4% in strong agreement and agreement. (Table 25, Appendix II) These results may produce “good” conditions for L2 teaching because in their research, Williams and Burden (1994:27) discovered that teachers, “felt their most important need was for time to be put aside to work together and to share ideas.”

### 4.11 Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prior Training</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KFLT</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.11.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overseas Experience</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KFLT</td>
<td>70.6%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.11.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prior Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Looking at the figures 4.11.1, 3, and 4 above it appears that a number of teachers have had prior L2 training. However, KFLTs seem to claim that the Ministry of Education should be responsible for their L2 training, and less than half of the NSs have had experience teaching before coming to the FLHS. According to Freeman, “effective language teaching depends upon teachers who have a high degree of professional expertise and knowledge,” (Richards, 2001:216) so there may be a need for an increase or encouragement of enrollment in in-service programmes. For the novice teacher in-service training may focus on professional support and in-service education, although not exclusively and for expert teachers education that, “draws on development strategies of reflection, self-assessment, inquiry and practitioner research” may be appropriate. (Freeman, 2001:79) It should be noted that even though training can be offered, “development is something that can be done only by and for oneself.” (Wallace in Kennedy and Edwards, 2000:83) Hence, teachers may need to be encouraged and motivated to respond to in-service programmes, ensuring them that knowledge learnt can be constructive. (White, Martin, Stimson, and Hodge, 1998:61)

In figure 4.11.3 it appears that a majority of KFLTs have had overseas experience. This cultural experience may enable more successful L2 communications to be taught and/or voiced by the KFLT because research has made instructors more aware of the cultural dimensions of language as social interaction. (Krams, 2001:204)

4.12 Additional Concerns

“In language classrooms, feedback is often directed toward the accuracy of what a student says. A number of issues are involved in error feedback. These include decisions about (1) whether learner errors should be corrected, (2) which kinds of learner errors should be corrected, and (3) how learner errors should be corrected.”

(Hendrickson in Richards and Lockhart, 1994:189)

From chart 4.12.1 below a significant number of students appear genuinely fearful of making grammatically incorrect speech. Teachers may need to address this fear by re-evaluating their error feedback and/or discussing the situation with the students.
From chart 4.1.2 it appears that, although students seem to fear making grammatically incorrect speech, students highly value error correction. There are, however, a significant number of students remaining neutral on the issue. This finding follows other research results that indicate preference for error correction detailed by Chaudron (1988). Therefore, it may be that teachers need to correct students’ errors since meeting the needs of learners may promote positive L2 attitude. However, teachers should consider, “evidence of the effectiveness of error correction, a distinctly difficult phenomenon to demonstrate.” (Chaudron, 1988:136)

Also, according to McDonough and Shaw (1993:9) class size in combination with other factors will “influence course planning, syllabus design, the selection of materials and resources, and the appropriateness of methods.” They go on to say that, “the large class problem is a very familiar one in many settings worldwide.” However, on average there appear to be approximately 33 students per class in the FLHS. This number is significantly lower than other high school settings, where numbers total on average 50 students or more per class. Yet, from chart 4.1.3, on the next page, student opinion still appears to indicate students’ feel class size is too large to foster L2 learning. It may be that teachers need to allow more small group activities compared to whole-class work. Several studies suggest that,

“more language, possibly more complex language, and no less grammatically correct target
language, can be encouraged if learners interact with peers, in small groups, or on convergent tasks.” (Chaudron, 1988:99)

However, teachers should be aware that other studies have indicated that production alone may not be enough to ensure development. (Chaudron, 1988:99)

Chart 4.12.3
Chapter 5: Native Speaker Teacher vs. Non-Native Speaker Teacher

This chapter introduces some of the fundamental literature ideas on the issue of native/non-native speaker with special reference to teachers.

5.1 Native/Non-native

According to Medgyes (1992:341), from a sociolinguistic perspective, the matter of native versus non-native is controversial and, so far, only inconclusive findings from research efforts have been able to define native competence or native-like proficiency. Edge (Medgyes, 1992:341) suggests that through education the present nationalistic view of the native speaker/non-native speaker may further “an internationalist perspective in which users of English [or any target language] are simply more or less accomplished communicators.” However, persons who use a language as their mother tongue may have an advantage over persons using it as a foreign language. Medgyes (1992:342) would claim that this advantage is so great that it cannot be outweighed by other factors in the learning situation such as motivation, aptitude, perseverance, experience, and education.

5.2 The Native Speaker Advantage?

Maley (1992:97-98) states that the division between native-speaker teacher and non-native speaker teacher is rapidly becoming a major issue.

“...In most non-English countries there is an uneasy division between local non-native speaker teachers, often with long training, experience, and expertise, who often work in the state system, and native-speaker expatriate teachers, often with minimal qualifications and experience and only a temporary loyalty to their country of sojourn, and who usually work in the private sector. This division is complicated by the fact that many non-native speaker teachers, though excellent practitioners, are often locked into a non-innovatory bureaucratic system, while native-speakers, though often less well trained, are freer to experiment and change. The division is further exacerbated by preconceived notions of the innate value of native-speaker teachers and the correspondingly higher salaries they are often able to command.”

But, to what extent is being a native speaker an advantage as a language teacher?

Widdowson (1992:338) points out that

“there is plenty of evidence that the native-speaker teacher has the more prestigious status, and is given preference in employment; that knowledge of the language is more highly regarded than pedagogic expertise.”

But according to UNESCO (Phillipson, 1992:15), “A teacher is not adequately qualified to
teach a language merely because it is his mother tongue.” Therefore, language competence may be significant in gaining employment but there are other “variables such as experience, age, sex, aptitude, charisma, motivation, training, and so on [that] play a decisive role in the teaching/learning process.” (Medgyes, 1992:346)

In addition, two main inferences between teachers’ with different mother tongues should also be considered. Firstly, comparisons cannot be made between a native speaker and non-native speaker teachers’ command of the language and secondly, the non-native speaker teacher has personal experience of L2 learning. (Golebiowska, 1985:274) That is to say, native speakers teachers may possess more advantage as language users, but non-native speaker teachers have the advantage of having been a L2 learner. (Widdowson, 1992:338) Moreover, native speaker teacher’s “differences in cultural assumptions about teaching and the role of the teacher can lead to different expectations on both the teacher’s and the learners’ part.” (Richards and Lockhart, 1994:107) Also, it is not known whether the native-speaker’s greater understanding of the target language culture renders them superior to non-native speaker teachers in helping learners towards understanding. (Carter and Nunan, 2001:4)

A native speaker does however know

“the sounds of the language and how to join them together to make recognisable words in that language. The same person knows how to use stress and intonation to make his meaning clear. The native speaker possesses the grammar rules of the language. He will probably be unable to say what these rules are, but they must exist somewhere in his brain otherwise he would not be able to put together grammatically correct sentences in his language. The native speaker also knows how to use language: he knows, in other words, what language is suitable in a given situation.” (Harmer, 1983:17)

In short, non-native speaker teachers may never be native-like even if they achieve native-like proficiency, “perhaps due to the phonological or colloquial variability in their usage of the language.” (Samimi and Brutt-Griffler, 1999:129) Albeit non-native teachers may always lack in comparison to native-speaker teachers in terms of language competence they may

“be better qualified than native speakers, if they have gone through the complex process of acquiring English [or any other L2] as a second or foreign language, have insight into the linguistic and cultural needs of their learners, a detailed awareness of how mother tongue and target language differ and what is difficult for learners, and first-hand experience of using a
Being better qualified, however, does not lessen the native speaker teacher’s worth. According to Medgyes (1992:347),

“the question, ‘Who’s worth more: a native or a non-native?’ does not make sense, and may be conducive to forming wrong judgements about the differences found in their teaching practice,” because “their respective strengths and weaknesses balance each other out.”

In summary, it may be better to ignore the issue of native/non-native speaker teacher and consider the issue, according to Rampton, of expertise. This “notion of expert shifts the emphasis from ‘who you are’ to ‘what you know.’” (Rampton, 1990:99)
Chapter 6: Native Speaker / Korean Foreign Language Teacher Results

Analysis

Commenting on Medgyes’ (1994) book “The Non-Native Teacher” one student wrote:

“In EFL settings like in Korea, most English teachers in public schools are non-native speakers of English. Though it seems obvious that they have some advantages over native speakers, many of the parents and students wish to have native speakers. Many of them may know that a native speaker is not an ideal teacher. But they just feel and think that way and, therefore, want native speakers as their teachers? … How can I convince them that I may be a better teacher than a native speaker?”(Steve, in Samimi and Brutt-Griffler, 1999:423)

This student is not alone in his belief that students view the native speaker as the ideal teacher, Braine (1999:23) also found that after two weeks of class, students complained about his accent and requested transfers to classes taught by what, in their view, was the ideal teacher, a native speaker. These reports may be the norm, and students in this particular FLHS appear to be, in some aspects, supporting this concept, however it should be noted that “except in knowledge of phonology and syntax (admittedly the crucial elements!), it is possible for nonnative speakers to be superior to natives.” (Shaw, 1992:13)

This chapter will therefore present some of the native/non-native issues discussed in chapter 5 as they relate to the NSs and KFLTs at the Cheongju Foreign Language High School.

6.1 Teaching Satisfaction

Looking generally at chart 6.1.1 below, there appears to be great neutral attitude on the satisfaction of L2 teaching by both KFLTs and NSs. Furthermore, a large portion of the neutral position appears to be held by grade 11 classes. Also, there appears to be significantly greater support than opposition for L2 teaching satisfaction from students, and the majority of this support appears to be in grade 10 classes.
On the issue of native/non-native, it appears that in both grades 10 and 11 classes, a slightly greater portion of L2 teaching satisfaction resides with KFLTs. That is to say, students seem to be expressing slightly more satisfaction with the teachings of KFLTs. It may be that just as Choi’s (2001:103) research discovered NSs and students have difficulty understanding one another and hence, experience miscommunications. Choi concluded that, “a bilingual teacher can be more effective than a monolingual teacher because speaking Korean is useful in conveying instructions.”

With the appearance of more satisfaction from the teachings of KFLTs, chart 6.1.2 explores student support and opposition on whether their language skills have improved as a result of having learnt from a KFLT or a NS. On the whole, just as in chart 6.1.1, there appears to be a predominantly neutral stance on the issue with the foremost neutral stance being directed towards NSs. Along with this neutral position, there also appears to be considerably higher support than opposition for L2 development. An in depth look at this support seems to indicate more endorsement from all classes for L2 skills improvement occurring as a result of KFLTs’ teaching with the greatest amount of endorsement from Japanese, Russian, Chinese, and German grade 10 classes. The deepest felt opposition to L2 skills improvement appears to be held by Russian and German grade 11 classes in their stand on NSs.

One reason for these findings may be the NSs inability to use the students’ first language. Atkinson (1987:242) claims that there are several advantages of mother tongue usage, and one of the most significant is the translation technique because, in most places, it is one of the preferred learning strategies of most learners. He goes on
to point out that

“Clearly once it is established what the learners want to say, the teacher can then encourage them to find a way of expressing their meaning… or, if necessary, help out.”

Observing that students appear to believe that compared to NSs the teachings of KFLTs have developed their L2 skills and overlooking the large neutral position, students in chart 6.1.3 also appear to suggest that KFLTs are “better” instructors of L2 than NSs. Grade 10 classes generally appear to hold a stronger belief on this issue over grade 11 classes, and the strongest convictions appears to be from English and Spanish grade 11 and Spanish and German grade 10 classes.

The discovery that KFLTs are preferred L2 teachers may be related to Medgyes (1983:6) idea about non-native teachers. He states that,

“More than any native speaker, [a non-native teacher] is aware of the difficulties his students are likely to encounter and the possible errors they are likely to make. Therefore, he has easier access to the measures and techniques which may facilitate the students’ learning.”

It should be noted, however, that in chart 6.1.3 there also appears to be a noteworthy amount of opposition from Chinese, French, and Russian grade 11 classes. In this situation, it may be that “for all their efforts, non-native speakers can never achieve a native speakers’ competence,” (Medgyes, 1992:342) and KFLTs, as educators, may be constantly judged and challenged by colleagues and/or students. (see Thomas and Braine, 1999)

On another note, it may be that “a teacher’s effectiveness does not hinge upon whether he or she is a native or non-native speaker.” (Medgyes, 1992:348) Rampton’s (1990)

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ideal of “expertise” over native/non-native may offer an explanation as to why KFLTs are perceived as “better” or “worse” instructors than their NS co-teachers. A KFLT may never compete with the NS’s language competence. (S)he may, however, be an “expert” in the L2 and various teaching methodologies. These two ideas along with the fact that KFLTs can use the students’ first language and culture may be reasons behind student perception.

6.2 Teacher Preparedness / Teaching Effectiveness
Looking at opinion from all students in chart 6.2.1, there appears to be a large neutral viewpoint on whether teachers are prepared for class and whether their teaching is effective. Aside from this, there does appear to be more support than opposition for teachers to be “well prepared” and their teaching to be effective, but this support, for both KFLTs and NSs, is less than 50%. Moreover, there appears to be notably higher support for KFLTs being more prepared for class and/or effective.

The less than 50% support for teachers being well prepared and effective may be due to different student and teacher

“expectations concerning not only the learning process in general, but also concerning what will be learned in a particular course and how it will be learned.”

(Brindley in Richards and Lockhart, 1994:34)
That is to say, on the one hand students may have distinct ideas about how to learn and the activities and/or methodology that facilitate learning which can therefore cause students to undervalue an assigned activity. (Richards and Lockhart, 1994:54-55) While on the other hand, the teachers’ choice of content, which he/she regards as serving a particular aim, may not be relevant to students. Student opinion may also be related to the types of methods teachers are using. These methods may not match students’ aptitude. Wesche
(in Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:207) found that “when students were matched with the methodological approach that suited their aptitude profiles best, positive attitudes where encouraged and students’ achievement was enhanced.”

The significant belief that KFLTs’ teachings are better prepared and/or effective may be related to the fact that 57.1% of all NSs have not had prior L2 teaching experience. Ahn, Park, and Ono (1998:255) found that complaints about NS classes where associated with the fact that NSs

“do not prepare for the class and depend upon their instinct… They do not know how to lower their teaching to the students’ level… their role is no better than just “a living tape recorder”.”

It may also be that because “language teaching is an art, a science, and a skill that requires complex pedagogical preparation and practice” not every native speaker may be a good teacher of his/her mother tongue. (Canagarajah, 1999:80) Moreover, teachers teach according to how/what they think may work best. “A teaching approach is something uniquely personal which they develop through experience and apply in different ways according to the demands of specific situations.” (Richards and Lockhart, 1994:104)

Furthermore, teacher effectiveness may be related to their methods or materials.

Looking at chart 6.2.2, there appears to be significant opposition, especially from grade 11 classes, that both KFLTs and NSs vary their methods and/or materials. However, with grade 10 classes appearing slightly stronger in their belief, it appears that both grade 10 and 11 classes view KFLTs as providing more diversity in terms of teaching method and/or materials.

Absence of variety in method or material may be related to lack of choice in textbook selection. Even though teachers are relatively free in their choice of supplemental
materials and many would argue that a course book is “superficial and reductionist in its coverage of language points and in its provision of language experience,” (Tomlinson, 2001:67) there are several main textbooks, chosen from lists of texts: conversation, culture, grammar, composition, and so on, deemed appropriate by the Provincial Board of Education that must be taught and completed in the school year. However, assuming L2 instructors deemed the coursebooks selected appropriate after an effectiveness evaluation, it may be that “their ultimate success or failure may only be determined after a certain amount of classroom use.” (McDonough and Shaw, 1993:66)

Additionally, the appearance that KFLTs’ material may have more variety than NSs’ may be related to Tomlinson’s (2001:70) assertion that in the future materials will become more international and materials strictly focusing on the NS’s homeland will be rare, because learners learn language “for academic or professional advancement and/or to communicate with other non-native speakers.”

| Native speakers use Different Teaching Methods than Korean Foreign Language Teachers |
|-----------------|----------|---------|--------|----------|-----------------|
| Grade           | strongly agree | agree | neutral | disagree | strongly disagree |
| 10              | 18.7%      | 41.8%  | 31.7%   | 4.5%     | 3.3%            |
| 11              | 17.6%      | 36.1%  | 32.2%   | 8.8%     | 5.3%            |
| All Students    | 18.2%      | 39.1%  | 31.9%   | 6.6%     | 4.2%            |

Although NSs appear slightly deficient in teaching method and material variety compared to KFLTs, students appear to view the methods NSs employ to be different from those of KFLTs’. Looking at figure 6.2 there appears to be over 50% in grade 11 and 60% in grade 10 classes in support of the notion that NSs use different teaching methodologies. There does, however, appear to be small opposition, with less than 14% from grade 11 classes and 8% from grade 10 classes. Medgyes (1992:345) in his study also found that 68% of the respondents perceived differences between native and non-native teachers of English in the way they teach and only 15% saw no differences. He concluded that these differences were closely related to linguistic competency.

### 6.3 Teacher Knowledge

Shaw (1992:9) states that native and non-native speakers vary in their knowledge and control of the elements of communicative competence. This communicative knowledge involves language proficiency in phonology, syntax, vocabulary, and semantics as well as appropriate usage in authentic situations. Overlooking the neutral position in chart 6.3.1,
students appear to believe that KFLTs are knowledgeable in the L2. There also appears to be more support for this notion from grade 10 classes and greater opposition being voiced by grade 11 classes.

The support for KFLTs being knowledgeable may be connected to Liu’s (1999:173) claim that when rapport between teacher and students exists, “students tend to appreciate and respect their NNS [non-native speaker] professionals for their competence and remarkable achievement in learning English.”

Medgyes (1983:2) asserts that, “non-native speakers invariably feel unsafe about using language they have to teach,” so students were polled, not only on how they felt about their KFLTs’ knowledge, but also on whether they believed the KFLT to possess the ability to teach solely in the L2. Along with students, other individuals involved in the FLP were also surveyed.

| Whether the KFLT Could Teach Solely in the L2 |
|-----------------|-------|------|-------|------|
| strongly agree  | agree | neutral | disagree | strongly |
| Grade 10        | 17.7% | 27.3% | 28.4% | 17.7% | 8.9% |
| Grade 11        | 8.0%  | 29.2% | 32.7% | 19.9% | 10.2% |
| All Students    | 13.3% | 28.2% | 30.3% | 18.7% | 9.5% |

From figure 6.3, there appears to be significant support from students that KFLTs do have the ability to teach solely in the L2, even though they may not be doing so. There does however, also appear to be notable opposition, especially from the grade 11 classes. Similar to student opinion, all individuals in chart 6.3.2 expect NSs, who remain divided on the issue, appear to voice greater support than opposition for KFLTs having the ability to teach solely in the L2.

Although small, the suggestion of opposition from others as well as KFLTs themselves,
may be connected to difficulties in the L2 non-native teachers see for themselves. In a survey by Medgyes (1992:345) it was discovered that the most frequently encountered language difficulties non-native teachers have are in the areas of pronunciation, listening, comprehension, grammar, and idiomatic English. These perceived difficulties may be causing KFLTs to hesitate teaching solely in the L2, even though surveyed opinion appears to suggest that KFLTs possess the capability.

On the other hand, it may be that KFLTs are choosing not to teach solely in the L2. Atkinson (1987:242) states that teaching techniques using the mother tongue can be very efficient in regard to time needed to achieve certain aims and that these techniques, since KFLTs share the same native language as the students, involve little preparation.

6.4 Native Speaker Contribution

In addition to being questioned on KFLTs’ knowledge, students were asked to discuss the NSs contribution to their L2 learning. Although students appear to see KFLTs as being knowledgeable in the L2, students appear divided on the issue of NSs’ ability to correct cultural/language misunderstandings/misconceptions in chart 6.4.1 on the next page. Both grades appear to be relatively equal in support, but there appears to be slightly more opposition from grade 11 classes.
It may be for the most part that NSs are meeting the needs of students, but since there exists some opposition, it may be that in certain situations NSs are not providing the clarification students require. NSs may need to consider the three important aspects Maylath (1997:30) draws attention to when teaching terminology and its usage. They are:

i. words NSs find difficult may not be difficult for students
ii. words NSs find simple may not be easy to define or for students to learn
iii. the teaching strategies that help NSs learn may confuse non-native speakers

Similar findings from students appear voiced in chart 6.4.2. Results about whether NSs provide insight to students on the NS’s homeland appear largely neutral, nevertheless, a greater number of students appear to support the notion than oppose it. Once again, there appears to be a slightly larger opposition from grade 11 classes.

6.5 Contribution and Involvement

Research has revealed that in classrooms teachers do most of the talking and in some language classrooms teachers may talk for up to 89 percent of the time. (Nunan, 1989:26) From chart 6.5.1, on the issue of provision of ample opportunity to participate in class, students appear to take a relatively strong neutral position, but there does appear to be greater support than opposition to the idea. Chart 6.5.1 also appears to suggest that German and French grade 10 classes strongly support KFLT over NSs. Similarly, Spanish, German, and Russian grade 11 classes also appear to voice strong opposition to NSs providing opportunities. Conversely, English, Russian, and Japanese grade 10 classes appear to support the idea that NSs are providing more ample opportunities to participate in class than KFLT. In addition, English, grade 11 and Japanese grade 10 classes voice strong opposition to KFLT provision of opportunities.
Student opinions may be associated to the degree that L2 teachers encourage active participation, which in turn may differ from teacher to teacher and from culture to culture. (Richards and Lockhart, 1994:143) Additionally, since the amount of opposition for provision of ample participation opportunities does not appear to be much less than the amount of support, it may be that the patterns of interaction between students and teachers and students and students need to be clearly addressed. Richards and Lockhart (1994:141) assert that,

“While teachers need to be able to manage their interaction with the class in a way which allows all students equal opportunities to participate, learners also need to learn how they are expected to interact in the classroom.

On the other hand, there may be students in the class that fear embarrassing misunderstandings or who are simply quiet learners that cannot make use of current classroom opportunities. Hodne (1997:87) suggests that these students “may be more willing to speak up if you minimize their risks.” That is to say, both NSs and KFLTs, as Hodne suggests, may need to incorporate techniques that provide students with preparation time, allow students to decline invitations to speak, or allow for small group discussions.

As well as being polled as to ample participation opportunities, students were also asked whether they had been directly involved in classroom conversations initiated by the teacher. Looking at chart 6.5.2 on the next page, grade 11 classes appear to be composed of a mostly neutral attitude while grade 10 classes appear to support the notion.
Looking more closely at chart 6.5.2, there appears to be more support from grade 10 classes for NSs initiating discourse than KFLTs. The amount of support from grade 10 classes for KFLTs initiating interaction also appears to be greater than the amount of support from grade 11 classes. Grade 11 classes appear to slightly more oppose both KFLTs and NSs initiating student contribution and this opposition appears to be greater than the amount of opposition from grade 10 classes.

The amount of support for this notion may indicate student satisfaction. However, the amount of opposition may be cause for attention. One of the reasons for the opposition may be that “despite a teacher’s best intentions, teachers sometimes interact with some students in the class more frequently than others.” (Richards and Lockhart, 1994:139) One reason for the opposition against NSs may come from Olsen’s (1988) research results. Olsen found that more than one-third of Californian immigrant students felt their teachers treated them unfairly by avoiding students because of language difficulties. (Hodne, 1997:86) Hence, failure to communicate with students may lead to unsubstantiated prejudice by students. Reasons behind opposition to KFLT/student interaction may be due to the anxiety and inhibitions KFLTs, themselves, have about the L2.

In addition to ideas discussed, it may be that teacher belief about the role of language input in acquisition is affecting participation provision opportunity and interactions with students. If the teacher believes teacher talk to be a valuable source of comprehensible input, then these findings may not be a cause of worry for the teachers. (Nunan, 1989:26)
6.6 Anxiety
The inability to understand or communicate can be debilitating. Scovel (in Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:187) describes two types of anxiety and how they enhance or damage L2 performance:

“Facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to ‘fight’ the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approval behavior. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast, motivates the learner to ‘flee’ the new learning task; it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behavior.”

Although the type of anxiety is not specifically known, Chart 6.6.1 seems to suggest that generally students in all grades, except Spanish and Japanese 11, are in disagreement and/or strong disagreement of feelings of anxiety in a NS’s class. The strongest amount of anxiety opposition appears to be from Japanese, French, and German grade 10 classes, and the strongest support for feelings of discomfort appears to be in Japanese and Spanish grade 11 classes.

It may be that for the most part NSs are providing a non-threatening learning environment. On the other hand, for classes such as grade 10 Japanese and Spanish, it may be that NSs need to provide more non-threatening opportunities for informal conversation and whole-class discussions to help students become secure in the culture and language. (Hodne, 1997:91)
Similar to findings on anxiety in a NS’s class, chart 6.6.2 appears to suggest that on the whole, students, except for French grade 10, do not fear making mistakes in front of KFLTs. The largest amount of opposition to this fear appears to be from Spanish, German, and Chinese grade 11 classes, whereas the greatest amount of support for being fearful appears in French grade 10.

It may be that because students wish to have teachers correct their errors, they do not fear making them. “Cathcart and Olsen (1976), for example, surveyed 149 adult learners of English as a second language and found a strong preference for error correction [and] Willing’s (1988) study of learning preferences of 517 adult learners also found that ‘error correction by the teacher’ was the second most highly regarded classroom activity.” (Nunan, 1989:31)

### 6.7 Essential for Foreign Language Learning

“In recent years, there has been considerable interest in learner autonomy… and self-direction… in language teaching… the teaching profession has looked for new approaches to teaching which allow students to attain their goals with less direct teacher support… This has involved a re-examination of what students can contribute to their learning of a language, and experimentation with teaching methods designed to exploit students’ ‘autonomous’ learning potential.”

(Tudor, 1993:23)

However, looking at chart 6.7.1 on the next page it appears that, except for German, Chinese, and Russian grade 11 classes, there is a greater amount of support than opposition for the belief that KFLTs and NSs are essential for L2 learning. Moreover, all classes except Russian, Chinese, and German grade 11 appear to be in support of the idea that KFLTs are essential for L2 learning. Similarly, all classes except Russian, Spanish,
French and German grade 11, appear to support NSs as being essential for L2 learning.

![Chart 6.7.1](chart_url)

If learner centeredness is what the future holds for L2 learning, both KFLTs and NSs may need to adopt a learner centered approach to methodology, which will, according to Tudor (1993:26-27), occur in two stages:

i) teachers must get to know students on a number of accounts such as preferred learning styles, attitudes towards L2, and L2 prior learning experience

ii) students should participate actively in the planning of their learning programme.

Once a learner centered approach is implemented, students may become motivated and/or develop the ability to take control of their L2 learning instead of holding firm to the belief that either KFLTs or NSs are essential for L2 learning.

With the appearance of the conviction that KFLTs and NSs are essential for L2 learning, figure 6.7, from Table 44 Appendix II, looks at whether students feel a KFLT to be more essential than a NS or vise-versa. There does not appear to be significant belief from students that one is more essential than the other. There does, however, appear to be slightly more opposition to KFLTs than NSs from grade 10 classes: 16.6%:12.6% and slightly more opposition to NSs than KFLTs from grade 11 classes: 25.1%:22.1%.
Beliefs about L2 learning may be affecting student opinion on the necessity of KFLTs versus NSs. Students may have differing ideas about L2 learning activities and/or approaches they believe useful, and hence, may feel L2 is best learnt from NSs rather than KFLTs or vice-versa. On the other hand, students may be affected by inherent stereotyping.

Stereotypes exist in peoples’ minds. Thomas (1999:10), on reviewing her student evaluations from a previous teaching semester, found that although students found her class to be fun, interesting, and comfortable, response from one student on the question: “What did you dislike?” caused her to become quite distraught. The student responded by stating: “We need native speaker teacher. It will be better.” Considering this stereotype, students were also polled as to their opinion on whether learning strictly from a KFLT or a NS would facilitate their learning. Chart 6.7.2 appears to indicate that all classes except English grade 11 and Japanese and Russian grade 10 are in strong agreement and/or agreement of the idea that learning only from a NS would facilitate L2 learning. The greatest amount of support for NSs appears to be held by German grade 10 and the largest opposition by Japanese grade 10.
Since a similar result to one student’s evaluation of Thomas (1999:12) seems to be apparent in chart 6.7.2, it may be as Thomas adheres that for the L2 teaching profession to be a true pedagogy of possibility, KFLTs may need to show their students “by example that they can be all that they aspire to be.” This may be accomplished, Thomas explains, by sharing more with students: the personal shame, hurt, and anger of not being understood, and explaining ideas that have helped them overcome the struggle with linguistic and cultural marginality. Alternatively, it may be as Nayar (1994) observes that, “Generations of applied linguistic mythmaking in the indubitable superiority and the impregnable infallibility of the ‘native speaker’ has created stereotypes that die hard.” (Samimy and Brutt-Griffler, 1999:416)

6.8 Position Redundancy?
As in any employment field, the issue of necessity should be addressed. Is co-teaching really necessary? Figure 6.8.1 (Table 22, Appendix II), appears to indicate that both KFLTs and NSs believe that they possess the ability to teach the L2 on their own. NSs, however, appear to be most confident with 71.4% supporting the notion in comparison to 64.7% from KFLTs. There also appears to be slight disagreement from KFLTs, which may suggest that some teachers feel more comfortable with the present method of co-teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ability to Teach Alone</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KFLT</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>58.8%</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>42.8%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.8.1

Park (1998:133), in his research of Korean middle/high school students, found that “there is a difference in teaching styles between Korean English teachers and native English teachers: intuitive style for Korean teachers vs concrete-sequential for native English teachers,” which may be causing hidden tension between KFLTs and NSs. This tension may need to be tackled through discussions aimed at promoting confidence in what each brings to the classroom. KFLTs may need to admit their deficiencies and NSs may need to become aware of KFLTs difficulties. Medgyes (1986:112) claims that,

“Native-speaking teachers tend to ignore, among other things, the fact that a great proportion of the energy of their non-native colleagues is inevitably used up in the constant struggle with their own language deficiencies.”
Further to NSs appearing stronger in their belief that they could teach the L2 alone, chart 6.8 appears to show a stronger belief from students that NSs should be the only individuals teaching the L2. All classes appear to show greater opposition than support against only KFLTs teaching L2, and this opposition is greater than the opposition against NSs. Similarly, all classes except Spanish and German grade 11 appear to show more support than opposition for NSs solely, teaching L2. The greatest amount of opposition against KFLTs appears to be with Japanese, German and French grade 10 classes, and the largest significant amount of opposition to NSs appears to come from German, Spanish, and Russian grade 11 classes.

Along with students, school authorities and non-language teachers in figure 6.8.2 (Table 15, Appendix II) also appear to disagree with having only the KFLT teach the L2. This may be connected to one non-native teacher’s written professional analysis of himself: “I simple cannot accept that non-native English teachers in general have a high level of proficiency enough to teach speaking to other non-natives.” (Paul in Samimy and Brutt-Griffier, 1999:426) It may be that despite competence and proficiency in a L2 Koreans cannot accept a non-native L2 speaker teaching the spoken L2 to other Koreans.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thoughts About Only Having KFLTs Teach the Foreign Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal/Vice-Principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Language Teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.8.2

Similar to the finding that there seems to be negative support for KFLTs solely teaching the L2, looking at figure 6.8.3 (Table 13, Appendix II) it appears that there is great support
for the necessity of NSs. There also appears to be a small neutral stand on the issue, but more importantly there does not appear to be any opposition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal/Vice-Principal</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Language Teacher</td>
<td>43.8%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KFLT</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>88.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.8.3

The appearance of a strong voice from KFLTs for the necessity of NSs may be connected to one non-native speaker’s disbelief in his ability to teach the spoken target language. He states, “I don’t believe that I, another non-native teacher, can successfully teach conversational English.” (Paul in Samimy and Brutt-Griffler, 1999:426) KFLTs may be suffering from a fear of using the L2 they teach. Medgyes (1983:2) refers to this type of teacher as “schizophrenic,” one that has to offset this sense of inherent uncertainty by embracing a deeply pessimistic or an aggressive attitude towards ELT. In addition, the participants, including KFLTs, may be expressing what Shaw (1992:11) summarises as:

“Nonnative speakers clearly have varying degrees and qualities of knowledge of all aspects of the language. None will have “better” phonology or syntax than a native speaker but many may have a wider or at least different vocabulary.”

Another possibility may be that the participants are expressing what Atkinson (1987:247) boldly states, “I feel that to ignore the mother tongue in a monolingual classroom is almost certainly to teach with less than maximum efficiency.”

6.9 Teacher Impressions

Attitudes of learners towards one’s teacher, target language, and speakers of the target language are directly related to motivation and L2 learning. Therefore, understanding these issues “can make it possible for teachers… to adjust and vary certain aspects of the classroom to allow for the different individuals in it.” (McDonough and Shaw, 1993:55)
Looking at chart 6.9.1, most students appear to be neutral in their opinion of their teacher. Also, grade 10 classes appear greater in support of NS and KFLT likeness than grade 11 classes. It is also noteworthy that there appears to be a strong significant dislike for NSs over KFLTs by grade 11 classes.

One non-native teacher in response to the question, “How do students perceive their non-native speaking teachers and native speaking teachers? Do they treat them both equally?” answered, “No! Their attitudes toward non-native teachers further my helplessness. Thus my suffering as a language teacher will continue forever.” (Andrew in Samimy and Brutt-Griffler, 1999:426) Therefore, in addition to questioning students on whether they ‘liked’ their teacher, students were also asked if they treated their KFLT and NS with the same respect and in the same manner. Chart 6.9.2 shows the results of this question.

Both grade 10 and 11 students appear to treat and/or greet their KFLT and NS in the same manner. The significant opposition to the notion, however, may be related to student attitudes towards NSs personality differences, and/or cultural differences, which may have
to be confronted for a better L2 learning environment.

Negative impressions of teachers by students may affect whether or not students wish to study the L2 by a certain teacher, and in effect, harm their L2 learning. Students were therefore asked whether they would like to stop learning from a NS and/or have classes with NSs reduced. The results were as follows: 11.4% of students wished to have classes with NSs reduced whereas 58.2% appeared to be satisfied with the present number of classes, 4.3% wished to stop learning from a NS and 70.3% wished to continue learning from a NS. (Appendix II, Table 57 and 58, respectively) Although students generally appear satisfied with NSs, the appearance of students who wish to have classes with NSs reduced or stopped should be addressed. It may be that these students fall into the situation elucidated in Lee’s (1999:157) research. He found that,

“the nonnative teacher spent more time getting information from the students than the native teachers. The native teachers’ spontaneous and fast-paced ways of teaching were not effective for helping students, specifically the reticent Asian student, to learn a language.”

(Lee, 1999:157)
Chapter 7: Recommendations

As mentioned at the onset of this paper, this study was aimed at evaluating the present Foreign Language Programme (FLP) at FLHSs and the issue of non-native/native speaker teachers. The discussions in previous chapters appear to show relatively positive feedback, however, some problems and/or difficulties do exist that need to be addressed for programme enhancement and future success, and some of these are highlighted here.

It will be noted here that it is simply impossible to directly measure the attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions of the individuals involved in this study. Second, it is also possible that individuals may not be telling the truth in order to ‘save face’ and/or to be defiant. Hence, all previous chapter discussions the led to the recommendations given here involve some form of supposition. In addition, being inexperienced in construction of questionnaires, a number of points on the construction of questionnaires as listed by Bell (Holland and Shortall, 1997:22) over which care should be taken may have been overlooked and/or infected the questionnaires. Finally, although an 8-year resident of Korea with proven competency in the Korean language, incorrect wordings that alter meanings may have occurred in the translation from English to Korean and vise-versa.

7.1 The Foreign Language Programme

With the appearance of “good” staff relations and significant support from all participants, except parents, it may be that South Korea has appropriately adopted L2 specialized high schools.

The biggest concern for the FLP though may be the relatively low awareness of FLP objectives being expressed by all individuals. It may be that all individuals need education, re-education, and/or discussions aimed at bringing to light FLP objectives, because “it is important to ‘lay things open,’ for perceptions and understandings to be revealed.” (White, Martine, Stimson and Hodge, 1998:26) This clarification of aims may be more profitable for the programme, especially in areas deemed necessary from this investigation, such as teacher classroom management/style and student development, proficiency, and assessment. The most difficult and debatable task may be the development of clear definitions of students’ proficiency objectives. Motivation to perform action research and examine current students may enable KFLTs and NSs to work together to match their individual expectations to a level of L2 skill proficiency that is appropriate for students as well as Board of Education aspirations.

In addition to objectives, the hidden belief by KFLTs and NSs that they alone could teach
the L2 class may need to be discussed openly. A willingness to collaborate may propel the FLP’s concept of team- or co-teaching to inventive and flourishing heights. KFLTs and NSs seem to feel satisfied in teaching and with the appearance of “good” communication between the two, once discussion has been set in motion, both KFLTs and NSs may become aware of the effectiveness of utilizing the strengths and weaknesses of one another and further the current cooperative teaching environment.

Relatively low support from parents for majoring in L2 may be due to the ingrained typecasting of the idea that ultimate prestige is brought to the family if their child enters a Seoul university, specifically “Seoul Nation University”, regardless of field of study. This stereotype may prove to be extremely difficult to crush, but with parents showing significant satisfaction with the FLP teaching instruction, it may be that improved FLP objectives and future benefits awareness along with reassurance that L2 learning will not harm regular curriculum studies may lead to increased approval for their children’s decision to attend a high school in which students must major in a L2. As parental attitude towards language learning can affect children’s attitudes and language achievement, support for L2 learning may lead to a better home environment and motivate students to healthier L2 learning.

Most students feel majoring in a foreign language in high school to be of importance. The appearance of slight opposition may be partially accounted for by parental attitudes, but may be more directly related to reasons for FLHS entrance. Recalling that a number of students only entered a FLHS because they feared taking the high school entrance examination and still others worried that they would find themselves having to attend an agriculture, commercial, or technical high school because their junior high school grades were too low, teachers may need to adopt alternative methods of encouragement and motivation that enable these students to take pride in their decision, and forget any or all misgivings about their initial reasons for attending a FLHS, since teachers’ attitudes towards learners can affect L2 learning.

With support of student self-esteem in the L2 study, the amount of student enthusiastic participation is something that may also need to be addressed at FLHSSs, because the appearance of significant opposition to interaction occurring between teachers and students and between students may be negatively affecting L2 learning. From research, Nunan found that there was large agreement from learners about what facilitated mastery of a second language. He found that
“Conversation practice inside and outside the classroom, and opportunities for activating English outside class were by far the most frequently nominated things which facilitated development.”

(Nunan, 1991:176)

Teachers may need to alter their classroom teaching styles towards a learner-centered approach by considering the amount and kind of talking/questioning they do in the class, reevaluating who and how often they call upon during class, and reorganizing the class into smaller groups for discussions. An added bonus to class reorganization, through small group and/or pair work, is that teachers may also overcome the significant student belief that the class is too large to facilitate learning. Teachers may also need to be encouraged to perform action research on their classes, which may produce self-awareness and motivation to be “better” learner-oriented teachers. In addition to more classroom opportunities, teachers may need to provide opportunities for informal L2 conversations outside the classroom, perhaps by small talk in the early morning before class, at break times, at lunch hours, or before going home for the day, because these conversations may be less risky for the student than regular classroom talk that occurs in front of their peers.

Generally most classes appear supportive of continuing their L2 study in the future and do not wish to change their major, unfortunately, they do not appear to feel they have L2 proficiency. Hence, it may be that in addition to pedagogical practises aimed at improving classroom participation teachers should be aware of

“L2 learning as a psychologically unsettling and potentially face-threatening experience which can generate debilitating anxiety. The teacher needs to be sensitive to the psychological state of the students and to be supportive and appreciative of any effort made by the students to learn the target language.”

(Tsui, 2001:125)

Significant numbers of students appear to fear participation due to the belief their utterance may be grammatically incorrect, which may suggest that teachers need to develop additional means of reducing student inhibition and anxiety. The appearance that students support error correction would also suggest that at the same time teachers encourage student production of the L2 they should also practise error feedback that is precise and consistent even though one would not correct mistakes in authentic social conversation.

In addition to alterations in teaching approaches, for the promotion of effective L2 teaching, both the novice and expert teacher may need to participate in in-service education, which school authorities encourage and assure will be of value in the classroom,
to gain increased expertise and knowledge.

7.2 Teachers

There is strong agreement from all FLHS individuals polled that NSs are an essential part of the FLP, and significant disagreement for only KFLTs teaching the L2. Hence, a number of suggestions will be presented here that will hopefully advance the FLP to greater heights of success.

Students appear to claim satisfaction with the L2 teachings of both KFLTs and NSs, but they produce significant different opinions on who fosters L2 development, is a better instructor, is more essential for L2 learning, and who alone would facilitate L2 learning. Even though students appear to view KFLTs as developing their L2 proficiency and being better instructors, significant belief is held that learning from only from a NS would facilitate L2 learning. Moreover, there is significant support for L2 to be taught solely by NSs. These facts may be related to the following summary of student ideas in figure 7.2.1, taken from Appendix IV and V, which should be looked at and discussed by KFLTs and NSs.

Features Provided to Students by Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Things Made Possible by NSs</th>
<th>Grade 10</th>
<th>Grade 11</th>
<th>Things Made Possible by KFLTs</th>
<th>Grade 10</th>
<th>Grade 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>all things about the foreign country such as culture, tradition and politics</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>a lot of idioms and correct grammar and vocabulary</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correct pronunciation, intonation, and accent</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>greater understanding because they use Korean</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>current English</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>explanation understanding because they translate well</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practical English, which native speakers really use</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>cultural differences and simplified teachings</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lot of vocabulary by listening to them</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>correct pronunciation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concentration, discussion, and learning in an atmosphere of freedom</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>advice about studying English</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>what foreigners think about Korea/Korean</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Etiquette, manners</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grammatical speech</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>the ability to read and understand</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>familiarity with foreigners</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>English by Korean methods</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nothing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>active participation promotion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>listening ability</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>how to introduce Korean traditions/ culture to</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comfort with the foreign language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>differences between Korean and the foreign language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there's nothing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a lot of things</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Through discussions aimed at understanding what students feel NSs and KFLTns are providing for their L2 learning, NSs and KFLTns may realize that they provide differing, but no less important, things in the classroom. This professional improvement may further develop collaborative style teaching and thus make the classroom a more effective and efficient place inasmuch as the strengths of both teachers are exploited. For instance, as discussed before in chapter 6, the crucial element of phonology and syntax may be, as students believe, provided by NSs while KFLTns can aid in greater student L2 understanding through the use of Korean and advice about studying.

With the appearance of under 50% student support for teacher preparedness/teaching effectiveness, it may be that NSs with no prior teaching experience need time to develop and should be encouraged to do so by following and growing alongside their KFLT teachers. On the other hand, hiring practise could be altered as to screen for more experienced teachers at the interview stage. In addition, KFLTns and NSs should be encouraged to develop and/or participate in professional development seminars aimed at better co-teaching practices that will increase student confidence. By participation in professional improvement KFLTns and NSs can be encouraged to develop materials, outside of the core textbook, that can inspire not only students, but also the teachers themselves.

If it is like Medgyes suggests that differences in teaching methods between NSs and KFLTns are related to level of linguistic competency then KFLTns should be encouraged to have confidence and take pride in their L2 ability and not fear the occasional mistakes that may occur because students appear to support KFLT’s L2 knowledge as being good, and there is significant support from all participants in the survey, except NSs, that KFLTns could teach solely in the L2. Additionally, NSs will need to be reminded to be considerate of their colleague’s situation.

As student support for NS correcting misunderstandings/misconceptions, as well as providing knowledge about their home-country seems to be significantly low, NSs could be asked to re-evaluate their teachings to consider these points and become more learner-centred.
The amount of participation opportunities and direct interaction with teachers is significantly low, although student anxiety in a NS’s class, and fear of making mistakes in front of a KFLT appears low. Therefore, teachers should be encouraged to reorganize their class and/or student questioning so as to provide maximum opportunity for student-student or teacher-student interaction. Also, teachers should be given incentives to interact with students outside the classroom, i.e., lunch hours, break times, and so on, because it will aid in responding to student learning efforts by creating an air of understanding and friendship, and make students active L2 learners.

Lastly, since most students appear to “like” and treat their KFLTs and NS teachers in the same manner, and have the desire to continue L2 study, KFLTs and NSs should be instructed to focus on and cooperatively discuss ways in which the following suggestions in figure 7.2.2, taken from Appendix VI and VII, made by L2 students, can be implemented in the classroom and/or used for personal professional teaching development.

### Suggestions for Teaching Improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean Foreign Language Teacher</th>
<th>Grade 10</th>
<th>Grade 11</th>
<th>Native Speaker</th>
<th>Grade 10</th>
<th>Grade 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teach with kindness and in detail instead of calling on students for answers</td>
<td>18 3</td>
<td>study Korean</td>
<td>10 13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lead students to positive attitudes by providing a lot of opportunities to speak</td>
<td>10 10</td>
<td>use more conversation activities in the class</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use more foreign language instead of Korean</td>
<td>12 4</td>
<td>teach more interestingly with various methods such as games</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take advantage of teaching equipment and use various methods</td>
<td>8 7</td>
<td>change the class or native speaker</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a more interesting class through better teaching methods with information on the foreign country</td>
<td>6 8</td>
<td>provide more opportunities to speak (maybe they could ask questions to students every morning)</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improve pronunciation</td>
<td>7 1</td>
<td>nothing, they have bad characters</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stop discriminating against students, love all students, respect students</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>guide students to concentrate during the class</td>
<td>2 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more review of lessons taught and handouts</td>
<td>1 7</td>
<td>make use of available teaching equipment and various handouts</td>
<td>1 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>study the foreign language harder so that they teach us completely</td>
<td>3 4</td>
<td>stop discriminating against students</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach all things about the foreign country, such as culture and traditions</td>
<td>2 4</td>
<td>teach using the methods we want</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nothing in particular</td>
<td>1 5</td>
<td>understand Korean culture completely</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach grammar and vocabulary</td>
<td>3 2</td>
<td>more classes with native speakers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Descriptive Task</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach current language after visiting the actual place and/or keeping pace with the times</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>become affectionate with students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach students separately according to their ability</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a language is not for learning but acquiring</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make the university entrance examination the prime objective</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be more strict with students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 7.2.2**
Chapter 8: Conclusion
After the provision of brief school background information, this paper analysed the implementation of the foreign language programme in one foreign language high school based on the statistical results of questionnaires given to various individuals associated with that school. In particular, the use of native speakers versus Korean foreign language teachers was examined. Following these examinations, several recommendations were made that will hopefully contribute to the improvement of the foreign language programme in Korean foreign language high schools.

Although research done for this study would seem to suggest that South Korea has appropriately developed a high school foreign language programme as a means of providing students with the skills needed to become internationally competitive and communicatively competent in foreign languages more extensive research and/or follow-up research would need to be administered to past and future school alumni and/or teachers before any concrete statements could be made. Also, further investigation of grade 10 and grade 11 classes may provide insight into the significant differences of opinion between the two grades found throughout this study. In addition, it is suggested that parents should be directly questioned as to their beliefs and preferences instead of reliance on polled individuals to determine society needs.

Perhaps the success and/or failure of a foreign language programme can be easily summarized through Eskey’s 1982 statement that, “The single most important feature of any program… is the teaching faculty… [G]ood teachers make good programs.” (Pennington, 1989:91) Therefore, the programme’s rise to higher success and/or continuance of its present achievements should focus on finding “good” teachers and developing existing teachers’ knowledge and skills using professional training, education, and action research. In addition, awareness that discrepancies between students may be associated with the following statement, “Regardless of the age of the learner, what is undeniable is that individuals learn languages at different rates” (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:167) as well as cognizance of learner needs and desires for the foreign language should be continuously explored and appropriate teaching action taken by native speaker teachers and Korean foreign language teachers to truly provide a superior foreign language programme.
Note: As the appendices are very extensive these have been extracted and can be downloaded as a separate file.
References


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