

**PRAGMATICS INSTRUCTION IN KOREAN AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
PROGRAMS IN THE U.S.: OVERVIEW OF THE PROGRAMS, INSTRUCTORS'
BELIEFS, AND PEDAGOGICAL APPLICATION**

By

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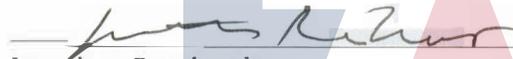
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Abstract

In the field of Korean as a foreign language (KFL) pragmatics, current scholarship documents a need for change in regards to speech styles as dynamic features (Byon, 2007; Chang, 2014; Cook, 2011; Jung, 2015; Park, 2012; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yoon, 2010). However, speech styles are often taught at a pragmalinguistic level as a grammar point and in a textbook or in a classroom sociopragmatics presentation is limited to static contextual features such as one's social status and/or age. Moreover, even though the honorifics system and speech styles are perceived as daunting by even the most advanced KFL learners (Brown, 2010, 2013; Byon, 2004, 2007; Choo, 1999; Shon, 1999; Yoon, 2010), the majority of KFL pragmatics research on speech styles focuses on students' use and production of pragmatics features rather than focusing on the pedagogical application (see Byon, 2015; Song & Pyun, 2011). Instructors' beliefs on teaching pragmatics and the background to their beliefs are also overlooked.

This study is composed of three interrelated projects and grounded in pragmatics instructional studies, Pragmatic Consciousness Raising (PCR) (Rose 1994, 1999), multiliteracies pedagogy framework, and teachers' beliefs research. The purpose of this mixed-method study is to understand KFL educators' views on pragmatics instruction and the current state of pragmatics instruction in KFL programs at tertiary level institutions; the next step is to design and implement pragmatics lesson plans that are more practical and adaptable to current KFL programs. To this end, the research questions are 1) What is the current state of pragmatics instruction in KFL?; 2) What is KFL instructors' cognition (Borg, 2006) of pragmatics instruction?; 3) Is speech styles

instruction based on a multiliteracies pedagogy framework effective and what are the students' perception toward the lessons?

The research questions were answered through a survey and interviews of KFL educators as well as KFL students' in-class and homework assignments and surveys before, during, and after the implementation of new lesson plans. The findings showed that the KFL field experienced positive changes such as collaboration with other instructors and curriculum development endeavors based on current theories and approaches in the field. However, similar issues and challenges to other less commonly taught language (LCTL) programs as well as their own unique challenges such as (over-)qualified teaching staff and an absence of equity and advocacy for instructors and programs still remained. The survey responses and interviews showed that both the administrators and instructors in KFL programs believe that pragmatics competence is crucial to developing proficiency in a foreign language and that pragmatics should be taught in class. The teachers' own personal foreign language learning experiences were very influential in shaping their stated beliefs. However, it was also found that the teachers' practices were based on their working definition of pragmatics rather than their espoused theories. In the classroom, textbooks provided the core element of curriculum and classroom practice, which the teachers thought contributed to persistently unsatisfactory approaches to pragmatics teaching.

Drawing upon the survey and interview results, a series of instructional units, informed by PCR and multiliteracies pedagogy, was designed to be integrated into current textbook-oriented curricula and implemented in an upper elementary level Korean course. Contrary to the concerns of the interviewed KFL instructors, beginner-level

students successfully participated and interacted meaningfully using authentic materials. The students showed development in metapragmatic awareness and in both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics knowledge. In addition, the students exhibited positive attitudes toward the instructional units. Based on this evidence, this dissertation concludes with implications and future research recommendations for teacher professional development training design, KFL curriculum, teaching material design, and teacher cognition research.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Instruction in Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) in U.S. higher education has rapidly grown in recent years in terms of the number of students. According to the Modern Language Association (MLA) of America's 2013 report, a 37.1% growth in enrollment occurred from 2002 to 2006, an 18.2% increase was documented from 2006 to 2009, and a 44.7% increase was reported from 2009 to 2013. Because of these recent increases, institutions that offer KFL classes are expanding. As a result, KFL instructors and publications on KFL pedagogy have also grown in number. At the same time as this development, foreign language pragmatics teaching and learning as a whole is the subject of significant body of research in the field of Most Commonly Taught Languages (MCTLs) (e.g. English as a Second/Foreign language [ESL/FL]) and many scholars value pragmatics as one of the most important aspects of becoming a fluent speaker of any foreign language (Canale & Swain, 1980; Grossi, 2009; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper, 1997; Thomas, 1983). However, pragmatics research remains an underexplored area in KFL, and a significant portion of KFL pragmatics focuses on interventional studies and studies of speech acts, similarly to other research in more mainstream foreign languages (Byon, 2015; Song & Pyun, 2011), neglecting instructor attitudes and practices.

Pragmatics is especially important for KFL learners due to the Confucian cultural background underpinning the Korean language and culture (Yoon, 2010). Each time they communicate, Korean language speakers have to index an appropriate stance through word choice regarding the relationship among the interlocutors, which is determined by age, socioeconomic status, contexts, intended message, and so on. Researchers have

found that native speakers of Korean choose speech styles based on multiple elements, including the factors listed above, and speech style shifts can be easily observed in naturally occurring dialogues (Byon, 2007; Chang, 2014; Jung, 2015; Park, 2012; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yoon, 2010). Therefore, in order to appropriately establish the intended stance, one should be able to manipulate speech styles correctly. In addition, it is impossible to avoid using speech styles in Korean because they are morpho-syntactically required elements at the end of every utterance. Due to this linguistic characteristic, KFL students are introduced to the speech style system at a very early stage. It is important to foster KFL students' agency in their own speech style usage with authentic Korean language input from the beginning of the learning process. However, while research findings reveal the importance of sociopragmatic knowledge of speech styles, classroom instruction has tended to focus on the pragmalinguistic aspect—what is said; the sociopragmatics of speech styles —why something is said—is not usually taught in the classroom, resulting in a limited understanding of speech styles on the part of learners. Therefore, a key element of pragmatic competence is generally undeveloped.

1.2 Background

1.2.1 Pragmatics instruction in Foreign Language (FL)

Since the idea of pragmatic competence was introduced, it has become recognized as one of the cornerstones of effective communication in a second/foreign language (L2/FL). Literature shows that native speakers of L2/FL tend to perceive pragmatic errors more seriously than grammatical errors (Canale & Swain, 1980; Grossi, 2009; Thomas, 1983), because pragmatic errors are more likely to lead to face-threatening situations than grammatical errors. Indeed, pragmatic errors may make native speakers perceive L2/FL

speakers as uncooperative or inconsiderate (Grossi, 2009; Thomas, 1983). As a result, pragmatic errors may harm relationships and may contribute to negative stereotypes (Thomas, 1983).

Researchers have argued that there is a need for explicit L2/FL pragmatics instruction, as the importance of L2/FL pragmatics continues to gain attention (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; House, 1996; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001). Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) found that L2 learners who study their L2 in an immersive setting are more sensitive to pragmatic failure than FL learners who study the language in a classroom setting and have little contact with the target language (TL) outside of the classroom. In their study, English as a foreign language (EFL) learners in Hungary perceived that grammatical errors have significantly negative consequences when communicating in the TL. However, although English as a second language (ESL) students showed a better understanding of the importance of pragmatics, learning the TL in an immersive setting does not guarantee pragmatic competence development. Kasper and Rose (2002) claim that “pragmatic functions and relevant contextual factors are often not salient to learners and so not likely to be noticed despite prolonged exposure” (p. 237). Advanced L2 speakers also appear to struggle with pragmatic comprehension, as is attested for example by the introduction of inappropriate content into student-adviser conversations (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). These studies, among many others, further underscore the necessity of direct L2 pragmatics instruction. As a result, researchers in the field have begun investigating appropriate instruction methods and materials for the teaching of L2 pragmatics.

Researchers have found that it is important for students to be exposed to sufficient, authentic, and meaningful language sample input and that the input provided by textbooks is insufficient (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Brown, 2010; Etienne & Sax, 2009; Gilmore, 2004; Nguyen, 2011; Rose, 2005; Vellenga, 2004). Gilmore (2004) compared authentic interactions and dialogues in textbooks published between 1981 and 1997. Although textbook dialogues exhibit more lexical density than the collected authentic data, the textbook dialogues did not commonly utilize target pragmatic features, such as false starts, repetition, pauses, terminal overlap, latching, hesitation devices, and back-channels. In newer textbooks, the frequency of use of target pragmatic features has improved and lexical density has been lowered, but many still do not reflect authentic conversation. Analysis of Vietnam's upper-secondary school textbook by Nguyen (2011) and ESL and EFL textbook analysis by Vellenga (2004) both demonstrated that textbooks lack explicit metapragmatic information and that the presentation of speech acts is limited across different proficiency levels. Misrepresentation of authentic stylistic variation was also observed in 22 French textbooks (Etienne & Sax, 2009). Etienne and Sax observed that *nous, ne* retention and inversion questions are overrepresented even though these are not commonly used by French native speakers (NSs). Sociopragmatic information was also oversimplified. Unfortunately, according to a teacher survey, teachers seldom bring supplemental materials to class relating to pragmatics to compensate for this lack of pragmatic information (Vellenga, 2004). The abovementioned studies demonstrate a need for approaches and methods that incorporate genuine materials in FL classrooms, especially when students do not receive enough language input outside the classroom, which is the focus of this dissertation.

1.2.2 Pragmatics instruction in Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL)

When it comes to Korean and other East Asian languages, which are categorized as the most difficult languages to learn for native English speakers by the Defense Language Institute (n.d.) and Foreign Service Institute (U.S. Department of State, n.d.), curricula and teaching materials tend to focus more on differences of linguistic aspects. The teaching of pragmatics is neglected due to its difficulty and complexity (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). Pragmatics instruction might be perceived as a luxury when students struggle to read and write in a writing system that differs from the Roman alphabet and to practice staged dialogues in textbooks, despite the fact that researchers and instructors recognize the importance of pragmatics in effective communication.

Pragmatics is often taught at a pragmalinguistic level as a grammar point, and sociopragmatic considerations receive limited attention in textbooks and class activities (Byon, 2007). For example, speech styles in Korean are represented as sentence-final suffixes that are required to be conjugated with a verb or an adjective. Due to their pragmalinguistic centrality, students learn speech styles from the very beginning, and the polite speech style is normally the first one to be introduced. Whereas conjugation rules are extensively explained, limited information is provided when it comes to contextual features. Speech styles are presented in relation to static contextual features such as one's social status and/or age in regard to the addressees in a textbook. However, according to some scholars, native speakers choose speech styles in relation to dynamic features such as attitude or social distance between interlocutors (Agha, 1998, Byon, 2007, Choo, 1999, Cook, 2011, Yoon, 2010). In addition to this disproportionate focus on static socio-cultural aspects, textbook and class activities pertaining to speech styles try to shelter the

students by providing “a safe place” so that the students are more likely to be perceived as (over)polite but not as rude (Brown, 2010; Choo, 1999; Yoon, 2010). This limited presentation might reinforce beginning KFL learners’ perceptions of speech style as a verb or an adjective ending rather than choices that speakers make intentionally to mark their stance and to convey intended meanings. Textbook and classroom instruction thus do not provide enough information for students to develop native-like pragmatic behavior, regardless of their overall proficiency. The research literature identifies the need for the teaching of speech styles as a part of pragmatics instruction that enhances KFL students’ understanding of speech styles through the use of authentic and genuine language samples.

1.3 Purpose of the Dissertation

Although studies investigating the need for pragmatics instruction, effective pragmatic teaching methods, and instructional materials are growing in number, little is known about the current state of pragmatic instruction in language program curricula and classroom practice. Moreover, there is limited research into program-wide curricula on pragmatics teaching and the effect of language program administrators’ (LPA), directors’ (LPD), and instructors’ beliefs and attitudes toward pragmatics and curriculum development. The need for principled materials for pragmatic teaching is advocated by researchers who have engaged in extensive FL textbook analysis and found that textbooks are inadequate for effective pragmatics learning (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Brown, 2010; Etienne & Sax, 2009; Gilmore, 2004; Nguyen, 2011; Rose, 2005; Vellenga, 2004).

In response, the purpose of this dissertation is to provide a comprehensive picture of pragmatics teaching and learning in KFL program curricula and classrooms. The study

was designed to contribute to the scholarly literature in the field of pragmatics teaching and learning as well as to inform administrators and instructors of Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs) and other foreign language programs. This study researched the current state of teaching and learning pragmatics in KFL through surveys and interviews with KFL educators, drawing from LCTL teacher research and Borg's (2006) language teacher cognition framework. As reported in the dissertation, I first surveyed KFL programs and cognition (Borg, 2006) of KFL educators on pragmatics instruction to better assess the current status of pragmatics instruction in KFL field, which is necessary to develop effective and efficient teaching approaches and methods. Then, I developed a series of instructional units, informed by a pragmatic consciousness raising (PCR) and multiliteracies pedagogy framework, and implemented them in an upper-elementary level KFL course to teach the sociopragmatic aspect of speech styles. These units sought to address the following issues raised by KFL researchers: the inauthenticity of textbook presentation, the lack of authentic input, and the teaching of static views of speech styles (Brown, 2007, 2010, 2013; Byon, 2004, 2007; Choo, 1999; Yoon, 2010). By surveying the current status of KFL programs, investigating KFL educators' cognition, and conducting an interventional study, the present study not only seeks to fill the gap in the literature, but also aims to help formulate a language pedagogy and provide language program administrators and educators with concrete survey results and empirical evidence in support of pragmatics instruction.

1.4 Research Questions

The overarching subject of this dissertation is pragmatics instruction in KFL. The study was guided by three main research questions pertaining to this subject: where we

are, how we think about it, and how to teach it. Each research question was broken down into specific subquestions, as listed below:

- 1: The current state of pragmatics instruction in KFL in the US
 - 1a. What are the program characteristics of KFL programs at tertiary level institutions in the US?
 - 1b. How are curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatic instruction reflected in or informed by the attitudes and beliefs of language program administrators/directors/coordinators (LPA/D/Cs) and instructors of KFL?
 - 1c. What is the role of the socio-cultural contexts and institutional constraints on curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatics instruction?
- 2: KFL instructors' cognition (Borg, 2006) about pragmatics instruction
 - 2a: What are the contributing factors to the beliefs held by KFL instructors regarding pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction?
 - 2b: How do beliefs about pragmatics shape in-class pragmatics instruction?
 - 2c: Are the beliefs about pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction and actual classroom practice consistent?
- 3: A potential solution: Speech styles instruction based on a multiliteracies pedagogy framework
 - 3a. Can awareness-raising instructional units based on a multiliteracies pedagogy framework lead to an increased sociopragmatic understanding among KFL learners of speech styles or hearer honorifics?
 - 3b. What are the students' perceptions toward multiliteracies pedagogy-based instruction?

1.5 Overview of the Dissertation

The research questions provide objectives for three interrelated studies, which are presented here in three chapters (Chapters 3, 4, and 5). First, Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature and provides a theoretical framework for the three studies. To situate KFL in the context of foreign language at the tertiary level institution in the U.S., the

chapter reviews LCTL educators' experiences and challenges. Even though KFL enrollment numbers have increased, Korean is still perceived as a LCTL based on the total number of students according to the MLA 2013 report. Next, the literature on teacher cognition is discussed according to Borg's language teacher cognition framework (2006) to gain a better understanding of the aspects that play a role in (re)shaping language teachers' cognition and classroom practice. Then, research on Korean speech styles and pedagogical intervention studies is reviewed. As a framework for the instructional units detailed in Chapter 5, PCR and multiliteracies pedagogy framework are then introduced, followed by a review of two studies investigating the application of the multiliteracies pedagogy framework in KFL classrooms.

Chapter 3 maps the current landscape of KFL programs and pragmatics instruction at tertiary level institutions in the U.S. A survey was distributed to the KFL departments and programs to gather data. The survey asked demographic information of the educator, program characteristics, roles and responsibilities, beliefs about pragmatics classroom instruction, and current pragmatics instruction practice. This chapter contributes to previous understandings of KFL programs, which are based on limited research and need to be updated to account for recent developments (Byon, 2008; Richards, 2002; Silva, 2007). By surveying current KFL programs' characteristics and pragmatics instruction, the project aims to provide KFL educators and administration with a clearer picture of where current KFL programs are situated and identify opportunities for professional development and curriculum development that would help students develop not only lexical and grammatical knowledge but also pragmatic

competence. Also, it considers what type of new changes are feasible, based on a discussion of the issues and challenges currently faced by KFL educators.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the research component that addresses KFL instructors' beliefs about pragmatics and pragmatics instruction. Volunteer survey respondents were contacted and interviewed. The interview data were organized using Borg's (2006) language teacher cognition framework, which is based on the insight that teacher cognition is affected by various factors and recognizes the interconnectivity among these factors with classroom practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003, 2006; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Hill, 2014, Nishino, 2012; Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996). For the scope of this chapter, the five elements of Borg's framework were limited and adjusted as follows: *schooling* was understood to refer to foreign language learning. *Professional coursework* was renamed *Professional coursework and experience* to include previous teaching experiences, because teachers rely on experiential learning, and this provides professional knowledge as it becomes internalized over time (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001; Borg & Burns, 2008; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014). *Contextual factors* included institutional setting, course offerings, constraints, roles and responsibilities, and so on. *Classroom practice* focused on current practice of KFL and pragmatics teaching.

Drawing on the findings of Chapters 3 and 4, Chapter 5 then presents a series of instructional units that are compatible with current KFL practice. More specifically, the instructional units were designed to supplement *Integrated Korean* textbook, published by University of Hawaii Press. The teaching units were designed to explore how lesson plans can integrate questions and activities that challenge students' static sociopragmatic

perception of speech styles, allowing them to develop awareness of the more dynamic aspects of speech styles in use. The lessons were informed by a PCR and multiliteracies pedagogy framework (Allen & Paesani, 2010; Kalantzis & Cope, 2005; Kern, 2000; New London Group, 1996). The unit was then implemented in an upper-beginning level KFL classroom, and the themes that emerged from the students' pre- and post-instruction questionnaires were compared to observe changes in the students' sociopragmatic understanding of speech styles. Students' perception of multiliteracies pedagogy-based instruction was also tested.

Finally, Chapter 6 presents a summary of the findings and points of discussion from the individual studies. It further discusses implications for future research, especially for KFL pedagogies. The chapter concludes by discussing the broader theoretical and pedagogical implications this dissertation offers to the field of LCTL education.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Pragmatic competence has gained recognition as one of the major aspects contributing to effective communication in a second/foreign language (L2/FL) and the need for in-class pragmatics instruction has been strongly asserted by researchers in the field of foreign language teaching (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; House, 1996; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001). The body of current studies of pragmatics instruction in the field of Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) mostly consists of interventional studies focusing on effective teaching strategies and/or measuring students' pragmatics competence through discourse completion tasks (Song and Pyun, 2011), similar to the field of other Most Commonly Taught Languages (MCTLs) (Jeon & Kaya, 2006). There is limited literature on how pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction are practiced as well as how contextual elements and beliefs and attitudes toward pragmatics play a role to shape practice. The current project seeks to 1) identify the context where Korean language is taught as one of the Less Commonly Taught Language (LCTL) programs in US tertiary level institutions, 2) assess attitudes and beliefs toward pragmatics of KFL language program directors/administration/coordinators (LPD/A/Cs) and instructors, and 3) understand in-class pragmatics instruction practice of KFL. This study examined the efficacy of multiliteracies-based instructional units on pragmatics teaching and learning, specifically, speech style in Korean language, to provide a possible way to incorporate pragmatics instruction in class without a great deal of modification to the current curriculum. To

provide theoretical background for the current project, three main areas are reviewed in this chapter: LCTLs in the United States, language teachers' cognition studies, and pragmatics instruction. The review of literature begins with the LCTLs in the United States and issues and challenges that LCTL programs and instructors face to situate Korean programs in the United States. Then, it addresses how language teacher cognition and classroom practices shape each other. Lastly, it reviews pragmatics instruction research.

2.2 Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs) in the U.S.

LCTL is a descriptive umbrella term referring to a language that institutions in the United States offer infrequently in the field of foreign language teaching and learning. According to their website, the National Council of Less Commonly Taught Languages (NCOLCTL) views LCTLs as “all languages other than English and the commonly taught European languages of German, French, and Spanish” (NCOLCTL, n.d.a). The Less Commonly Taught Languages Project at the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) at the University of Minnesota takes a similar view and defines LCTLs as “all world languages except English, French, German, and Spanish” (Janus, 1998, p. 165). These definitions do not carry any political implications. However, development of LCTL programs in the United States was heavily influenced by national security and other external issues rather than pure academic interests compared to programs of commonly taught languages (CTLs). The influence of external factors on the teaching of languages is more apparent in the K-12 system. Russian and Japanese are examples of affected languages. After the Soviet Union launched its first satellite in 1957, Russian as a foreign language was officially included in the US K-12 system.

Then, Japanese as a foreign language attained bigger student enrollment and support due to Japan's economic growth in 1990's. Currently, Chinese as a foreign language has been introduced to the K-12 system and school districts are expanding programs and enrollment due to China's economic growth and its position around the world.

After the events of September 11th, 2001 and other subsequent incidents, there has been greater attention and government support for developing LCTL programs. One major action was the National Security Language Initiative (NSLI). The NSLI was introduced by George W. Bush in January 2006, with a request for \$115 million in fiscal year 2007. The Departments of State, Education, and Defense, and Direction of National Intelligence are involved in the initiative. It calls special attention to critical languages, including Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Russian, and more. The main objective of this initiative is to increase highly competent speakers of the critical languages to strengthen the country's national security. The scope of NSLI is not limited to higher education. It emphasizes the importance of studying a foreign language as soon as early childhood and continuing through post-secondary education and beyond. Another goal for NSLI is to increase the number of LCTL teachers and to develop resources for these teachers (U.S. Department of State, 2006). In addition to the attention and support from the US government, individual LCTL groups in the United States formed NCOLCTL in 1990 with Ford Foundation funding and the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) (NFLC, n.d.). More LCTL groups are joining NCOLCTL and the organization has been working to help sustain and develop LCTL programs. It provides curricula resources and scholarly support such as publishing journals and hosting annual conferences (NCOLCTL, n.d.b).

2.2.1 Issues and challenges

Even though the government initiatives to monetarily support LCTL teaching and learning, such as NSLI, seem promising to program development and improvement, LCTL programs still struggle to establish a strong foundation to build quality programs. LCTL educators and administrators face challenges at classroom, instructor, pedagogical, and administrative levels. Challenges might include courses, teaching staff, curriculum, program, support from administration, and so on, even with existence of organizations such as NCOLCTL and with financial support from the government (Al-Batal, 2007; Gor & Vatz, 2009; Helms, 2005; Janus, 1998; Kim et al., 2015; Larson, 2006; O'Connell & Norwood, 2007).

There is no doubt that government funding is important and helps establish and sustain LCTL programs ("Federal funding support", 2014; O'Connell & Norwood, 2007, p. 146). Title VI grant works as seed money for LCTL programs such as Ohio State University's Portuguese classes, South Asian studies in universities in the United States (Stewart, 2006, as cited in O'Connell & Norwood, 2007), and Georgetown University's Turkish classes and Persian language instructors (O'Connell & Norwood, 2007, p. 148). Without this funding, there is no place for students to learn those languages if they want guided language learning experiences that are different from self-study (Wilhelm, 2011). Government funding made it possible to not only establish and develop programs but also to provide and secure job opportunities for LCTL teaching staff by creating 19 tenure-track positions and 33 contract positions nationwide, according to Newhall (2006). Even after a huge allocation of money due to NSLI, the need for monetary support from government has been continuously acknowledged by many LCTL educators (Stenson,

Janus, & Mulkern, 1998). LCTL educators viewed funding as not adequate to sustain and develop LCTL programs, especially in post-secondary level institutions (Biddle, 2002; O'Connell & Norwood, 2007; Sanatullova-Allison, 2008). LCTL educators at the university level felt that NSLI mostly focused on K-12 and only a small amount was allocated to higher institutions directly (Koebler, 2012; Sanatullova-Allison, 2008).

Title VI of the Higher Education Act and the Fulbright-Hays program are the other funding sources that are dedicated to foreign languages programs and globalization. However, these two programs were the focus of budget cuts in 2011. According to Wilhelm (2011), the cut was by 40 percent or 50 million dollars. As a result of this cut, the University of Michigan was concerned that its LCTL courses might face cancellation (Wilhelm, 2011). Similar concern was observed from faculties at other universities (O'Connell & Norwood, 2007). They reported that LCTL courses could be the first ones to be affected and cancelled if there is no Title VI funding. In addition to course cancellation, it might result in teaching staff's job insecurity. As a result of an 8 percent decrease in funding in 2006, less is available from National Resource Center (NRC) grants to pay LCTL teaching staff salaries, according to O'Connell and Norwood (2007, p. 80). William I Brustein, Ohio State University's vice provost for global strategies and international affairs, claimed that the budget cut would result in the lay-off of 30 staff members at Ohio State University (Wilhelm, 2011). In addition, the Foreign Language Assistance Program (FLAP) faced budget cuts in 2012 even though it was one of the focus projects of NSLI (Koebler, 2012). These budget cuts threaten LCTL learning opportunities for students and employment of LCTL instructors and administrators.

Another issue that still prevails in the field of teaching LCTLs is teaching staff and curriculum (Al-Batal, 2007; Gor & Vatz, 2009; Helms, 2005; Janus, 1998; Kim et al., 2015; Larson, 2006; O'Connell & Norwood, 2007). O'Connell and Norwood (2007) reported that all levels of institutions face some degree of difficulties in identifying qualified instructors with foreign language teaching training for some LCTLs. It is easier for administration to turn to a native speaker of the language as a quick fix in this circumstance (Al-Batal, 2007; Gor & Vatz, 2009). However, simply having a native speaker as an instructor guarantees neither quality nor success of the course and the program; one of the common characteristics of failed LCTL programs is that their instructors were native speakers with very limited or no professional training in the field of education or foreign language teaching (Sanatullova-Allison, 2008).

Lack of professional development opportunities and collaboration among LCTL educators also hampers quality of LCTL instruction, according to a teacher survey (Johnston & Janus, 2003). The LCTL teachers in Stenson, Janus, and Multern (1998) were in a similar situation. They were not aware of training or preparation opportunities specifically aimed at teaching the language they taught, even though most of the survey participants had some kind of experiences related to language and/or pedagogy such as linguistics courses, orientation, and language teaching experience. Foreign language teacher trainings are usually offered under most commonly taught languages (MCTLs) departments such as Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). LCTL instructors can benefit from the MCTL pedagogy training and apply their knowledge in their classrooms. However, there are certain aspects that are unique to the languages they teach, and MCTL pedagogy courses and workshops might not be enough as professional

development opportunities. MCTL framework tends to be inappropriately generalized to LCTL pedagogy (Larson, 2006). With the cadre of LCTL instructors collaborating, the LCTL teachers anticipate that the gaps between MCTLs and LCTLs pedagogy can be filled and built better quality teacher training programs and LCTL-specific pedagogy (Kim et al., 2015; Sanatullova-Allison, 2008; Stenson et al., 1998).

Along similar lines, Al-Batal (2007) and Schrier (1994, as cited in Sanatullova-Allison, 2008) called for the need for LCTL-specific teacher preparation courses at post-secondary level for pre-service teachers. These courses can offer LCTL teacher candidates a place where they can explore current schools of thought in the field of foreign language pedagogy with focus on the needs specific to LCTLs. The teacher candidates can be trained to develop curriculum and teaching materials reflecting global citizenship development and transcultural and transliteracy competency, as recommended by the Modern Language Association (2007). This can, then, be one way of resolving inadequate professional development opportunities and addressing issues regarding lack of quality teaching materials and curriculum.

The need for more informed curriculum reflecting recent thinking in language teaching methodology has been addressed repeatedly by LCTL instructors and researchers. Materials targeting the students with more advanced proficiency and reflecting current schools of thought in the foreign language teaching field are reported to be inadequate as well (Al-Batal, 2007; Gor & Vatz, 2009; Larson, 2006; Stenson et al., 1998). To respond to this need, researchers suggest that the LCTLs' curricula should engage students so that their motivation to learn the language can be stimulated and retained. Regardless of current thoughts in the field, LCTL teachers agreed that cultural

content integration was one possibility to engage students (Gor & Vatz, 2009; Stanson et al., 1998). Larson (2006) claimed that LCTL educators also need to engage students cognitively to increase their motivation. Focus should be on developing metalinguistic awareness as well as structural knowledge of the language. In addition, LCTL curriculum should take writing more seriously. Including text from the very beginning will lead to higher written language competency, which will lead to higher retention rates (Larson, 2006). She warned that we should not treat reading and writing as decoding exercises and we should not limit text as a literary text. We should give students the experience of using language to explore and learn what they want to know by providing them with opportunities to use their native language competency to explore and access knowledge in the foreign language.

Another challenge still persistent is equity and advocacy of LCTLs and LCTL teachers (Helms, 2005; Janus, 1998; Johnston & Janus, 2003; Kim et al., 2015; Larson, 2006; Sanatullova-Allison, 2008). This issue has been addressed by LCTL educators constantly for at least about 20 years. Course offering tends to be dependent on demand and enrollment. Administrators provide more support for the departments and courses that have more visibility due to higher enrollment, because administrators tend to have a stronger business mindset. As a result, administrators are unlikely to support LCTL courses to be sustained, blaming relatively lower enrollment compared to their counterpart MCTL courses. Polarization between MCTLs and LCTLs exemplifies that the rich get richer and the poor get poorer. LCTL students need more time, and fewer students per class might be necessary to be at the same proficiency level as MCTL students. However, administration does not readily accept these requests. Because of

these reasons, not only are LCTL courses threatened, but also instructors of LCTLs don't have security in terms of employment.

According to Sanatullova-Allison (2008), most LCTL teachers are not full-time nor on tenure-track. They are typically adjunct faculty with no benefits. Also, there are only one or two instructors per language; they do not have colleagues who can share more teaching ideas specific to the language that they teach. The same concern can be found in the survey of LCTL instructors (Stanson et al., 1998). There is a high turnover rate partially due to the previously mentioned reason of job insecurity. From the administrators' perspective, high turnover rate prevents them from investing in the professional development of LCTL teachers (Sanatullova-Allison, 2008). It is a vicious cycle. This reservation can contribute to a high turnover rate. Foreign language teachers think that administration and academia perceive language teaching as a "mere" skilled occupation (Helms, 2005; Stanson et al., 1998). Language instructors were ranked lower than literature area instructors and/or researchers; this prevents LCTL teachers from getting fair treatment as professionals and the teachers believed that this affected their job security (Helms, 2005; Stanson et al., 1998). Administrators and academia need to change their view on language teachers and need to validate what language teachers do. At the same time, language teachers need to work towards better visibility of their own programs and/or courses (Kim et al., 2015). LCTL teachers can work for their own empowerment by focusing on marketing the languages and courses through the development of quality curriculum reflecting aforementioned areas where LCTL programs and instructors can improve.

2.2.2 Summary

LCTL is an ideologically neutral term to refer to foreign languages that are less commonly offered in an institution. However, it is undeniable that LCTL education in the United States is not free from national security status and policy. LCTL programs and educators face issues and challenges derived from the government policy and from LCTL-specific reasons. Budgetary issues exist across all foreign language programs but it is especially true for LCTL programs. A review of literature revealed that the challenges that administration and teachers of LCTLs experience existed at various levels from instructor qualification to pedagogical and administrative levels.

Researchers identified the need for LCTL-specific professional development opportunities, changes in administrators' view, and LCTL teachers' active engagement for their own empowerment through quality curriculum development. To follow these recommendations and design LCTL professional development trainings, one should account for LCTL teachers' constructs about effective language teaching and learning to get the most benefit (Al-Batal, 2007; Larson, 2006). In the following section, teacher cognition research is reviewed to provide an overview of contributing factors of language teachers' beliefs.

2.3 Language Teacher Cognition and Instructional Practices

2.3.1 Language teacher cognition and beliefs

Despite the above-mentioned challenges and issues including the challenge of finding quality teaching materials and professional instructors, LCTL teachers are agents of complex cognitive activities, just like MCTL teachers with high cognitive abilities. Teachers are "active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by

drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs” (Borg, 2003, p.81) regardless of their teaching subject, years of experience, mastery of the subject and other factors. Teachers’ beliefs not only affect lesson plan design, in-class decision making processes, and teachers’ behavior (Shavelson & Stern, 1981), but also acceptance or resistance to new teaching approaches and methods (Donahue, 2003). Teachers’ practices are outcomes of their beliefs and contextual factors. Therefore, it would be of value to investigate LCTL teachers’ beliefs about foreign language teaching and about pragmatics, and from where they are derived. This might help to shed light on which areas LCTL educators and administrators should focus on to have lessons that align with current thoughts in the field, students’ needs, and government expectations (need for more proficient foreign language speakers). In turn, it would lead to potential resolution of some of the challenges and issues LCTL teachers face. In the following section, Borg’s framework of language teacher cognition and each component of the framework are reviewed. How each component of the framework was discussed by researchers follows. Last, studies focused on pragmatics are reviewed. The literature includes MCTLs, ESL, and EFL studies in addition to LCTL studies to situate LCTL in the larger context of foreign language teaching and learning, partly due to paucity of research in the field of LCTL.

2.3.2 Borg’s framework of language teacher cognition

Despite the accumulating body of literature over the past 30 years, researchers in the field of language teachers’ beliefs and instructional practices use different terms to refer instructors’ psychological constructs (See Borg, 2006; Pajares, 1992). In his review of language teacher cognition literature, Borg (2006) identified 24 different labels

researchers used to refer to teachers' psychological constructs, along with multiple definitions for some terms. This reflects that the same trends of different definitions and diverse terminology appear in teacher cognition research in general. Pajares (1992) used *beliefs* as teachers' attitudes about education and the educational process. Richards (1998) included more psychological constructs as he defined *beliefs* as information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning. In the language teacher cognition field, *beliefs* referred to teachers' evaluative statements about their ideas and knowledge on language teaching and learning (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004, as cited in Borg, 2006). Borg (2006) also showed similar concepts were labelled differently by different researchers. For example, personal philosophies of teaching that work as filters or frameworks to classroom practices were labelled as *images* (Johnson, 1994) and *maxims* (Richards, 1996). Golombek (1998) referred to the filter that was created based on teachers' past education experience and that mitigated current classroom practices as *personal practical knowledge*. Even though there are different definitions for the same terms and different terms to refer similar concepts, it is a general consensus that language teachers' psychological constructs are multidimensional concepts and that cognition and instructional practices influence each other.

As researchers in the field acknowledged its complex nature, terminology became more inclusive. Woods (1996) argued that distinction among beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge is difficult to draw when considering their influence on the teachers' classroom practice. He claimed that they should be considered as a "spectrum of meaning even though they have been treated as separate entities in the literature" (p. 195). Thus,

he proposed *BAK* (*Belief, Attitude, Knowledge*) instead of using one construct term. Other researchers have used different terms interchangeably in the literature (Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014). Borg (2006) defined language teacher *cognition* as “complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work” (p. 272). His terminology, *cognition*, embraces the broad spectrum of different terminology and concepts following Woods (1996) and Richards (1998). For this reason, *cognition* is used to refer to foreign language teachers’ psychological constructs, and beliefs and cognition are used interchangeably in this project.

The call by Pajares (1992) and Borg (2003) for the standardization of terminologies or frameworks for studying the foreign language teachers’ psychological constructs led Borg to develop his own schematic conceptualization of teacher cognition (2003). Regardless of different terminology used in teacher cognition studies, many researchers in the field followed the Vygotskian sociocultural theoretical framework (Fagan, 2013) and constructivist perspective (Crandall, 2000; Linsville, 2014). It was a general consensus that teachers’ cognition is affected by various factors (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003, 2006; Cochran-Smith and Zeichner, 2005; Hill, 2014, Nishino, 2012; Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996). Borg’s (2006) framework mirrors this prevalent view and interconnectivity among these factors with teacher cognition and classroom practice (Figure 1).

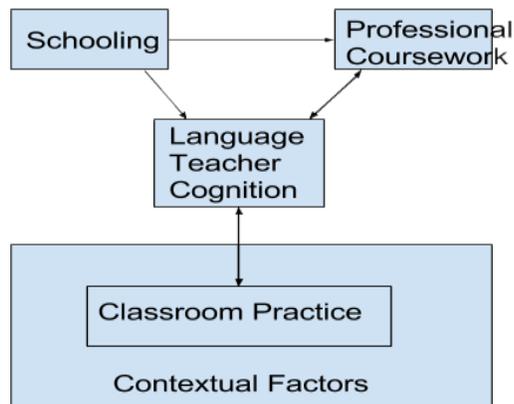


Figure 2.1 Borg's Framework on Language Teacher Cognition (2006).

Borg's (2006) framework consisted of five elements: Language teacher cognition, schooling, Professional Coursework, Contextual Factors, and Classroom Practice.

Language teacher cognition was used to refer to different terminologies in the field collectively such as beliefs, images, assumptions, knowledge, attitudes, and so on.

Different factors influencing language teacher cognition were grouped into four themes: Schooling, Professional Coursework, Contextual Factors, and Classroom Practice.

Schooling, teacher's classroom experience as a learner, shapes initial perception of teaching. Borg accounted for the impact of social interaction with other influential people, such as parents, as teachers shape cognition. Professional Coursework, or professional education, includes both pre-service and in-service training.

According to Borg (2006), *Contextual Factors* refer to external factors at all levels from physical classroom condition of the day to national educational policies. The framework takes an ecological view of the *contextual factors* and *classroom practice*.

Contextual factors mediate *classroom practice* when cognitions about ideal teaching and learning cannot be carried out in class. Incongruity, *tension*, between cognition and

practice is created when cognition is not reshaped by the given contextual factors. If cognition is reshaped by contextual factors, it leads to congruency between cognition and practice. *Classroom Practice* is a teacher's experience being a teacher in a classroom including practice teaching. Language teacher cognition is not static but rather emergent and constant reflective practice influencing and being influenced by *Schooling, Professional Coursework, Contextual Factors, and Classroom Practice* (Borg, 2006; Fagan, 2013; Negueruela-Azarola, 2011; Peng, 2011). In the following section, each theme's effect on language teacher cognition is reviewed.

2.3.2.1 Schooling

Teachers undergo a significant amount of apprenticeship of observation hours as students before they start a teaching job, unlike other professionals who start apprenticeship after one enters the profession (Lortie, 1975). Teachers' cognition is developed based on what they observed from the audience side of teaching, as students (Borg, 2004; Lortie, 1975). Belief conceptualization can start as early as before one enters into the school system by observing adults and older siblings' beliefs about teaching and learning as it is projected through play. Even at the age of eight, one develops her own image of education, as Van Fleet's observation of his niece, and resistance to changing the beliefs later in adult life can also be observed (Van Fleet, 1979, as cited in Pajares, 1992). The teachers from other countries may experience negotiation between U.S. education culture and their classroom practice and cognition about education that was developed based on education of their home countries (Florence, 2011; Zhang & Liu, 2013). Regardless of places where a teacher was educated, researchers in the mainstream education field have found that personal schooling

experience as a learner had the most influence on how one perceived what effective teaching and learning were, among the four factors of Borg's framework (Borg, 2006; Florence, 2011; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Klein, 2004; Lortie, 1975; Martinez, 2011; Pajares, 1992).

Some researchers in the Second/Foreign language education field share the same conclusion. The researchers believed that cognition about teaching was already developed based on the teachers' own schooling experiences before they started their professional career path of foreign language instructors (Borg, 2006; Farrell, 1999; Ferro, 2014; Kissau, Algozzine, and Yon, 2012; Klein, 2004; Lin, 2011; Martinez, 2011). For instance, interviews of first year graduate teaching assistants (TAs) of foreign language departments in Martinez (2011) revealed that the TAs were able to articulate their beliefs about effective foreign language teaching and they were consistent with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Along with other factors, their former teachers, as role models, affected their cognition. Their prior experiences created ineffective teacher images that they did not want to emulate, in addition to effective teacher images. The TAs' interviews revealed that their prior schooling had more influence on the beliefs about effective and ineffective teaching in general than foreign language teaching approaches and methods.

Furthermore, subject-specific beliefs can be shaped by prior schooling experience. Farrell (1999) asked pre-service teachers of English pursuing their Bachelor's degrees to write reflective journals in terms of foreign language teaching approaches and methods. In their journals, their initial beliefs about effective grammar teaching were heavily based on their own English language learning experiences in school (deductive vs. inductive).

Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) instructors in Lin (2011), who went through schooling in China, had similar English language learning experiences with some of the pre-service teachers in Singapore (Farrell, 1999). The CFL teachers were taught mainly via a deductive grammar-translation approach in a teacher-centered classroom. They had both positive and negative attitudes toward their own English language learning experiences in China, and their experiences shaped their initial beliefs about effective and ineffective teaching and their focus of classroom practice.

In-class activity decision-making was affected by both positive and negative experiences of English language learning. For example, one pre-service teacher in Farrell (1999) was dissatisfied with deductive grammar learning experience even though the class helped him pass the competitive English exam. He reflected that his English class was boring. Eventually he hated grammar learning. He believed that inductive grammar teaching is more beneficial based on his experience along with course readings. However, he was willing to incorporate both inductive and deductive grammar teaching methods in his classroom.

On the other hand, some teachers emulated the teaching approaches and methods that they had positive experiences with or beliefs about. Novice teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) in Numrich (1996) replicated teaching approaches and methods with which they had positive learning experiences only. The ESL teachers' diary assignments showed that their experience with explicit grammar instruction was neither useful nor engaging. They also believed error correction was ineffective because it prevented them from in-class participation. Due to this negative perception towards

explicit grammar teaching and error correction, the teachers frequently rejected the methods in their classroom.

Similar results were observed from Kissau, Algozzine, and Yon (2012). A group of K-12 foreign language teachers were surveyed and interviewed. The survey results showed that they only emulated teaching approaches and methodologies that they had positive experiences with as learners and they tried to shy away from error-correction in class. The survey participants shared very similar beliefs towards effective foreign language teaching, but interviews revealed teaching experience played a part to exhibit different views on grammar teaching. More experienced teachers emphasized grammar more than novice teachers. The novice teachers thought too much focus on grammar impeded proficiency. The authors concluded that these differences of beliefs were derived from those teachers' personal schooling experiences as well as their professional coursework. Teachers' initial cognition shaped by earlier schooling experience can be reshaped.

Not only did the schooling experience in China affect the CFL teachers' belief development, but also the education system in the US and other factors did (Lin, 2011). Regardless of years of experience, the CFL instructors were constantly negotiating with their personal schooling experience in China and contextual factors of their current US classrooms to reshape or re-define their beliefs about effective and ineffective language teaching (Florence, 2011; Lin, 2011). The instructors learned that their students' purpose for learning a foreign language was different than the purpose for their own when they studied a foreign language in China. Acknowledging their students' different purposes changed the teachers' beliefs about effective foreign language teaching and classroom

practice to more standard-based and learner-centered (Ferro, 2014). Their reshaped cognition about effective teaching approaches reflected what the teachers perceived to be positive English learning experience.

In sum, before they enter into the foreign language instructor profession, teachers have developed teacher cognition about general pedagogy (Martinez, 2011) and about foreign language education (Farrell, 1999) based on their prior personal schooling experience. These affect what they believe to be effective in language teaching. Some practice only the approaches and methods they had positive experiences with as learners (Numrich, 1996), but others acknowledge their personal experience should not limit exploring what is effective for the class and are open to adapt different approaches and methods from those that they had positive experience with (Farrell, 1999; Lin, 2011). Beliefs about effective language teaching can be different based on generation due to the dominant approaches and methods during the time the teachers were educated as students (Kissau et al., 2012). Teachers constantly negotiate their initial beliefs about language teaching and classroom practice and reshape their cognition as they acquire insights from professional coursework (Kissau et al., 2012) and contextual factors (Ferro, 2014; Lin, 2011).

2.3.2.2 Professional coursework

There are two types of studies about the impact of professional coursework on teacher cognition. First, there are studies that investigate direct changes. These studies often ask about teachers' beliefs directly via survey, for example, Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). Second, there are studies that indirectly document teaching practice change. These studies document teaching practice changes.

Changes in teaching practice do not necessarily guarantee cognition change and vice versa (Borg, 2013). However, teacher cognition plays an important role in implementing the approach or method in class, especially when a certain teaching approach or method is not required by the department or school and when teachers have autonomy in selecting teaching approaches and methods. Therefore, I included both studies measuring cognition changes directly and indirectly to best understand the effect of professional coursework on cognition.

A review of the literature revealed mixed results of professional education's effect on language teacher cognition. Borg and other scholars argued that personal schooling experience had much stronger impact than teacher education on shaping teaching cognition (Borg, 2004, 2006; Numrich, 1996; Pajares, 1992), and it far outweighed the effects of this education (Lortie, 1975). Borg's (2006) framework resonated with this idea and noted the weak effect of professional coursework, although it acknowledged that professional coursework has impact on this pre-established cognition when it is overtly reflected upon. Both experienced and less experienced teacher groups showed little effect of professional education. Bell (2005) surveyed 457 foreign language instructors at the college level. The majority of the survey participants (73%) had over 10 years of teaching experience. They held membership of American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and received professional training. The survey results revealed that professional membership and training were not very successful at reshaping the experienced foreign language teachers' beliefs on effective language teaching approaches or methods on certain areas, including error correction, grammar teaching, and individual learner differences. Similar results were found in Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, and

Thwaite (2001). The authors interviewed and observed 10 experienced ESL teachers in Australia. The teachers' classroom practices reflected their deeply held principles, those that were developed earlier in their lives, more consistently than those acquired more recently. The authors argued that teaching experience fostered the internalization of the former principles. These studies support the claims that professional coursework has lesser effects on language teacher cognition than prior schooling experience.

Similarly, little effect of teacher education on reshaping beliefs, thus leading no or little changes in classroom practices, was also observed from novice and pre-service teachers. Richards and Pennington (1998) followed five beginning teachers in Hong Kong. The novice teachers graduated from a Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree program focusing on and promoting CLT approach. However, within a year, the teachers reverted to teacher-centered teaching and exam preparation that were the same as the ways the teachers were educated in a typical teaching approach of the Hong Kong education system. In addition, Peacock (2001) found that the three-year BA Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) program had very little effect on changing detrimental beliefs of the students. The pre-service teachers in the program believed that learning a foreign language is mainly learning extensive vocabulary and grammar and that a multilingual person is more intelligent than a monolingual person, which are different from experienced teachers' beliefs. The students' beliefs were measured at the end of every year, but there was very little change over the course of the program. The above selected studies showed evidence that professional education had an insignificant effect on shaping teacher cognition of effective teaching approaches and methods, regardless of how many years of teaching experience a teacher had.

On the contrary to the above studies, researchers have found positive effect of teacher education, including short-term training and professional development, on redesigning pre-established teacher cognition, developed based on teachers' personal schooling experience. Unlike novice teachers in Richards and Pennington (1998) and Peacock (2001), teacher education had impact on some teachers' beliefs about effective foreign language teaching, and informed teachers' preferred teaching approaches and methods (Johnson, 1992; Kissau et al., 2012; Zhang & Liu, 2013). The teachers followed the approaches and methods that were prominent at the time of their teacher education. Johnson's survey revealed that teachers who began teaching ESL about an average of 14 years ago, when skill-based approaches were dominant, reported that their theoretical beliefs were in line with skill-based approaches; and that the teachers who started 5 to 10 years later reported that their theoretical beliefs were in favor of rule-based and/or function-based approaches. There is a great possibility that the later teacher group was at the student end when the former group started to teach, based on the years they entered the foreign language teaching profession. Then, their initial cognition was developed based on the skill-based approaches as they received instruction in school. However, their professional coursework, which was rule-based and/or function-based approaches, had greater impact on their beliefs about effective foreign language teaching than apprenticeship of observation. Similar to the teachers in Johnson (1992), older generation English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors in Zhang and Liu (2013) practiced audiolingual methods, whereas younger generation EFL instructors preferred constructivist approaches that the curriculum reform pursued.

In addition to long-term teacher education programs, short-term professional development opportunities helped redesigning pre-established teacher cognition, leading to changes in classroom practice (Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Lam, 2000; Lee, 2011; Moore, 1996; Saydee, 2014). Moore (1996) randomly selected 210 foreign language teachers in upstate New York and conducted a survey to examine how culture was taught in high school foreign language classes. According to the survey results, the teachers included more cultural activities after training. In addition, the teaching techniques were different depending on whether they had professional training on culture teaching. Moore grouped these techniques into two categories, A and B. Category A included strategies that focused on the cultural artifacts and practices only; whereas Category B strategies fostered the discussion of the relationship among products, practices, and perspectives (p. 277). For example, reading a culture section in a textbook is a type of category A teaching methods; and ethnographic projects includes category B teaching method. Eighty percent of those who had gone through training implemented category B teaching strategies. In contrast, only thirty-five percent of the teachers who did not have training integrated category B teaching techniques. Moore concluded that lack of training was one of the reasons why many teachers implemented more passive techniques (category A) only.

Lee (2011) also showed changes in beliefs and in-classroom practices after a teacher education course. One teacher in particular testified that she became a writing teacher from “a vending machine” after taking a teacher education course (p. 6). The teacher used to provide feedback as an end product when her students submitted writing at a Hong Kong secondary school, an approach she considered vending machine-like. She

began complementing summative teacher feedback with other forms of input after the teacher education course. She not only included peer feedback and genre approaches in her classroom activities, but also was considering restructuring her syllabus to include more genre pedagogy and peer feedback in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. In addition, LCTL teachers in Saydee (2014) shared that they had a positive experience with teacher training and were able to think of ways to implement the learned teaching approaches and methods. One teacher explicitly mentioned that she recognized the effectiveness of technology in foreign language teaching after a workshop on a software. The studies yielded positive effects of professional education and shed light on the conditions professional education to be more effective.

In line with Borg's (2003, 2006) recognition of the need for explicit acknowledgement, studies have shown that certain conditions need to be met for professional coursework to have more impact on teacher cognition and thus to maximize benefits. First, teachers' background and their initial cognition about effective foreign language teaching and learning should be considered (Freeman, 1989). Second, teacher training programs need to be language-specific in their design (Saydee, 2014). Third, professional education should include practical courses. The teachers interviewed by Lee (2011) and Saydee (2014) echoed the need for such a practical dimension. Specifically, they wanted to see more modelling and practical examples of target approach and method implementation. Their reflection thus accorded with the suggestions made by Lam (2000). Fourth, professional education should aim to help teachers understand the pedagogical benefits of teaching approaches explicitly (ACTFL, 2012). Saydee (2014) also found that in-service instructors felt that the benefit of the target approaches and

methods of teacher training was not always clear to them. They believed explicit explanation would help them understand and integrate the target approaches and methods more in class. LCTL-specific professional education would help to address the lack of professional development and training opportunities identified by the abovementioned researchers and teachers of LCTLs (Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Lam, 2000; Lee, 2011; Moore, 1996; Saydee, 2014; Stenson et al, 1998). In turn, it would help to improve the current status of LCTL programs.

In summary, research shows mixed results regarding the effect of professional coursework. Borg (2006) claimed that professional coursework has a limited impact especially when it is unacknowledged. However, it remains unclear whether the ineffectiveness of professional coursework can be attributed to a lack of recognition, as Borg (2006) argues (Bell, 2005; Breen et al., 2001; Peacock, 2001; Richards & Pennington, 1998). In addition, as mentioned earlier, one cannot conclude a change in cognition has occurred solely on the basis of changes in teaching practice. Contextual factors should be considered to form a complete picture that shows how language teacher cognition interrelates with all the four factors (Schooling, Professional Coursework, Contextual Factors, and Classroom Practice).

2.3.2.3 Contextual factors

Foreign language teacher cognition research has examined how foreign language teachers' in-classroom practice is affected by their beliefs regarding approaches and methodologies (e.g. CLT), certain topics or areas (e.g. grammar, listening, culture, and writing), and teaching and learning in general. A considerable number of studies suggest that contextual factors mediate cognitions and practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003;

Choi, 1999; Crooks & Arakaki, 1999; Freeman, 2002; Pajares, 1992; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015; Saydee, 2014; Woods, 1996; Zacharias, 2005; Zhang & Liu, 2013). For example, working with 613 foreign language teachers, Allen (2002) found that the teachers' beliefs were impacted by various factors such as urban versus rural locations, membership in professional organizations, private versus public schools, highest degree earned, and teaching load. Some studies rely on survey or interview responses to reveal how context directly shapes beliefs. Other studies discuss the impact of contextual factors in relation to teaching practice (consistent or inconsistent with teachers' beliefs). In the following section, both groups of studies are reviewed.

Several studies have shown how teachers' cognition is affected directly by the context in which they teach. In Zacharias (2005), English teachers in Indonesia preferred internationally produced materials and believed the materials benefit students more than locally published materials. The interviews revealed that its availability played a significant role on teachers' beliefs and their use of the textbook in the classroom. Rivera Cuayahuitl and Perez Carranza's (2015) interviews indicated that, regardless of years of experience, English teachers in Mexico believed that the textbook is essential as it will help students prepare for the centrally designed tests. High stakes examination also plays a great role in shaping EFL instructors' beliefs in Asian countries (Choi, 1999; Graham et al., 2014; Zhang & Liu, 2013). Additionally, Crooks and Arakaki (1999) reported that difficult working conditions (heavy teaching load) shaped a teacher's behaviors. The teacher Crooks and Arakaki interviewed shared that rushing from one class to another hindered the development of well-thought-out lesson plans based on current theories in the field. Crusan, Plakans, and Gebril (2016) also found that teachers who had heavier

teaching load than others held more negative attitudes towards writing assessment. Lee (2011) reported how one teacher professed that five courses per semester made her fall back on what she described as a “vending machine” practice. These studies thus demonstrated the impact of context on beliefs drawing from interviews and text survey responses. Researchers further investigated the influence of contextual factors via multimodal studies integrating survey, interview, and observation methods. These studies found that cognition and practice could but did not necessarily align. While some studies found that teachers’ beliefs were consistent with their teaching, other studies showed tensions between teachers’ beliefs and classroom practice due to certain contextual constraints.

The consistent studies found that teachers were able to articulate what they saw as effective teaching and learning and their practice reflected their beliefs. Johnson (1992) asked ESL teachers to choose statements that were in line with their beliefs. The survey results showed that the majority of ESL teachers could identify their beliefs clearly using statements related to different teaching approaches. The selected items consistently aligned with a particular teaching approach. The teachers identified teaching techniques that were prevalent at the moment when they entered the profession, a result that may be attributed to professional education but that may also have to do with other contextual factors such as the influence of teaching approach trends in the profession as well as observation of colleagues’ practice. Consistencies between cognition and practice were observed outside of the U.S. context as well. It was found that primary school English teachers in Singapore followed their beliefs about effective grammar teaching and effective error correction methods (Farrell & Kun, 2008; Farrell & Lim, 2005). Like the

teachers in Johnson's study, the English teachers in Singapore also had clear ideas about their pedagogical beliefs and were able to adequately express them. The above studies thus identified the ability to clearly articulate beliefs as one condition that allowed congruency between instructors' cognition and their teaching practices.

However, merely being able to articulate their own beliefs is not sufficient to enable teachers to put their beliefs into practice during in-class instruction. For instance, Kumaravadivelu (1993) found that the ability to express beliefs did not guarantee the accordance between beliefs and practice. Working with experienced English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in Turkey, Phipps and Borg (2009) also noted that the teachers' practice was not consistent with their stated beliefs about effective grammar teaching, even though the teachers were able to articulate their beliefs clearly. The cause of this kind of incongruence between beliefs and practice can be found in the context in which instructors teach. The most commonly addressed contextual factors in the relevant studies were time constraints (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Graham, et al., 2014; Lam, 2005; Lee, 2011; Moore, 1996; Phipps & Borg, 2009); prescribed curriculum (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Saydee, 2014); a lack of teacher training (Graham, et al., 2014; Kumaravadivelu, 1993, Lee, 2011; Moore, 1996); a lack of support from administration (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Lam, 2000; Lee, 2011; Tsui, 1996); student factors (Ferro, 2014; Graden, 1996; Lam, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Saydee, 2014; Tsui, 1996); a lack of teaching tools aligned with teachers' beliefs (Graden, 1996; Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Lam, 2000; Moore, 1996); and other external factors such as high stake exams (Lee, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015). These factors were found to be influential

regardless of language, region, and educational level, and across various topics, ranging from grammar teaching and CLT to culture teaching. Typically, multiple factors acted as constraints simultaneously.

Time constraints can be divided into two categories: lack of in-class time and lack of preparation time. In-class time constraints are related to prescribed curriculum (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Moore, 1996; Saydee, 2014), whereas a lack of preparation time is related to the teaching tools that facilitate the teachers' beliefs (Graden, 1996; Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Lam, 2000; Moore, 1996). Due to the prescribed curriculum, teachers in several studies were required to teach assigned chapters within the allotted time. This hindered teachers' implementation of lesson plans or activities reflecting their beliefs. For instance, the experienced EFL teachers in Farrell and Lim (2005) shared that many of their instructional decisions were made after considering the time it would take to complete an activity, so that they did not fall behind on the curriculum. As a result, they integrated activities that were not in line with their beliefs about grammar teaching (i.e. regarding implicit vs. explicit instruction). Such instructional decisions that were made due to limited in-class time and a prescribed curriculum led to foreign language teachers' dissatisfaction with their teaching approaches (Graham et al., 2014). The teachers also mentioned that it took more time to prepare activities that reflect their beliefs than to utilize textbook listening activities. This was felt to be true particularly for teaching approaches and methods that were different from the curriculum and from common practice. Instructors were willing to develop their own materials and activities and design lessons that reflected their beliefs about effective teaching and learning, but they fell back onto the textbook activities due to the time constraints (Crooks & Arakaki, 1999; Crusan,

et al., 2016; Lam, 2000; Moore, 1996; Tsui, 1996). Kumaravadivelu (1993) argued for the need for a teaching activity framework so that teachers could readily apply an approach to their class. Utilizing the framework Kumaravadivelu developed, one teacher's lesson included more CLT-based activities than the other teacher's, even though both teachers firmly believed in CLT and thought their lessons were based on a CLT approach. When teacher training programs focus on in-class implementation of approaches or methods as Kumaravadivelu's CLT teaching framework (1993), they can save teachers' time to prepare materials and activities.

Another reason that instructors in Graham et al. (2014) identified for the discrepancy between beliefs and practice was a lack of expertise in applying current theories. Teacher training opportunities can help teachers to become more knowledgeable about current theories in the field. In addition, teachers can gain expertise to implement alternative methods of listening teaching than practicing current routines. A similar concern was found among foreign language teachers with regard to culture teaching (Moore, 1996). They identified a lack of training as an obstacle to integrating culture in their lessons. Lee (2011) obtained similar responses from her participants, who commented that their lack of professional training was one of the reasons that they were hesitant to integrate innovative feedback pedagogy. They expressed a desire to participate in workshops or trainings on more practical ways of implementing feedback strategies, for example with regard to constructive feedback.

Support from administration was another crucial factor that shaped teachers' use of teaching approaches or methods that were in line with what they believed to be more beneficial to students than the ones currently implemented into the curriculum. Without

school leaders' support, it seems impossible for teachers to implement different approaches and methods according to their beliefs because "teachers are not given the autonomy to try out new ideas but instead have to adhere to principles stipulated" by central education departments (Lee, 2011, p. 7). Studies show mixed experiences with administration support among teachers (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Lam, 2000; Lee, 2011; Tsui, 1996). Lack of support from administration may result from different causes. While one EFL teacher was able to implement process pedagogy with the help of her principal, another teacher was having a hard time to even start a dialogue with principal because he was too busy, even though she was convinced by the effectiveness of new approaches to feedback in writing pedagogy and received supportive evaluation from peers and students (Lee, 2011). In addition, lack of support from administration might originate from lack of understanding of language teaching or stakeholders' personal perception towards language classes, especially when it comes to new technology (Lam, 2000). Moreover, high stake exams and central departments of education made it difficult for teachers to apply their beliefs in a secondary-level classroom. Whenever discrepancies existed between current practices and instructors' beliefs about effective language teaching, changes in the curriculum to reflect teachers' beliefs were less likely to be implemented when there was a required high stake exam, such as entrance exam to a high school or a college (Choi, 1999; Lee, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015).

Furthermore, students play a role in mediating cognition and practice, as students' expectations also drive teachers' pedagogical choices. In some Asian countries such as Singapore (Farrell & Lim, 2005), Hong Kong (Peacock, 2001; Richards & Pennington,

1998), China (Zhang & Liu, 2014), Japan (Woods, 1996), and Korea (Choi, 1999), students expected to develop their linguistic knowledge of English as much as they could within a short period of time in order to achieve a better score on the high stakes test, and test results contributed to their assessment of teachers' performance. Teachers used different approaches and methods than what they perceived as ideal so as to meet their students' expectation. As native speakers of the official languages of the abovementioned countries, the teachers themselves were educated through an examination-focused curriculum. When they became foreign language teachers in other contexts where high stakes examination was not the only focus, such as college-level institutions in the U.S., they needed to adjust their teaching styles to meet their students' expectations, which were different from their own expectations as well as those of the students' in their native countries. The CFL teachers in Ferro (2014) changed their teaching methods and approaches to be more CLT-like after analyzing their students' needs in U.S. tertiary-level settings. Woods (1996) documented the reverse of this adjustment. The teacher in Woods (1996) first relied on CLT approaches in Japan but modified these approaches after recognizing the students' purpose in studying (passing an exam). While these studies document changes in teachers practice, they do not provide a clear answer to the question of whether teachers' cognition about language teaching and learning also changed.

In summary, there are many contextual aspects at play when FL teachers plan and execute their lessons. This can cause incongruence between teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning and what teachers actually do in the classroom. Pertinent contextual factors include but are not limited to time constraints due to prescribed

curricula and a lack of teaching tools, a lack of training opportunities, a lack of administration support, students' expectations, and high-stakes examinations. In order to cope with these constraints, teachers have to adapt and negotiate their beliefs. Over time, these accumulated experiences become another factor that affects instructors' cognition.

2.3.2.4 Classroom practice

As Borg's framework (2006) suggests, cognition and classroom practice have a bidirectional relationship. The influence of classroom teaching experience to teachers' beliefs was found in the literature (Basturkmen, 2012; Breen et al. 2001; Crusan et al., 2016; Duffy & Anderson, 1984; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Junqueira & Kim, 2013). One experienced teacher from Crookes and Arakaki (1999) stated that "as you have more practice, then you know in the classroom what will work and what will not work" (p. 16). The study participants in Borg and Burns (2008), Crookes and Arakaki (1999), and Graham et al. (2014) shared their teaching experiences as basis of their current practices and/or beliefs. Even though dissimilarities between more experienced and less experienced teachers were not always the main focus of the research, studies found differences between the two groups. Less experienced teachers focused more on classroom management and students' affective filters; and more experienced teachers more on student learning outcome and contents. For instance, when five foreign language TAs in Martinez (2011) conveyed their views on what effective teaching means to them, they emphasized importance of creating student-teacher rapport and creating a fun and relaxed classroom environment. Teachers' personalities and attitudes were more important factors to them than methodology, similar to what Bailey et al. (1996) found a decade ago. Novice teachers in Duffy and Anderson (1984) and Farrell and Bennis

(2013) also paid more attention to student factor. Their beliefs were student-centered and they concerned about students' affective filter more than teaching methodology. Their counterpart, more experienced teachers, focused on learning content and student learning outcome more than students' affective filter and classroom management when they articulated their beliefs about teaching and learning. The basis for the pedagogical decisions of the experienced teacher in Farrell and Bennis (2013) concentrated more closely on needs associated with learning outcomes; on the other hand, the less experienced teacher's instructional decision was based on "keeping his students happy" (p.174).

Furthermore, researchers have found differences between novice and veteran teachers in terms of correspondence between espoused theories and theories in use. More experienced teachers' practices were more congruent to their beliefs than novice teachers. In her review of thirteen doctoral dissertations and three journal articles, Basturkmen observed this dissimilarity in past research (Basturkmen, 2012). Farrell and Bennis's (2013) findings support Basturkmen (2012). The authors concluded that "the experienced teacher's classroom practices were more clearly related to his beliefs" (p. 175) after analyzing data gathered from questionnaire, interview, and observation. This observed difference from the literature was partially due to more experienced teachers' tendency of having more beliefs that were based on their teaching experience than less experienced teachers (Basturkmen, 2012). As they have more beliefs informed by their experience, their practice and beliefs are more in line with each other.

In sum, cognition informs pedagogical decision-making and teaching experience can shape cognition in turn. Therefore, teachers may have different beliefs based on the

years of classroom practices. As one accumulates more classroom experiences, he or she acquires more expertise in classroom management and students' affective filter issue, which were the two main observed foci of novice teachers' beliefs. A teacher's beliefs on language teaching become emphasizing more on teaching contents and student learning outcome. Instructors practices become more in line with their beliefs as they redesign their cognition based on their own classroom experience along with previous schooling, professional coursework, and contextual factors.

2.3.3 Teacher cognition and pragmatics instruction

In the field of pragmatics instruction, the study of teachers' beliefs and practice is very limited. The studies focused more on teachers' awareness of the need for pragmatics instruction (Byon, 2004; Ishihara, 2011; Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009). It was also found that foreign language teachers tended to approach pragmatics instruction as grammar lessons by emphasizing linguistic aspects more than contextual and sociocultural understanding. For example, the EFL teachers in Ishihara (2011) viewed sociopragmatics as less important aspects than linguistic formulae before the seminar which was focused on pragmatics teaching and learning. Even though Vasquez and Sharpless (2009) reported that international students in TESOL programs perceived pragmatics teaching as more important than native English speakers do, not all non-native English speakers in the United States have similar beliefs toward pragmatics instruction. KFL teachers in Byon (2004) did not believe that it was necessary to explicitly teach sociopragmatics of honorifics because it was already covered as grammar points in the previous levels. Curriculum focusing on grammar-oriented goal was blamed for the teachers' perception and Byon (2004) suggested changes in teachers' attitudes towards pragmatics as a

starting point to KFL pragmatics instruction development. In addition, Byon (2004) recommended changes in belief of those who are responsible for curriculum design. On a positive side, within foreign language teacher education, students and faculty are gaining awareness of the importance of pragmatics (Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009). When the awareness is combined with professional training focusing on practical implication of pragmatics teaching and learning as it was suggested by the abovementioned literature, it can be expected that in-service instructors acquire expert knowledge to integrate teaching pragmatics under the prevalent contextual constraints.

2.3.4 Summary

Teachers' classroom practice is a complex cognitive behavior derived from the *schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practice*. The literature in the field supports the complexity of how teacher cognition is shaped and reshaped and how it affects classroom practice. Research findings were exhibiting mixed results on which factors are more influential to cognition building. However, general consensus can be drawn. The review of the studies called for a need of carefully crafted professional education to provide teachers opportunities to ponder, articulate, and practice their beliefs about effective language teaching and learning. All four factors (*schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practice*) in addition to cognition of participants should be considered to design a professional training to maximize the benefit. Administration should also be aware of language pedagogy trends and more open and available to teachers to talk about curriculum and plans.

The review of literature revealed that LCTL educators' cognition were lesser known compared to MCTLs, ESL, EFL educators. In addition, some areas of language teaching were well researched such as grammar but studies in the pragmatics field were scarce.

Similar to the language cognition research field, researchers have found that English and Japanese, as for the target languages, and speech acts, as for the pragmatics topic, are predominant in the field of pragmatics instruction research (Bardovi-Harlig, 2010, Byon, 2015; Taguchi, 2015). According to Byon (2015) and Song and Pyun (2011), Korean as a foreign language (KFL) pragmatics literature also focused mainly on speech acts. Therefore, the researchers saw the need for expansion in regard to target languages and target pragmatics topics to better understand pragmatics instruction in general, as well as language-specific and pragmatics topic-specific areas (Byon, 2015; Taguchi, 2015). The following sections review Korean speech styles system and its instruction (an underrepresented language and topic in the field) and the current project's approaches to pragmatics instruction to provide background knowledge to discuss how KFL teachers in this project practiced pragmatics teaching in class and how the instructional units were developed based on the current ideas in the field of pragmatics.

2.4 Korean Speech Styles

2.4.1 Speech styles system

Korean language is known for its developed lexical and morphosyntactic honorifics system. Korean speech styles are part of an honorifics system, along with referent honorifics and address forms. Speech styles, or hearer honorifics, are used to index social distance between interlocutors based on socio-contextual relations such as age, profession, socioeconomic status, and so on, and to set the right tone, appropriate to

the contexts. Within the honorifics system, speech styles are considered most important to native speakers (Yoon, 2010). Marking speech style is unavoidable in every utterance because it is a required utterance-final conjugation. Speech styles are also referred to as speech levels or hearer honorifics. In this project, I primarily use the term *speech styles* rather than *speech levels* or *hearer honorifics* because each style is not hierarchical nor on the single continuum of politeness or formality. Each style indexes not only politeness and/or formality, but also other situational meanings. For example, polite form can be used to express politeness in informal situations but it can also be used to express sarcasm in a certain context when it is addressed to close person with inferior or same social status. Plain form can be used to mark formal setting such as news broadcasting, and it can also be used as informal exclamatory expression. In addition, semiformal and familiar forms tend to fall out of usage in modern Korean society (Brown, 2011; Park, 2012; Song, 2005). If one looks at the speech styles as a continuum of honorific level, there will be only two groups of extreme polite and impolite honorific levels. The term *speech styles* is not without its own criticism. Brown (2011) argues that it can communicate static semantic view of the styles. However, the current project acknowledges that speech styles' nature not only represents honorific/formality levels but also can be used to convey certain pragmatic purposes by flouting the norms and/or by shifting between styles (Brown, 2011; Park, 2012; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yoon, 2010).

There are two groups of thoughts on speech style categorization in KFL setting (Brown, 2011; Jung, 2015). One group views speech style as a linear hierarchy of honorific levels (Choe, 2003, as cited in Jung, 2015; Sohn, 1999). There are 6 different styles: deferential, polite, semiformal (or blunt), familiar, intimate, and plain. The first

two, deferential and polite, are categorized as honorifics and the remaining four, semiformal, familiar, intimate, and plain, are considered non-honorifics. The second group of scholars organizes speech styles using a two-dimensional model with formality and politeness according to the review of Brown (2011) and Jung (2015) as shown in table 2.1. This group of scholars perceived that linear categorization ignores the role of formality of contexts on the speech style choices. Therefore, it makes more sense to include formality as a criterion to reflect actual language usage. Deferential, polite, and semiformal are honorifics; familiar, intimate, and plain are non-honorifics. Deferential, semiformal, familiar, and plain are categorized as formal, and polite and intimate are considered informal styles. Each speech style has two features. For example, deferential style is formal honorific, and polite style is informal honorific. The combination of the two groups are commonly found in classroom practice of KFL setting (Cho, Lee, Schulz, Sohn, H., & Sohn, S, 2009). Labels of speech styles from the linear model are used to refer to the styles and style usage is explained with consideration of formality and honorific social distance in classroom.

Table 2.1 Korean Speech Styles—Two-dimensional Model

Formality	Honorific	Non-honorific
Formal	Deferential Semiformal	Familiar Plain
Informal	Polite	Intimate

Although researchers tried to draw clear lines between the speech styles, the linear continuum and the categorization from the two-dimensional model become blurred in actual language use. Mixture of speech styles can be observed without difficulty

(Chang, 2014; Jung, 2015; Park, 2012; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yoon, 2010). More than one speech style can be used toward the same addressee within the same context. This purposeful choice, with or without metalinguistic awareness, of speech styles can serve specific pragmatic purpose because various combinations of honorifics system “emphasize or reduce a speaker’s honorific attitude in a finely tuned way” (Yoon, 2010, p.25). The speech style shifting can occur in various settings from teachers in a classroom (Park, 2012), to TV shows and commercials (Byon, 2007; Jung, 2015; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yoon, 2010), to interviews (Chang, 2014), to naturally occurring conversations (Strauss & Eun, 2005).

Furthermore, the criteria for the speech style choices and purpose of using a particular speech style are not static. Age difference is often referred to as the criterion as an easier way to explain the concept. It is true, but it was observed that age is not an absolute marker for the speech style choice. Chang (2014) found that profession played a greater role than age after analyzing 40 hours of the institutional dialogical interviews. She also found that gender and hometown did not affect the speech style choice significantly. Rather than the static socio-contextual relations, given situation and intention of the speaker had the most influence on the speech style choice. She argued that deferential style was used to mark the interviewees’ epistemic stance and polite style was used to mark their affective stance and personability to the interviewer. Son, Lee, and Jo (2003, as cited in Jung, 2015) also documented that speech level choice was a highly conscious process to serve specific goals. Their participants made choices based on whether they want to display “1) respect for addressees’ status, favor compensation, favor guidance, and adjustment of psychological distance, 2) resolving disagreement

among age, title, and seniority, 3) displaying authority and management of situation changes (p. 17).”

Yoon (2010) echoed this dynamic view of criteria and argument that people use honorifics and speech styles creatively and actively to express various social meanings. After analyzing four different television program genres, he proposed to replace formality criterion to interaction style to categorize speech style. His analysis yielded that speech style choices were function-driven (interactional vs. non-interactional), rather than based on static social status differences and formality. He also used distance as another criterion and summarized his findings in a two-dimensional model. In his summary, polite form is considered interactional and distant from the addressee. The opposite can be found in Strauss and Eun (2005) and Byon (2003), where the authors conclude that polite form marks closeness between addressees, after their analysis of television shows, commercial films, and naturally occurring conversations. Moreover, KFL learners are autonomous language users and their speech style usage might not conform with the already complicated speech style usage norm of native speakers to serve their own specific purposes (Brown, 2011). Brown’s (2011) finding resonates the goal of pragmatics teaching, that is not to merely emulate native speakers’ norms, but to achieve optimal norms while actively creating the students’ own identities in the process (Kasper, 1997; Siegal, 1996). The researchers’ findings suggest that, to appropriately use speech styles, or to use speech style purposefully, there are more factors to consider than static criteria such as age and the social conventions, which textbooks and classroom instruction rely on.

2.4.2 Speech styles in KFL textbooks

Although researchers have constantly challenged presentation of speech styles in a textbook (Brown, 2010; Choo, 1999; Yoon, 2010), there is limited research focusing on pedagogy of speech styles in the field of KFL pragmatics (Brown, 2013; Byon, 2007). Byon (2007) and Brown (2013) used multimedia to provide authentic language input and to show more contextual information on speech style decisions. In their materials, two or more different speech styles were used alternatively, unlike textbook usage of speech style. In 2007, Byon proposed consciousness-raising Discourse Completion Task (DCT) activities for teaching and learning sociopragmatics of speech styles. The DCT activities allow students to think about their choices between two speech styles, polite form and deferential style, and make informed choices. The paper provides both inductive and deductive methods. These activities give opportunities to students to make autonomous choices based on what they believe to be appropriate according to the context. However, the deductive method activity can be another resemblance to passive workbook exercise even though it uses genuine language samples because most activities allow teachers to provide contextual information rather than students themselves actively locating contextual information and social distances between speakers.

Brown (2013) adapted inductive methods from Byon (2007) and designed consciousness-raising activities with a short extract from a Korean TV drama series to teach sociopragmatics of honorific and non-honorific speech styles in an intermediate-level Korean language class. Students first discussed contextual information, where conversations were taking place, then focused on speech style usage. This allowed students to have enough time to establish contextual factors that affect speech style

choices so that students could be active agents in making meanings from different speech style usage. Both studies implemented explicit inductive consciousness-raising activities with genuine language samples for intermediate and advanced level KFL learners. They showed that explicit consciousness-raising activity is a viable option to teach sociopragmatics of both honorific and non-honorific speech styles.

2.4.3 Speech styles instruction in KFL

Although researchers have constantly challenged presentation of speech styles in a textbook (Brown, 2010; Choo, 1999; Yoon, 2010), there is limited research focusing on pedagogy of speech styles in the field of KFL pragmatics (Brown, 2013; Byon, 2007). Byon (2007) and Brown (2013) used multimedia to provide authentic language input and to show more contextual information on speech style decisions. In their materials, two or more different speech styles were used alternatively, unlike textbook usage of speech style. In 2007, Byon proposed consciousness-raising Discourse Completion Task (DCT) activities for teaching and learning sociopragmatics of speech styles. The DCT activities allow students to think about their choices between two speech styles, polite form and deferential style, and make informed choices. The paper provides both inductive and deductive methods. These activities give opportunities to students to make autonomous choices based on what they believe to be appropriate according to the context. However, the deductive method activity can be another resemblance to passive workbook exercise even though it uses genuine language samples because most activities allow teachers to provide contextual information rather than students themselves actively locating contextual information and social distances between speakers.

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2.4.4 Summary

In summary, speech styles index not only static socio-contextual cues, such as age and profession, but also various social meanings. Based on textbook analyses of speech styles, it seems that textbook developers and researchers tend to oversimplify the criteria of speech style choices and the usage of speech styles. However, studies looking at real-life conversations have found that this is not the case. Instead, speech style decisions are made to serve specific purposes and they are based on the speakers' intentions. Also, a shift in speech styles was frequently observed. Contradictory to the findings from the natural conversations among Korean native speakers, textbook and classroom instruction tend to provide a rigid view of speech styles and tend not to provide enough opportunities to practice speech styles. Information dissemination through texts was the main method of teaching. Byon (2007) and Brown (2013) suggested to view speech styles as pragmatic

elements and implement pragmatic consciousness-raising (PCR) activities to teach speech styles. In the following section, PCR and Multiliteracies pedagogy framework are reviewed.

2.5 Pragmatics Instruction

Researchers in the field of pragmatics have also been influenced by socialization theories of Ochs and Vygotskian sociocultural theory, which view language learning not only as a cognitive process but also as socially constructed activity which requires consideration of contexts (Brown, 2011; Fagan, 2013). The classic bifurcation, pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983), is commonly used in literature to explain pragmatics regardless whether researchers take sociocultural theoretical framework or not. The cognitive process of linguistic knowledge is referred to as pragmalinguistics. According to Kasper, pragmalinguistics “includes strategies like directness and indirectness, routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts (1997, p.1).” Sociopragmatics is the “social perceptions underlying participants’ interpretation and performance of communicative action” (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p.2). Compernelle (2014) explained the relationship between these two concepts as “sociopragmatic knowledge mediates the choices speakers make in implementing the available pragmalinguistic resources in the accomplishment of social action (p.3).” Many scholars in the foreign language teaching and learning fields have acknowledged the importance of pragmatic competence as an important aspect comprising communicative competence (Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980). As pragmatic competence gained attention from researchers in the field of foreign language teaching and learning, its teachability and effective teaching methods were investigated

(Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Byon, 2015; House, 1996; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001). It has been documented that pragmatic competence can be fostered through instruction. Explicit inductive teaching methods, including pragmatic consciousness-raising (PCR) activities, seem to yield positive results on learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Narita, 2009; 2012; Pearson, 2001; Rose, 1994; 1999; Schmidt, 1993; Taguchi, 2015).

2.5.1 Pragmatic consciousness-raising (PCR) activities

The need for the pragmatics instruction has been promoted by researchers because exposure to target pragmatic features for a long period of time alone does not guarantee awareness nor acquisition of these features (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002). Especially for the learners of a foreign language, traditional foreign language classrooms provide little opportunity to be exposed to authentic target pragmatic input within the community of the native speakers of the foreign language. Therefore, it is difficult for foreign language learners to acquire the target pragmatic features by themselves without teachers' guidance. Rose (1994, 1999) proposed pragmatic consciousness-raising (PCR) activities to remedy some of the disadvantages of being in a foreign language classroom when it comes to pragmatics learning.

Korean speech styles are more onerous to acquire than performing other pragmatic features that KFL students can transfer from their native language (L1) or universal pragmatics knowledge because of the previously mentioned reasons. PCR can be used to teach speech style because PCR is not bound to teaching specific speech acts, but “to sensitize learners to context-based variation in language use and the variables that

help determine that variation” (Rose, 1994, p.57) and “lead to an increased awareness of how language use is shaped by social context (p59).” PCR can be an effective method to explicitly teach speech styles, because they are extremely context-dependent. PCR could be a useful method to include sensitivity to the nuances of speech styles that need consideration of whether the contextual factors involve static sociocultural aspects, like age or profession, or personal intentions and purposes that do not follow the usage norms of the chosen speech style.

PCR is based on the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993; 2001) and consciousness raising (Smith, 1993). Consciousness raising refers to an intentional focus on the properties of language to enhance second language learning. Input enhancement is encouraged to make target language features more salient (Smith, 1993). Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis also emphasizes focused attention to target language features for learning to occur (Schmidt, 1993; 2001). Noticing hypothesis and consciousness raising argue that learning cannot happen without awareness. In other words, foreign language teachers should make target pragmatic features more salient, so that students can notice and understand the features.

PCR draws students’ attention to target pragmatic features via an explicit, inductive approach, which provides effective conditions for pragmatics learning that scholars have identified (House, 1996; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001). Implementing PCR activities in lessons involves students conducting their own analysis of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics with guidance from teachers, followed by generalization of their findings about target pragmatic features. PCR activities include

students' own data collection from authentic materials and examples, discussion about target pragmatic features, and students' own L1 and foreign language analysis (Rose, 1999). Explicit metapragmatic discussion and instruction, comparison between L1 and foreign language, and student discovery had been implemented as PCR techniques in other studies (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Kondo, 2008; Kubota, 1995; Fukuya & Martinez-Flor, 2006; Narita, 2012; Pearson, 2001; Takimoto, 2006, 2012; Vellenga, 2004).

PCR focuses on developing explicit knowledge of pragmatic features through an inductive approach. Whereas explicit nature of PCR was documented by many researchers to be beneficial for pragmatic competence development in a foreign language learning environment (House, 1996; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001), some scholars raised concerns about inductive method to teach pragmatics. Rose and Ng (2001) argued that the inductive method did not make the target pragmatic features salient enough to teach sociopragmatics aspect. The authors claimed that inductive instruction had a negative impact on students' sociopragmatic development because of unclear explanation.

However, this claimed shortcoming can be overcome by other PCR techniques such as metapragmatic discussion. In Takimoto (2012), English request downgraders, such as "I wonder if..." and "I would appreciate it if...", were taught via two different treatment groups: problem-solving tasks with and without metapragmatic discussion. The results showed that metapragmatic discussion was effective for teaching and learning of sociopragmatics in addition to more engaged learning, leading to better internalization of the target pragmatic features, than the other group. This finding resonates in the results of

Narita (2012), documenting the benefit of PCR in retention of learned pragmatic features. Narita conducted an interventional study on teaching hearsay evidential markers to Japanese as a Foreign Language learners. She formed two groups: one with PCR activities and one as a control group. The PCR treatment group was engaged in L1 and Japanese comparison using metalanguage. The treatment group showed better performance than the control group in both immediate and delayed posttests. In addition, Pearson (2001) found out that metapragmatic discussion treatment group demonstrated a higher level of pragmatic competence compared to the other two groups (deductive metapragmatic instruction group and control group) in learning speech acts in Spanish as a Foreign Language classroom. The interventional studies, investigating the efficacy of metapragmatic discussion activities, have shown that metapragmatic discussion yielded positive results across the board, both in foreign language and second language settings. The topics include various speech acts (Bardovi-Harlig & Griffin, 2005; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Martinez-Flor & Soler, 2007; Mwinyelle, 2005; Pearson, 2001; Takimoto, 2006, 2012), evidential hearsay markers (Narita, 2009, 2012), and speech styles (Brown, 2013; Byon, 2007).

Students perform active roles during PCR activities. PCR acknowledges the benefit of students' agency in their own learning by supporting discussion and inductive methods (Rose, 1994; 1999). PCR treats students as competent language users and incorporates their L1 knowledge as a starting point for investigating target language features. These techniques encourage students to foster analytic skills that the students can transfer to other academic studies and in their lives as MLA ad hoc committee proposal for foreign language classes to pursue (2007). However, it is not clear what the

sociopragmatic feature discussions entailed and how the discussion activities were organized in the abovementioned studies and other interventional studies implementing PCR activities. The focus might be on highlighting static socio-contextual aspects, prescriptive conditions, and formulae explanation without providing students chances to develop analytic skills and symbolic competence. Especially when the instructors did not have schooling experience with the approach, they need more guidance to execute the methods (Brown, Iwasaki, & Lee, 2016). Compernelle (2014) also argued that L2 pragmatics instruction often overlooks the students' agentive role as language users that is being able to decide to follow or not to follow conventions based on their analysis of social contexts.

2.5.2 Multiliteracies pedagogy framework

Critical analysis of social context and analysis of language as a meaning unit rather than static grammar point is important for pragmatic competence. In addition, autonomy of students during the process of pragmatic learning is emphasized in the literature (Compernelle, 2014; Narita, 2009; Pearson, 2001, 2006; Rose, 1999). Learners should be aware that pragmatic features are more than linguistic aspects to maximize pragmatics learning. Moreover, students need to acknowledge that various factors are integrated to make appropriate and informed choices of foreign language pragmatic features. In order to create these learning conditions, educators need a pedagogy that values the idea that language does not work at the linguistic level alone, but it works with other modes of meanings to communicate more effectively. One such pedagogy is multiliteracies pedagogy. A pedagogy of multiliteracies argues, "when learners juxtapose different languages, discourses, styles, and approaches they gain substantively in

metacognitive and metalinguistic abilities, and in their ability to reflect critically on complex systems and their interactions” (The New London Group, 1996, p. 69); and it accounts for the multimodality and importance of contexts. New London Group (1996) proposed that language learning in general, in addition to teaching pragmatics, should account for the relationship between languages and the surrounding world, thus developing symbolic and multimodal competence and helping students to perceive literacy more broadly. It is important to go beyond static socio-contextual aspect and formulae memorization to be able to use speech styles competently. The multiliteracies framework could benefit the students by helping them foster critical analytic skills.

When it comes to the field of foreign language instruction, there is a discrepancy between theory and classroom practice. It is undeniable that audio-lingual and grammar translation-based approaches are still widely used in assessment and despite the fact that pedagogical theories have evolved away from such assessment methods. Not only students, but also instructors, of foreign language tend to perceive literacy as a separate skill from reading and writing, where there is a need to master lexical items and syntactic knowledge. This idea contradicts shifting perspectives on literacy in the field and what is seen as the required skill set a student needs to have in the 21st century. Johnson and Kress (2003) also argued that the narrow definition of legitimate literacy practice has an effect on the way curricula is designed and the way in-class practice activities are carried out. The corollary of this is that a narrow concept of literacy creates an unbalanced view of what literacy is for students who live in a complex and digitalized society. This in turn prevents students from developing perspectives for becoming global citizens. Hence, a

multiliteracies framework (Kern, 2000; New London Group, 1996) is worthwhile to be taken into consideration in today's foreign language classroom.

The development of a multiliteracies framework expanded our understanding of literacy beyond mere coding and decoding linguistic codes (New London Group, 1996). Literacy should include “negotiating a multiplicity of discourses” (1996, p. 61). In other words, we need to value the diversity of contexts around us in regards to language and culture and this needs to be done in an interconnected way between the local and international spheres. The framework opened up the span of symbolic systems. It did not limit communicative resources to linguistic mode and it included various dimensions, such as visual and audio, as modes that people use to create meaning. New London Group also proposed that various dimensions of different modes work together to create meaning in a particular way that a society and culture allow. That is, modes that are engaged in a meaning-making process carry the meanings specific to their contexts. New London Group introduced *design* to refer to semiotic activity. The process of *design* requires *an available design*, which is a resource to create meaning. It can include vocabulary, grammar, knowledge of the genre, or other *available designs*. The process goes as such so that *available designs* work to make intended meaning. Then, the product is *redesigned* and then carries its own reformulated meaning.

The multiliteracies framework involves four curricular components: *Situated Practice*, *Overt Instruction*, *Critical Framing*, and *Transformed Practice*. *Situated Practice* allows students constant exposures to an immersive learning experience involving meaningful practices where experts, or instructors, guide the community of learners. An immersion experience means that students are exposed to the authentic use

of language. Also, the various types of knowledge, experiences, interests and background information that students bring into the classroom can contribute to the immersive experiences as additional resources, or designs, that comprise an immersive setting. Explicit metalanguage use occurs during *Overt Instruction* with scaffolding. For example, students are able to identify the underlying pattern in a certain element of linguistic design through discussion on how the element works and how the linguistic features shape or are shaped by other available designs. By doing so, students would have the opportunity to perceive language as one of the modes that makes meaning by working closely with other modes in a certain context.

Critical Framing allows students to critically reflect on what they already know. Students put themselves in a place out of their comfort zone and try to see the world from a different perspective. Cross-cultural and/or intercultural comparison is encouraged. *Transformed Practice* gives students the opportunity to design based on what they learned while taking part in *Critical Framing* in other contexts. Students produce a redesigned product that reflects the sociocultural context specific to the new setting with available designs for the context. The four curricular components need not to be in linear order to provide multiliteracies pedagogy-based classes. Instructors can organize these components however they fit best to achieve class objectives. Later, Kalantzis and Cope (2005) reframed these components into knowledge processes, using active verbs to label each process, to make them easier to be recognized: *Experiencing*, *Conceptualizing*, *Analyzing*, and *Applying*. Each pedagogical act was further divided into two aspects. *Experiencing* is divided into *the Known* and *the New*; *Conceptualizing* is divided into *by naming* and *by theorizing*; *Analyzing* is divided into *functionally* and *critically*; and

Applying is divided into *appropriately* and *creatively*. Table 2.2 provides a quick overview of the multiliteracies framework curricular components and PCR activities.

As Kalantzis and Cope (2005) acknowledged, these curricular components can be observed in many pedagogical practices including PCR activities. For example, Brown (2013) implemented PCR to teach Korean non-honorific *panmal* speech styles, plain and intimate, to intermediate level KFL learners using a video clip from a Korean TV drama series. As one student from the study testified, “since the class, I am very conscious of the way that people are speaking.... It makes me think more of what might be the difference” (Brown, 2013, p. 13), PCR activities helped the students foster a broader notion of literacy. They realized speech styles are not just vocabulary and grammar combination but they are intertwined with other modes to make meanings.

Table 2.2 Overview of the Multiliteracies Framework Curricular Components and PCR Activities

Multiliteracies Pedagogy Framework		
New London Group (1996)	Kalantzis and Cope (2005)	PCR Treatment Activities
Situated Practice	Experiencing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Known • The New 	Exposure to authentic materials such as video clips Students' L1 analysis
Overt Instruction	Conceptualizing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By naming • By theorizing 	Student discovery Explicit metapragmatic discussion Students' L1 analysis Exposure to authentic materials such as video clips
Critical Framing	Analyzing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Functionally • Critically 	Explicit metapragmatic discussion Comparison between L1 and foreign language Student discovery
Transformed Practice	Applying <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriately • Creatively 	Role-play DCT

One difference between PCR activities studies and multiliteracies framework is when these types of instruction can be introduced and can be effective. Even though there are some studies that account for pragmatics instruction feasibility in the elementary level courses (Pearson, 2006; Reinhardt & Ryu, 2013), it is a prevalent idea that pragmatics instruction using genuine materials can be more feasible and beneficial for the intermediate and advanced students (Brown, 2013; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Martinez-Flor & Soler, 2007; Rose, 1994). Rose (1994) echoed this idea when he proposed PCR activities. To execute PCR activities, students need to have competency in pragmatic metalanguage. Rose (1994) presupposed that students would have spent long enough time studying the foreign language, so they would already have extensive experience of using metalanguage for grammar learning. Thus, pragmatic metalanguage usage is a familiar task for them. Brown (2013) also reserved teaching pragmatics incorporating PCR activities with genuine materials to be intermediate and/or advanced level. For elementary level students, he suggested working with textbook dialogues instead of genuine materials. On the contrary, multiliteracies framework encourages working with genuine materials from the very beginning to foster the analytic skills and symbolic competence (Allen & Paesani, 2010; Kalantzis & Cope, 2005; Kern, 2000; New London Group, 1996).

2.5.2.1 Multiliteracies pedagogy framework in KFL

The expanding field of multiliteracies research in foreign language education includes interventional studies. Multiliteracies framework-based activities can be implemented along with traditional foreign language curriculum (Brown et al., 2016; Paesani, 2015; Spinelli, 2016) or the entire course can be designed around multiliteracies

framework-based activities (Choi, 2015; Michelson & Dupuy, 2014). The framework has been applied to various language classrooms, mainly in MCTLs such as French (Michelson & Dupuy, 2014; Paesani, 2015), German (Warren & Winkler, 2016), Italian (Spinelli, 2016), and Japanese (Kumagai, Konoeda, Nishimata, & Sato, 2016). Research in LCTLs is limited and Brown et al. (2016) and Choi (2015) are the only classroom research studies with KFL learners at tertiary level institutions in the U.S. In the following, these two studies (Brown et al, 2016; Choi, 2015) will be reviewed.

Students with high-intermediate or advanced Korean language proficiency explored foreigner positionality in Korean culture using multimedia resource (Brown et al, 2016). The study goal was to develop students' multimodal competence, critical literacy, and their identity negotiation. The students read an academic article in English on mixed-race actors in Korea and wrote summary and reflection. Then, the students used their own experiences and genuine materials such as statistics and a video clip from a TV drama series, which instructor provided, to discuss the topic of foreigner identity. The activities also asked the students to use visual mode as well as linguistic mode to analyze the resources. The students' reactions to the lesson were collected regarding English material inclusion, different mode beside linguistic mode inclusion, and the appropriateness of the topic. The students provided overall positive reviews on all three aspects. However, they identified a couple of obstacles for certain demographics. An academic article in English was an obstacle for the non-native English speaker student and visual mode analysis was for the non-heritage language learner. These two types of students are the students we can observe easily in elementary level. The authors suggested to provide more scaffolding to help the learners. The topic was perceived to be

appropriate to be incorporated in the class using a multimedia resource with multiliteracies pedagogy based activities because, as the students commented, “the class had “helped” them develop a better understanding of the ways in which “Korean” and “foreigner” identities could be negotiated and had made them more aware of how these identities were visually presented in Korean visual media (p169).” Choi (2015) also worked with advanced level heritage learners. The entire course was designed around multiliteracies framework. The students read different genre of their choice in Korean, wrote reading response entries and language log entries, and created multimodal project based on their readings. Through analysis of a focal student’s work and interviews with the student, the author found that multiliteracies framework based activities helped the learner to be engaged in literary texts, in turn, developing her linguistic competency, and to negotiate and expand her literate identity as English-Korean bilingual reader, writer, and storyteller.

Brown et al. (2016) and Choi (2015) implemented multiliteracies based lesson plans in advanced level courses with heritage language learners. Their main focus was expanding the notion of literacy by promoting multimodality to analyze genuine material (Brown et al, 2016) or to create a multimodal reflection report (Choi, 2015). These two studies showed that multiliteracies framework based lessons helped students to successfully negotiate their identities by designing and redesigning various modes presented to them and the activities helped to sustain literacy practice in Korean after the course (Choi, 2015). In spite of the positive results of teaching certain topic and promoting literacy practice using the framework, little is known how to guide written language competence development, which is constantly mentioned as a weakness of

heritage language learners by researchers and by students (Byon, 2008; Choi, 2015; Felix, 2009). Also, it is not clear whether the students' previous perception to literacy, or written linguistic mode, had changed or challenged enough to critically think about written language as a meaning-making resource and an available design as a result of interaction among other modes. The students acknowledged that visual mode can an available design (Brown et al, 2016) and other modes were included to create reading reflection (Choi, 2015). However, the authors did not include activities to sensitize students to form-meaning connection. Instead, the students were engaged in traditional worksheet type activities where spelling and grammar were main foci in Choi (2015). Nonetheless, Brown et al (2016) and Choi (2015) demonstrated the potential of multiliteracies framework based activities in KFL classrooms and KFL students' perception towards the pedagogical approach.

2.5.3 Summary

This section introduced what Korean speech styles are, how KFL researchers perceive them, how speech styles were presented in textbooks and taught in-class. The researchers have found that, in spite of its dynamic and complex nature (Byon, 2003; Chang, 2014; Jung, 2015; Park, 2012; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yoon, 2010), Korean speech style system has been presented to KFL learners as a static grammatical feature (Brown, 2010; Choo, 1999; Yoon, 2010). Brown (2013) and Byon (2007) suggested PCR activities with genuine materials to teach the speech styles and found that these activities can help students to reorient their views on the Korean speech style usage from static to dynamic. The PCR activities are especially helpful to teach and learn speech styles because it encourages students to be more context-sensitive rather than focusing one-on-

one translation value of Korean to English or vice versa. Along with PCR, multiliteracies framework was reviewed as it was used as a theoretical framework to design instructional units in Chapter 5. The pedagogical framework offers sound guidance to KFL educators to design lesson plans to challenge students' narrow notion of literacy and to help them to develop symbolic competence (Brown et al., 2016; Choi, 2015).

2.6 Conclusion

To provide background theoretical information for this project's overarching theme (KFL educators' cognition on pragmatics instruction and an approach to teach pragmatics, especially speech styles), this chapter first introduced issues and challenges that LCTL educators experience to situate KFL field within the U.S. tertiary level institutions (Chapter 3). Also, this chapter discussed language teacher cognition and instructional practices through Borg's (2006) framework of language teacher cognition, organized by each factor that influences cognition development and classroom practice; *Schooling, Professional Coursework, Contextual Factors, and Classroom Practice*; and literature investigating teacher cognition on pragmatics instruction was reviewed (Chapter 4). Then, Korean speech styles and pedagogical interventional studies on speech styles were discussed to find out which methods and approaches were used. The analysis of the studies led my decision to use PCR and multiliteracies pedagogy as a framework to design instructional units, thus PCR, multiliteracies pedagogy, interventional studies implementing multiliteracies pedagogy in KFL classrooms were reviewed (Chapter 5).

Multiliteracies pedagogy framework was implemented as a theoretical framework to design instructional units to teach Korean speech style because it includes broader concept of literacy. As Korean speech style usage requires understanding of not only

immediate socio-contextual factors but also dynamic-ness of speech style shift inter and/or intra-genre. It would be beneficial for LCTL teachers, especially KFL teachers, to keep in mind the notion of broader literacy. This approach guides and makes teachers to be more critical about how authentic materials can be incorporated in-class and make teachers to be more sensitive and be aware of the limited concept of literacy that is prevalent in the KFL classroom. Especially if one has not been taught to celebrate the multimodality of literacy, we need some guidance not to fall back onto how we have been taught, like grammar translation with memorizing vocabulary and audiolingual method (Richards & Pennington, 1998). As the fact that most KFL teachers being native Korean speakers with schooling experience in Korea, where the foreign language was taught as vocabulary and grammar memorization and taught to pass an exam, it needs some conscious effort not to convey the limited notion of literacy and not to practice the same way how KFL instructors had been taught to prepare our students to be competent Korean language speakers in the 21st century.

Chapter 3: Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) Programs in the U.S.: Overview of the Programs and Beliefs Toward Pragmatics and Pragmatics Instruction of Administrators and Instructors

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores Korean as a foreign language (KFL) programs at tertiary level institutions in the U.S. to provide a comprehensive picture of KFL program characteristics, roles and responsibilities of administration and instructors, and pragmatics instruction status. The MLA report (2015) showed that Korean is one of the fastest growing foreign language classes at tertiary level institutions in the U.S. although the total number of enrolled students in KFL programs is still smaller than other major foreign language classes (e.g. Spanish) and other East Asian languages, such as Japanese and Chinese. As students' interest and enrollments in KFL are growing, institutions that offer KFL classes are expanding. As a result, KFL instructors have grown in numbers and there is an increasing amount of literature on KFL pedagogy. However, pragmatics is still an underexplored area in KFL even though foreign language pragmatics teaching and learning has a significant body of research on its own in other mainstream foreign language pedagogy as many scholars value pragmatics as one of the most important aspects of becoming a fluent speaker of foreign language (Canale & Swain, 1980; Grossi, 2009; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper, 1997; Thomas, 1983). Within the small body of research, a large part of KFL pragmatics focuses on interventional studies and speech acts similar to other research in mainstream foreign languages (Song & Pyun, 2011; Byon, 2015).

Moreover, there is very limited research on KFL programs and existing research needs to be updated to reflect more recent status (Byon, 2008; Richards, 2002; Silva,

2007). By surveying current status of KFL programs' characteristics and pragmatics instruction, it will provide KFL educators and administration a picture of where current KFL programs are situated and it will shed light on curriculum development that helps students to develop not only vocabularies and grammars but also pragmatic competence. Therefore, I present and discuss the survey results in this chapter to answer the following research questions:

RQ1a. What are the program characteristics of KFL programs at tertiary level institutions in the U.S.?

RQ1b. How are curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatic instruction reflected in or informed by the attitudes and beliefs of language program directors/administrators/coordinators (LPD/A/Cs) and instructors of KFL?

RQ1c. What is the role of the socio-cultural contexts and institutional constraints on curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatics instruction?

As relevant research on Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs), relationship between practice and cognition, and pragmatics instruction were discussed in the previous chapter, methodology of this study and the survey results will be presented first. I follow with a discussion of the results to answer each sub-research question. Limitations and recommendations of the current study and conclusion will follow.

3.2 Methodology

Mixed methods were used to answer the three proposed sub-research questions for this study. Quantitative data came from a cross sectional survey of LPD/A/Cs and instructors. Qualitative data were gathered from open-ended questions from the survey. Grounded theory was used to generate trends from the qualitative data.

3.2.1 Participants

To recruit study participants, purposeful sampling and snowball sampling were used. First, I consulted the list of US institutions offering Korean language courses and the list of members and their affiliations from the American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK) website (<http://aatk.org>). I also conducted a Google search with the search term ‘Korean language courses’ to find additional post-secondary institutions offering credited Korean language courses. I searched for LPD/A/Cs and instructors from the institutions’ websites as well. The survey invitation email also asked recipients to distribute the survey to relevant individuals. The message provided qualifying survey participant demographic description.

Due to the scope and purpose of this study, the responses from individuals who teach and/or work at non-tertiary level institutions, such as K-12 or Saturday Korean community schools for younger children (or *Hangul Hakgyo*), were not included in the present study. Results are from the instructor group including those who are part of both instructor and LPD/A/C group, because only administrative staff with teaching positions answered the Attitudes and beliefs about pragmatics instruction section of the survey. I decided to omit those who did not provide beliefs responses because I cannot compare their beliefs and pragmatic teaching environment in their institutions. There is an exception for an administrative staff group. One respondent who did not teach Korean answered all sections including the Attitudes and beliefs about pragmatics instruction section. This respondent was included.

Two groups of participants were recruited. The first group was comprised of university directors and administrators, including program coordinators, of a program or

a department that has Korean language courses in the United States. Coordinators who were responsible for curriculum decision-making were included in this group. The second group was instructors of Korean language courses at the postsecondary level in the U.S. The instructor group represented faculty who teach Korean language in university credit course settings. Therefore, it included instructors (part-time and full-time), lecturers, professors (tenured and tenure-track), and teaching assistants/associates (TAs). Recruited TAs may or may not be graduate students in the department; for example, graduate students in Linguistics may teach Korean language courses, due to the limited number of universities offering Korean graduate programs. In addition, tutors and drill instructors who were appointed to teach in university credit courses were recruited. There was an overlap between the two groups. For instance, a program director may also teach language courses. In such a case, he or she was asked to answer both LPD/A/C and instructor sections of the survey. Therefore, they were counted as two separate participants for the purpose of analysis. A culture lesson module was provided as a compensation for the respondents who finished the survey and individual interview for the next chapter.

Appendix A indicates the demographics of the respondents in terms of gender, age, Korean proficiency, highest level of educational achievement, the positions held, number of years as KFL instructor, and levels taught. The majority of the respondents were female (70%). The age ranged from 20 to over 60, with 40% aged 40-49 and 30% aged 30-39. Only one respondent reported as a non-native Korean speaker. He identified his Korean proficiency as superior on the ACTFL foreign language proficiency scale. Regarding education level, over half of the respondents held doctorate degrees (53%),

and 43% had Master's degrees. One respondent, who has Bachelor's degree, chose *other*. Among the respondents, approximately over one-third (40%) specialized in Linguistics, including 3 respondents with Applied linguistics. Thirty percent had degrees in Korean-specialized majors such as Korean linguistics, Korean studies, East Asian Language and Literature, and Teaching Korean as a Foreign Language. Seventeen percent had a foreign language teaching major. Thirteen percent of the respondents had a major not related to language or Korean, such as education psychology.

The respondents were allowed to provide more than one answer for their positions. Thirty percent were professors, sixty-four percent were lecturers and instructors, and graduate teaching assistants comprised 10% of the total. Program administrators or directors were 13% and Korean language program coordinators were also 13%. Two respondents (7%) identified themselves as *other*. One explained her position as academic professional and director of a Korean language program and the other indicated Korean school teacher.

The respondents' number of years as a KFL educator ranged from *6 months* to *over 25 years*, with 40% ranging from *3-5 years* and 23% from *11-15 years*. The respondents could also provide more than one answer for teaching responsibility. Sixty five percent of the respondents teach elementary level and 59% teach intermediate level courses. Forty-six percentages of the respondents teach advanced level courses and 23% indicated that they teach *other* courses, including Korean linguistics courses and Business Korean. Two of the respondents who chose *other* reported that they teach 400 level courses, which can be included in advanced level courses.

3.2.2 Instrumentation

To answer the research questions for this study, one on-line survey questionnaire was distributed to LPD/A/Cs and instructors via email with a direct link to the survey. Qualtrics, an online survey software program, was used to host the survey. The same survey questionnaire link was given to both groups of participants. Each group was directed to specific sections to answer in the survey. The survey was comprised of 4 sections: 1) Demographic information of individual participant and affiliated program or college; 2) Program characteristics; 3) Roles and responsibilities; and 4) Attitudes and beliefs about pragmatics instruction. Both participant groups were asked to answer the same demographic information and program characteristics questionnaire. Each group was directed to respond to a different set of questions based on their position for the Roles and responsibilities section and the Attitudes and beliefs about pragmatics instruction. The instructor group had more elaborated and detailed questionnaire on pragmatics instruction. If a participant was appointed as LPD/A/C and instructor, he or she was asked to answer sections for LPD/A/C as well as the sections for the instructor group.

The Program characteristics section used a Verbal Frequency Likert Scale from “never” to “always” with an open-ended comment textbox to provide more detail. The Roles and responsibilities section also used a Verbal Frequency Likert Scale from “never” to “always.” Open-ended questions were provided as well. The Attitudes and beliefs about pragmatics instruction section for LPD/A/C group was a mixture of open-ended questions and closed-ended questions using a 5-point Likert Scale with options to provide a more detailed text response. The instructor group was asked to answer the same

questionnaire followed by another set of questions regarding their in-class pragmatic instruction choices. There were open-ended questions as well for additional comments on teaching pragmatics. At the end of the survey, each respondent was asked to provide an email address if he or she wanted to be contacted for a further interview. Please see Appendix B for the survey questions. The survey was reviewed for face validity by two native Korean speakers who have experience in KFL teaching. They have Master's degrees in the field of applied linguistics and foreign language pedagogy. None of their responses was included in the current study.

3.2.3 Data collection

I emailed the survey link directly to each individual during July and August of 2014 after approval by the Institution Review Board (IRB) at the University of Arizona. A reminder email was sent approximately two weeks after the initial distribution date of the survey. Two more reminder emails were sent one to two weeks apart from the previous emails.

3.2.4 Data analysis

To answer the current study's research questions, descriptive statistics are used to report the data. Descriptive statistics are often used to "determine the overall trends and the distribution of the data," thus, it is appropriate (Creswell, 2008, p. 638). The descriptive data are meant to capture participants' demographics for individual and their appointed KFL program characteristics, including their roles and responsibilities as LPD/A/Cs and/or instructors. In addition, participants' perceptions of pragmatics instruction, curricular and programmatic decisions, and contextual constraints were reported with descriptive statistics. The online survey tool, Qualtrics, presented the basic

descriptive statistics for quantitative data, such as means, standard deviations, frequency counts, and percentages, and it also allowed cross tabulations. Qualitative data were gathered from comment textboxes and open-ended questions. The Qualtrics survey software reorganizes text responses as word cloud. A word cloud is a graphical representation of word frequency. The most mentioned word appears more prominent than other words. A word cloud was generated and compared with the themes, which were coded inductively from comment textboxes and open-ended questions.

3.3 Results

This section presents the survey results to answer the research questions for this chapter:

- 1a. What are the program characteristics of KFL programs at tertiary level institutions in the U.S.?
- 1b. How are curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatic instruction reflected in or informed by the attitudes and beliefs of language program directors/administrators/coordinators (LPD/A/Cs) and instructors of KFL?
- 1c. What is the role of the socio-cultural contexts and institutional constraints on curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatics instruction?

3.3.1 RQ1a: KFL programs in the U.S.

Sub-research Question 1a (What are the program characteristics of KFL programs at tertiary level institutions in the US?) for this chapter sought to understand the current status of Korean programs in post-secondary level institutions in the US regarding basic statistics of enrollment number, number of levels and sections offered, and roles and responsibilities of LPD/A/C and instructors.

3.3.1.1 Program characteristics

Appendix C outlines the demographics of the institutions and KFL programs. The majority of the respondents were from four-year public universities (60%). The second highest group was from four-year private universities (23%). The respondents who chose other identified that their institutions were government educational and research institution. The majority of Korean programs were housed within departments with other East Asian languages, such as Japanese and Chinese. Three Korean programs were within the Classical Languages, Middle Eastern, and Slavic Languages. Three respondents' institutions had an independent Korean department. Departments where Korean classes were offered include Critical Languages Program and International programs.

Among the respondents' institutions, there are slightly more that had degrees or certificates focused on Korean language (54%) than institutions that did not (46%). Most institutions offer all levels of language courses but there were few that offer courses other than language, such as Korean literature and film (23%). The number of KFL students enrolled per term ranged from *1-25* to *more than 150*, with no significant differences between variables. The majority of institution (23%) had between 75-100 students followed by 19% having between 101-125 students in their program. Sixty-five percent of the institutions had less than 100 students. According to the responses, the higher the language courses' level, the lower the number of sections and students in the respondents' institutions. Sixty-nine percent of the institutions offered 2-3 sections of elementary level language courses with 10-20 (44%) or 21-30 (40%) students per section. Seventy-seven percent offered 1-2 sections of intermediate level language courses with

10-20 (50%) or 21-30 (25%) students. Sixty-one percent offered 1 section of advanced language courses with less than 10 (55%) or 10-20 (25%) students per section.

This part of the survey also asked how often and how much guidance teachers receive from the department level ranging from lesson plans to teaching policies to professional development opportunities in addition to program specific policies. The respondents were asked to rate whether their program *never, rarely, sometimes, often, or always* performed the following statements regarding standard curricula; syllabi; lesson plans; textbook; assessment; assessment rubric; teaching approaches; teaching policies; maximum number of student per section; evaluation and update of curricula, syllabi, lesson plans, and/or assessment rubrics; placement test for new students; professional development; and meeting with administrative staffs and teaching staffs.

The responses regarding curriculum, syllabi, lesson plans, and assigned textbooks varied from the program that *never* provided the documents to *always* provided them. Less than half of the respondents (45.83%) reported that their department always provided curriculum to follow. The responses showed a gradual increase from never to always. The majority of departments or programs where Korean language courses are housed provide syllabi to teachers (58.33%). There were equal numbers of institutions that often provided syllabi and that never provided syllabi to teachers (16.67%). The responses about lesson plans exhibit similar trends with more distribution on the never side. The responses indicate that textbooks were the most required and pre-assigned material. Sixty percent of the respondents had assigned textbooks for each class and 28% often had assigned textbooks for each class. Twenty percent of the respondents never had assigned textbooks.

The survey asked the respondents if they were allowed to use alternative assessment methods such as a portfolio or a project for Korean related courses. The responses varied from they are *never* allowed to offer alternative assessment methods to they are *always* allowed to offer alternative assessment methods in both language courses and other courses. Most respondents' programs *always* (30.43%) allowed alternative assessment methods in the beginning language courses. *Sometimes* (36.36%), followed by *always* (27.27%), was the highest ranked response in regards to using alternative assessment methods in the intermediate language courses. *Never* and *often* had same response rate (13.64%). More respondents' programs allowed alternative assessment methods in advanced language courses compared to beginning and intermediate courses (40%). Only 10% of the respondents answered on the negative spectrum, which is *never* (10%) and *rarely* (0%). When asked if their program provides assessment rubrics, respondents replied broad range from *never* (5%) to *always*, with near 50% (48%). A gradual decrease from *always* to *never* was reported.

The survey asked the respondents if there were teaching policies and approaches set by the department level. These items also showed responses in all categories from *never* to *always*, but more respondents answered in the positive range from *sometimes* to *always* than from *never* to *rarely*. Thirty percent often had required or preferred teaching policies enforced by their department followed by *always* (25%) and *sometimes* (20%).

Thirty percent of the respondents' programs *sometimes* had required or preferred teaching approaches enforced by their department level, followed by *always* (25%) and *sometimes* (25%). The respondents were asked to choose their programs' teaching approach. Multiple options were provided from *grammar translation*, *communicative*

language teaching, task-based teaching, literacy based approach, audio-lingual methods, and *other* with comment field. The most selected teaching method was the *communicative language teaching*. *Task-based teaching* was ranked second by the respondents. Half of the respondents answered that *grammar translation* and *audio-lingual methods* are used along with *communicative language teaching*. Only 37.50% of the respondents answered that they used *literacy-based teaching*. Other responses were *project based* and *culturally responsive teaching*.

A majority of respondents' institutions had a maximum number of students for each class set by the department. It ranged from 15 to 30. New students *always* take a placement test in 66.67% of the respondents' programs; 9.52% *often* have a placement test; and 19.05% *sometimes* have a placement test. According to the responses, 4.76% *never* offer a placement test for new students into the program. One respondent commented that his or her program offers placement test for heritage learners only.

Seventy percent of the respondents' programs *always* update curriculum, syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks, and/or exam rubrics as needed followed by *often* updates (20%) and *sometimes* (5%). Five percent of the respondents' programs do not update curriculum, syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks and/or exam rubrics. Sixty two percent of the respondents' programs *always* evaluate curriculum on a regular basis followed by *rarely* (14%) and both *sometimes* (10%) and *often* (10%). One respondent reported that his or her program *never* evaluate curriculum on a regular basis.

Most programs where the respondents work offered regular meetings with administrative staff and teaching staff. Most selected answer was *always* (38.10%) and there were the same number of responses for *often* (28.57%) and *sometimes* (28.57%).

There were not many differences across respondents regarding professional development opportunities offered by departments. Among the respondents' programs, *often* had most responses with 28.75%, followed by *sometimes* (23.81%). There were more institutions that offer the opportunities *rarely* (19.05%) than *always* (14.29%). There were the same number of programs that *never* offered professional development opportunities with the one which *always* offer them.

In summary, the Korean program was a part of the language department with less than 100 students. Elementary, intermediate, and advanced language courses were offered. Each level had 1-3 sections with less than 10 to 30 students per section. The majority of respondents' programs offered some level of guidance to instructors by providing curriculum, syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks, assessment rubrics, teaching policies, and/or teaching approaches. The programs showed effort to improve the quality of the program by evaluating and updating the previously mentioned documents, providing communication chances between administrative staff and teaching staff, regulating maximum number of students per classroom, and employing placement test for new students. More programs offered professional development chances to the respondents (66.67%) even though some programs never offered professional development opportunities to the teaching staff.

3.3.1.2 Roles and responsibilities of language program

director/administrator/coordinator (LPD/A/C)

This part of the survey asked the respondents' current roles and responsibilities at the time of survey. The participants were asked to answer designated sections based on their current appointment. If there were appointed both as administrative staff and as

teaching staff, there were asked to answer both sections. Seven administrative staffs completed the survey and Appendix D outlines their responses. Five of them reported that they were *always* responsible for creating and/or supervising curriculum decisions for the program. One participant was responsible for program's curriculum decisions *sometimes* and interestingly there was another participant who was *never* responsible for curriculum decisions. Syllabi writing showed same distribution as curriculum decisions. Lesson plan writing exhibited more diverse distribution across the responses from *never* to *always*. There were two respondents for never, sometimes, and always; one said that he or she often writing and/or supervising lesson plans. Textbook decision was another area that most of the respondents *always* (57%) or *often* (29%) took responsibility except one participant. Slightly less than half of the respondents were *always* (43%) responsible for creating and/or supervising assessment and grading rubric writing followed by *sometimes* (29%) and *often* (14%). There was one respondent who was *never* responsible for assessment and grading rubric writing. Except the one who *never* took responsibility for teaching policy decisions, most of the respondents *often* (57%) or *always* (29%) were responsible for creating and/or supervising teaching policy decisions. Again, although there was one who *never* participated in teaching approach decisions, all other respondents participated in teaching approach decision making at some degree from *sometimes* (29%) to *often* (43%) to *always* (14%). Responsibility for evaluation of curriculum, syllabi, lesson plans, textbook, and assessment was *always* performed by 3 of the respondents followed by 2 who were *sometimes* responsible and *often* and *never* by one respondent each. Proficiency rating or guide such as ACTFL standards was consulted by the respondents *always* (50%) and *sometimes* (17%) when they created curriculum and

two responded that they *rarely* follow the proficiency rating. Sixty seven percent were *always* responsible for placement tests for new students; and one respondent was *sometimes* and one respondent was *often* responsible for placement tests

The respondents provided text answers to communication means between other administrators, teachers, and/or students, perceived most important duties of LPD/A/C, and future changes they want to see in the program and its administration. Face-to-face interaction through meetings and office hours as well as electronic communication means including emails and Social networking service (SNS) platforms were used by the respondents to communicate with other colleagues and students.

The respondents believed that LPD/A/C needed to put priority on all different domains across general program quality and size, administrative issues, and curriculum. Two respondents provided general ideas on developing program quality and size such as “expand” the program, “qualities” of the program. Administrative issues and curriculum were very similarly mentioned by the respondents. Administrative issues included budget, human resource management including hiring “competent” instructors, providing guidance such as professional development opportunities, ensuring “instructor’s satisfaction,” and setting “a cooperative tone among instructors” and marketing such as recruiting students and maintain and/or increase student enrollment. The respondents perceived that maintaining quality curricula was important responsibility of LPD/A/C. They mentioned not only in general such as “address curriculum” and “improve the quality of classroom learning,” but also more in detail such as “rigorous academic course offerings,” student placement test, and “all language areas and culture.” One respondent

also mentioned that LPD/A/Cs need to consider “students’ needs, motivation, and satisfaction.”

The last open-ended question was the future changes they would like to see in the program and its administration. Except one respondent who said that he or she was “satisfied now,” the respondents provided varied responses and had more administrative issues than curriculum issues. I observed multiple concerns regarding student numbers. They wanted to have fewer students per class especially in lower level classes. One respondent mentioned that he or she wanted to have more homogenous group of student in third year classes in terms of the students’ Korean proficiency level. This respondent also provided ideas that his or her program would like to offer more classes and multiple levels in the third year curriculum-wise to accommodate this issue. In addition, attrition of student enrollment from first year to second year was mentioned. The attrition can be due to multiple factors including marketing, curriculum, and students’ motivation. Along the same line, expanding and/or sustaining the program was mentioned most in this survey question. The respondents called for more vision and commitment to the KFL program from the administrative staff as one element affecting KFL program development. Additionally, one respondent wanted to have more teaching staff as a possible change in his or her program.

Lastly, the survey asked what the biggest challenges you face as a LPD/A/C. There were 14 different areas to choose from including both administrative and curricula issues with comment textbox for more opinion. There were able to choose multiple items. Total 6 respondents answered this survey. Most rated item was *curriculum* and *budget* by 4 responses followed by *staff evaluation*. Then, *personnel issues*, *time management*,

cooperation with university programs, teacher training, and study abroad program were rated third by 2 responses. *Marketing, customized program development, accreditation, technology purchasing and implementation support, and fundraising* followed. It is interesting to see that the respondents' text answers showed that they concerned more and wanted to see changes in administrative issues than curriculum-wise, however this survey showed that their biggest challenges were curriculum and budget issues, which was never mentioned before.

In summary, the respondents who work as a LPD/A/C for a KFL program performed different roles and responsibilities among the respondents. Most of them participated curricula operations at some degrees even though it was varied from whether they participate *always* to *sometimes*. Moreover, there was one respondent who *never* participated in curricula operations. They were open to communicate with other colleagues and students with both offline and online means of communication including SNS. The respondents believed that both curricula operations and administrative work as a LPD/A/C are equally important. There was one respondent who was satisfied with his or her current program but other respondents mentioned that they would like to see more administrative supports regarding lowering student maximum number per class as well as expanding KFL program than curricula support. Interestingly, the respondents chose curriculum and budget as their biggest challenges they face as LPD/A/C even though they wanted more support in administrative level than curriculum level and budget was not mentioned in the previous question item.

3.3.1.3 Roles and responsibilities of instructors

This part of the survey asked about teacher autonomy in the classroom and teachers' self-perception of their role and challenges, and Appendix E outlines their responses. The participants were asked to rate whether they *never*, *rarely*, *sometimes*, *often*, or *always* were responsible for curricula, syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks, exam rubrics, teaching policies, and teaching approaches and/or techniques. The survey asked respondents to provide text responses regarding focuses and main factors of their current curricula, syllabi, and/or lesson plans. The survey also asked when these documents were chosen and evaluated. Text responses were required for the survey item regarding focus of the respondents' current curricula, syllabi, and/or lesson plans, teachers' self-perception of their role, challenges for teachers and for students in their program, and changes they want to see.

The survey results showed that more than half of the respondents (52.63%) *always* participated in curriculum decision making for the program. Sixteen percent of the respondents answered they *never* participate during the curriculum decision. The responses from the questions regarding the instructors' own course teaching materials, including course documents, showed that more than the majority of the respondents had autonomy over the course they taught. All but 5% were responsible for writing the course syllabi *always* (79%) and *often* (16%). A similar result was observed regarding on writing lesson plans and exam rubrics for the course they taught. Fifteen percent of the respondents *never* or *rarely* wrote lesson plans but 84% wrote lesson plans. Seventy-nine percent of the respondents *always* wrote exam rubrics for their own course; 10.53% *often* and 5.26% *sometimes* wrote exam rubrics; only 5.26% *never* wrote for the course they

taught. Fifty-eight percent of the respondents are *always* responsible for selecting textbooks for the course they taught. The survey showed that 21.05% of the respondents *never* had a chance to select textbooks for the course they taught. Teaching policy and teaching approach/techniques decisions showed similar results. More than half (63%) of the respondents *always* made their own teaching policies and 68% made teaching approach/techniques decisions for the course they taught. Twenty-one percent *sometimes* and 11% *often* were able to make their own policy for the course. Eleven percent *sometimes* and 16% *often* made teaching approach/technique decision for the course they taught.

The respondents answered the open-ended questions regarding the respondents' programs' and/or classes' current curricula, syllabi, and/or lesson plans. The questions asked main focus, when the documents were chosen, what affected most on choosing the documents; evaluation; perceived most important duties of a KFL instructor; future changes the respondents want to see in their program; the biggest challenges as a KFL teacher; and the biggest challenges as a student of the respondents' program.

“Communicative competence” was most mentioned by the respondents followed by speaking and then listening and writing skills. Most of the respondents reported that they edited, revised, updated, and/or selected current curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans at the beginning of the semester. There were programs where it had been few years since the current curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans were chosen. Teaching philosophy was the dominant factor on choosing the current course documents, followed by pre-selected/designed syllabi, which 3 out of total 16 respondents mentioned. Unlike the previous questions, responses on evaluation of these documents varied from comments

that the respondents had no knowledge on this issue to the respondents' program evaluates curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans many times a year. The most prominent comment was that there was no evaluation. This was followed by the response that evaluation was every year. There was only one respondent whose program evaluates curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans every 7 years administered by outside evaluators.

The next question was asking the respondents' self-perception of most important duties as a Korean language teacher. The Qualtrics survey software reorganized text responses as word cloud. A word cloud is a graphical representation of word frequency. The Most mentioned word appears more prominent than other words. The most prominent word in word cloud was 'students.' This shows that the respondents most valued students as part of their teaching career. Then, I eliminated 'students', 'students'', and 'Korean' from the word cloud to see what other dimensions the respondents most mentioned. The following words appeared most dominant: 'teach', 'teaching', 'create', 'motivate', 'language', 'communicative', 'communication', 'culture', and 'materials.' The responses can be summarized as the respondents believed that their most important duties were teaching students Korean language and culture, creating materials and environment to support effective communication in Korean language, and motivating students.

The responses to the question *what changes would you like to see in your program* varied from "satisfied with current state" to "development as a regular class." The responses can be placed mainly into three categories: teaching staff, number of students, and curriculum. The respondents wanted more teaching staffs. They also wanted to lower the maximum number of students per each course especially in a lower level.

The respondents wanted more “innovative approach to curriculum” and “proficiency based curricula” as well as more systematic evaluation. They also wanted to see more drill sections and grammar explanation.

The biggest challenges the respondents faced were mostly related to students. The most mentioned response was non-homogenous student group in one classroom. This includes varying proficiency among students and mixture of heritage and non-heritage speakers. Another student-related challenge was motivating students. Limited in-class time was also reported as a challenge. A gap between lower division and upper division was also mentioned in terms of student enrollment as well as curricular issues.

The survey also asked teachers to comment on perceived challenges for their students. Most respondents answered that their students could not find opportunities to use Korean outside of the classroom and communicate with native Korean speakers. Some respondents reported that learning Korean language itself is difficult compared to learning other languages. Another challenge for the students was excessive information and activities during the in-classroom instruction.

In summary, Korean instructors had more freedom and autonomy when it comes to syllabi (78.95%), lesson plans (78.95%), exam rubrics (78.95%), teaching policies (63.16%), and teaching approaches (68.42%) for the course they taught than curricula (52.63%) and textbook decisions (57.89%). Most respondents' current Korean classes were mainly focused on developing communicative competence. They revised, edited, and/or updated curricula, syllabi, and/or lesson plans at the beginning of each semester based on their own teaching philosophy and/or pre-selected/designed syllabi. The respondents believed that their most important duties as a Korean teacher are teaching

students Korean language and culture to communicate effectively and motivating students. The respondents thought that their biggest challenge was non-homogenous student groups in one classroom and, for their students, the biggest challenge was limited access to Korean language outside of the classroom. The respondents saw a need for more teaching staffs and lower number of students per classroom.

3.3.1.4 Summary

The survey results show that the majority of the surveyed Korean programs were at 4-year public universities and were housed in departments with other related languages, such as East Asian Studies departments. There were less than 100 students in the majority of programs. A full range of proficiency-level language classes were offered with 1 to 3 sections with 10 to 30 students per section for each level. Previous research indicated that most KFL programs offer only first and second year courses (Byon, 2008; Richards, 2002; Silva, 2007); however, in this study, more than seventy percent of the survey respondents' schools offered advanced level language courses. Fourteen out of eighteen respondents (78%) who were teaching at 4-year public universities indicated that they offer advanced language courses, or 300-level and up, and three specified that they offer 400-level courses. This can be a signal that Korean programs in 4-year public universities have been developed over 8 years and now are quite established or have offered Korean courses long enough to offer 4th year courses. In other words, these institutions are not just starting the program. When schools begin to offer language courses, they do not offer the full spectrum. Usually, they offer courses level by level, and continue to offer only lower level language courses when there is not much enrollment (Richards, 2002).

LPD/A/C respondents believed that both curricula operations and administrative work were equally important, and most of them were engaged with curricular operations to some degree. More administrative support was thought to be needed than curricular support from administration, but respondents also mentioned that they face challenges in curriculum as well as budget. The majority of respondents' programs offered some level of guidance to instructors in terms of teaching preparation and/or teacher training. The instructor respondents had autonomy when it came to their own classrooms. In most of the respondents' classrooms, communicative competence was reported as the main focus. The challenges the respondents faced were too wide a range of proficiency level of students in one classroom, shortage of teaching staff, and big class size.

Moreover, findings from the survey support that most Korean programs in this study, at least at the program unit level, assumed organic organizational structure (Davidson & Tesh, 1997). This model puts emphasis on flexibility and adaptability and dynamic channels of communication. All team members participate in the decision making process. There are training opportunities for personal growth of individuals. In such a flexible program, the respondents of this study had autonomy on teaching methods, approaches, contents, and materials in most cases. The results from the pragmatics sections also show that LPD/A/C and instructors shared very similar opinions and attitudes toward pragmatics and pragmatics instruction. Across the board, text responses showed same range of variety and the mean value for each question differed by 0.1 or 0.3 on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 or 1 to 7, *very dissatisfied* to *very satisfied*.

3.3.2 RQ1b: Pragmatics instruction and attitudes and beliefs toward pragmatics

Sub-research question 1b focused on pragmatics instruction at the university level Korean language classes in the U.S. Beliefs and attitudes towards pragmatics and current instruction status were observed to answer the sub-research question 1b (How are curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatic instruction reflected in or informed by the attitudes and beliefs of language program directors/administrators/coordinators (LPD/A/Cs) and teachers of KFL?). To find out about the pragmatics instruction status, when it is introduced first to students, how often it is included, and how it is assessed were asked to both administrative staff and teaching staff, and teaching material and techniques/methods were asked to instructors.

3.3.2.1 Language program director/administrator/coordinator (LPD/A/C)

Administrative staffs' attitudes and beliefs toward pragmatics and pragmatics instruction were asked. Appendix F outlines their responses. This section includes Likert scale multiple choice items and open-ended questions seeking text responses. All respondents but one taught Korean language at the time of survey. All seven respondents answered that pragmatics knowledge is *extremely important* (n=6) or *somewhat important* (n=1) for being a competent speaker of Korean. Their responses on in-class pragmatics instruction reflected their perception towards pragmatics. Three respondents believed that pragmatics should be taught *always* in class; another three participants thought *most of the time*; and only one respondent reported that pragmatics should be taught in class *sometimes*. The respondents' answers were varied on how satisfied they were with the current state of pragmatics instruction, from *neutral* (29%) to *satisfied* (14%), with 57% *somewhat satisfied*. Lack of teaching time was most mentioned by the

respondents as an issue with their teaching or programs' pragmatics instruction. Teaching materials were also mentioned regarding in need of "better-designed materials" and developing "materials that stimulate students intellectually," followed by lack of teacher training. Half of the respondents reported that, in their program or in their teaching, pragmatics were taught whenever it is applicable; one said that half the time in third-year were devoted to pragmatics; and one responded that pragmatics were introduced at least once a week. The reported answers to how satisfied with the amount of time question were varied from *dissatisfied* (n=2) to *neutral* (n=2) to *somewhat satisfied* (n=1) to *satisfied* (n=1). The provided reasons why they were dissatisfied were time constraints and students' experience before they come to the classroom. One mentioned that it takes too much time to prepare lessons that can bridge between teaching content and students' experiences; one mentioned that study abroad experience or experience in Korea affects her students' ability to apply pragmatics in impromptu speaking situations. Seventy-one percent of the respondents' program offered pragmatic instruction from the 1st semester and two other respondents' program offered it from the 3rd semester. The participants were neutral (43%), somewhat satisfied (29%), and satisfied (29%) with the timing they introduce pragmatics in-class. Even though their responses were on the positive scale, one suggested that "pragmatics could be made a larger part of the lesson a bit earlier." There were no official assessments in the respondents' program but it was embedded throughout in various assessment tasks including skit, role-plays, and/or oral interview. Responses on how satisfied they were with the current assessment varied from *dissatisfied* to *satisfied*, with 33% *satisfied* and 33% *dissatisfied*.

In summary, the LPD/A/C respondents perceived that pragmatics knowledge is an important aspect to being a competent Korean speaker and that pragmatics should be introduced as early as the first semester. There were varied responses from *dissatisfied* to *satisfied* among the respondents regarding allotted time for pragmatics in-class and pragmatics assessment in their program. In addition, the respondents found that the issues hinder pragmatics instruction including lack of teaching time, available materials, and teacher training. Overall, the respondents were on the satisfied scale, *somewhat satisfied* (57%) and *satisfied* (14%), with their programs' current pragmatics instruction.

3.3.2.2 Instructors

Teachers' attitudes toward pragmatics and pragmatics instruction are summarized in the Appendix G. They were asked to answer Likert scale multiple choice or to provide text responses depending on the questions. All respondents answered that pragmatics knowledge is extremely important (75%) or somewhat important (25%). Their responses on in-class pragmatics instruction mirrored their attitudes towards pragmatics. All respondents reported that pragmatics should be taught in-class most of the time (mean = 3.85) but this was slightly lower than their belief on the importance of pragmatics. The respondents' answers were varied as to how satisfied they were with the current state of pragmatics instruction, from *somewhat dissatisfied* to *satisfied*, with 35% *neutral* and 30% *somewhat satisfied*. Lack of teaching time, materials, and training were mentioned most often as main issues with pragmatics instruction in the respondents' program and their own teaching. One respondent mentioned that his or her textbook is not pragmatically rich. Limited contact with authentic context outside of classroom was also reported as an issue for pragmatics instruction. One respondent challenged that material

should be intellectually challenging or stimulating. There were also comments projecting beyond teaching resources. One respondent, as a challenge, brought up limited recognition on teaching pragmatics. Another respondent reported being a native speaker as an issue, pointing out the importance of the ability to view Korean culture through outsiders' eyes.

The respondents reported that they teach pragmatics “whenever” they find time, it is relevant, they need it, it is applicable, and “the type of explanation is needed.” Responses to the question how satisfied the amount of the time devoted to pragmatics instruction were also varied from *very dissatisfied* to *satisfied*, with 32% *neutral* and 21% *somewhat dissatisfied*. The comments from those who chose dissatisfied were that there were too many required teaching objectives and materials to cover and that it takes too much to prepare materials. These responses reflect the issues that respondents stated regarding general pragmatics instruction. The majority of respondents' institute introduced pragmatics instruction as early as 1st semester of instruction (76%), that is the very beginning of Korean language learning stage, and the respondents were *somewhat satisfied* (37%) or *neutral* (32%) with the timing. There were no official assessments and it is embedded throughout students' assignments, exams, projects, role-play activities, or classroom observations. Responses on how satisfied they were with the current assessment varied from *dissatisfied* to *very satisfied*, with 42% *neutral* and 21% *somewhat dissatisfied*. The reasons for *neutral* responses were that the curriculum is not considered pragmatics and that the respondent did not have enough knowledge on pragmatics assessment.

For the instructor group, more detailed questions regarding pragmatics teaching in a classroom were asked including teaching materials, challenges, teaching technique, and teaching objectives and appropriate proficiency level. The survey also asked the respondents to verbalize their teaching technique to teach one of the pragmatics objectives. A textbook was the most commonly used material to teach pragmatics among the respondents, followed by videos and worksheets. The challenges that the respondents faced in teaching pragmatics were asked. Lack of available teaching materials, recognitions to the importance of pragmatics instruction, lack of teaching time, cultural differences between Korea and its language and students' native culture and their native language, and lack of teacher training were mentioned as their challenges, listed most mentioned to least. One respondent also mentioned that he or she found it difficult to make connections to what his or her students' were learning at the moment.

Different teaching techniques for pragmatics instruction were asked on frequency scale, 1 being *Never* and 5 being *Always* (Appendix H). The responses mirrored the teaching materials responses. *Dialogues from textbook* (mean=4.11) were the most commonly used techniques, followed by *role-play activities* and *discussion of socially and culturally appropriate language and behavior* (mean=3.68). *Textbook explanation* and *lecture* are also commonly used as much as other techniques (mean=3.58). *Discourse completion tasks* and *video or other genuine materials* were less commonly used than textbooks but were still frequently used. Even though genuine materials were used *sometimes to most of the time*, *analysis of the materials* were *rarely* or *never* performed by half of the respondents. *Interviewing native speakers* is the least carried out activity.

The respondents were asked to rate when the appropriate semester is to introduce the following items for the first time to students. The items were four different speech levels, honorifics, and speech acts. Polite form, deferential form, plain form, and non-honorifics were included as speech levels; address forms and referent honorifics were included as honorifics; and requests, refusal, compliments, politeness – indirect speech were included as speech acts. The responses reflected previously reported beliefs on pragmatics instruction. The respondents agreed that all items should be introduced as early as the first semester of KFL instruction track and at least by fourth semester. They said that the order these items should be introduced is: polite form, requests, deferential form, refusal, address forms, compliments, non-honorific style, referent honorifics, politeness and, lastly, plain form. As for teaching technique, the respondents commented that they would use authentic materials to provide contextual clues where an item is used. They also stated that they would explicitly explain or teach rules and vocabulary. One suggested gradual exposure, such as students perceiving the form first through teacher talk and various teaching materials without a pressure to use, and then participating in the active use of the form.

In summary, the respondents believed that pragmatics knowledge is an important aspect of being a competent Korean speaker and that pragmatics should be introduced as early as the first semester. There were varied responses from *dissatisfied* to *satisfied* among the respondents regarding the status of their current pragmatics instruction. Explicit explanation of context as teaching technique seemed to be preferred by the respondents, according to the comments they provided. They also used videos and other materials to teach pragmatics in a classroom. Students' pragmatics knowledge was

assessed through regular classroom assignments, final projects, and exams. More respondents were on satisfied scale (32%) than on dissatisfied scale (26%).

The respondents encountered several issues carrying out pragmatics instruction in a classroom. The main issues mentioned across this survey section were lack of teaching time in class, ready-made teaching materials, and teacher training. Due to the time, materials, and training issues, the respondents taught or mentioned pragmatics features whenever they find time and/or whenever they find it relevant during their regular class time. The respondents reported that they relied on textbooks when they taught pragmatics more than incorporating other genuine materials because, as one respondent pointed out, it is time-consuming to develop pragmatics teaching materials with genuine resources. Another issue mentioned by couple of respondents was that pragmatics is neglected and has a limited position in the current curriculum.

3.3.2.3 Summary

The survey results show that pragmatics instruction was offered from the first semester at most programs. The respondents indicated that pragmatics instruction is done whenever it is applicable, which varied from half the time to once a week to every class. The respondents answered that there was no official assessment for pragmatics but it was embedded in other assessments. The most common teaching material was *a textbook* followed by *videos* and *worksheets*. To teach pragmatics, *dialogues from textbooks* were most frequently used followed by *role-plays* and *discussion of socially and culturally appropriate language and behavior* and then *textbook provided explanation and video*.

Both LPD/A/C and Instructor groups showed neither negative nor neutral responses to the survey question asking their perception towards the importance of

pragmatics for being a competent language speaker. They only selected *somewhat important* or *extremely important*. They also believed that pragmatics should be taught in class. No respondents exhibited negative attitudes towards pragmatics and in-class pragmatics teaching. Cross tabulation, provided by Qualtrics, online survey software program, was used to find statistically significant differences between the respondents' attitudes toward pragmatics and satisfaction of current pragmatics instruction practice. A Chi-square test was performed and a p-value was provided automatically when cross tabulation was conducted. There was no statistically significant differences at $P < 0.05$ across the board. Each group of respondents from the in-class pragmatics instruction question, *sometimes*, *most of the time*, and *always*, was compared; however, no statistically significant differences were observed either. Qualtrics allows topic creation and text response tag which can be treated as quantitative data. Comparison of text responses did not yield any significant differences among any groups. The test results suggest that attitudes and beliefs toward the importance of pragmatics and in-class pragmatics teaching did not play a role in curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatics instruction. Further discussion will be provided in the following Discussion section.

3.3.3 RQ1c: Pragmatics instruction and contextual factors

Sub-research Question 1c focused on the role of contextual factors on pragmatics instruction at the university level Korean language classes in the U.S. To answer sub-research question 1c (What is the role of the socio-cultural contexts and institutional constraints on curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatics instruction?), different aspects of socio-contextual and institutional characteristics were compared with

pragmatics instruction status to find out whether or not specific context contribute to pragmatics instruction of KFL programs at tertiary level institutions. Similar to the results of sub-research question 1b, no significant differences were found from cross tabulation and a chi-square test results except professional development opportunity and pragmatics teaching technique *d. discourse completion tasks* ($p < 0.01$) and *g. interviewing native speakers* ($p < 0.03$). As the respondents' programs offer more professional development opportunities, the respondents incorporated these teaching techniques more to address target pragmatics. The results suggest that there is no relationship between socio-contexts and institutional characteristics and pragmatics instruction at the survey respondents' colleges other than professional development opportunity. The following sections will further explore possible explanations to the results and their implications to the field.

3.4 Discussion and Implications

Analysis of the survey responses yielded noteworthy findings regarding the current status of KFL programs at tertiary level institutions in the U.S. and the KFL instructors' beliefs and practices with regard to pragmatics instruction. In the following section, the findings and implications will be discussed with the aim of guiding future directions in the field and contributing to a better understanding of KFL programs and future possibilities for pragmatics instruction:

- 1a. What are the program characteristics of KFL programs at tertiary level institutions in the U.S.?
- 1b. How are curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatic instruction reflected in or informed by the attitudes and beliefs of language program directors/administrators/coordinators (LPD/A/Cs) and teachers of KFL?

1c. What is the role of the socio-cultural contexts and institutional constraints on curricular and programmatic choices about pragmatics instruction?

3.4.1 KFL programs in the U.S.

This study found few different perspectives in comparison with the challenges experienced by LCTL programs. The literature shows that LCTL programs face challenges in the areas of budget, teaching staff qualification and support from the administration, curriculum, and equity and advocacy (Al-Batal, 2007; Gor & Vatz, 2009; Helms, 2005; Janus, 1998; Kim, 2015; Larson, 2006; O'Connell & Norwood, 2007). The Korean programs, instructors, and LPD/A/Cs included in the survey reported that they experienced similar challenges; in addition, however, other challenges as well as positive changes were also observed in the following areas: (over-) qualified teaching staff, collaboration with other teachers, need of curriculum development, and equity and advocacy.

3.4.1.1 (Over-)qualified teaching staff

One difference between the surveyed KFL programs and literature on LCTL programs pertains to teaching staff qualifications. When they were asked about challenges faced at the level of the program, the classroom, and individual students, respectively, many respondents mentioned that their programs were in need of more teaching staff, including teaching assistants, but none of them mentioned a lack of qualifications among current instructors or expressed concerns regarding incoming instructors' qualifications. In fact, Korean program instructors who responded to the survey were better qualified than suggested by the literature, concerning hiring native speakers without foreign language teaching knowledge (Al-Batal, 2007; Gor & Vatz, 2009; O'Connell & Norwood, 2007). Only one respondent had a Bachelor's degree, but

this person was currently working towards a doctoral degree. The rest of them had obtained at least Master's degrees. Fifty-three percent of the respondents had doctoral degrees. Not only did the overwhelming majority have graduate degrees, their majors were also in KFL or related fields such as linguistics or second language teaching.

Indeed, it appears that the Korean as a second language or a foreign language (KS/FL) field has responded to the call for the need of language-specific teacher preparation programs by Al-Batal (2007) and Schrier (1994, as cited in Sanatullova-Allison, 2008). The number of colleges offering graduate courses, certificates, and majors or degrees in teaching KS/FL has increased in Korea, in line with the growing popularity of the Korean language around the world. According to the National Institute of Korean Language (2010, 2016), Teaching KS/FL certificate programs more than doubled in number from 78 to 198 within about 5 years in Korea alone. The field of KS/FL teaching thus appears to be growing in quality and quantity. Based on the survey respondents' demographics and present situations within the academic field, teaching KS/FL field is rapidly transitioning from merely dependent upon native speakers who teach the language to being led by instructors with qualified education and credentials.

The high qualifications of KFL instructors are another unique aspect of the field in terms of employment. Among 16 respondents with doctoral degrees, only fifty percent held positions as tenure-track professors. One respondent whose school offers non-tenure track professorship was included to this professor-rank group. Others were appointed as instructors or lecturers. Wang (2014), who conducted surveys in 2006 and 2012 regarding KFL instructors' profiles and job satisfaction, shows a similar pattern. Forty people responded in 2006 and sixty in 2012. Both surveys showed a close resemblance with

regard to respondents' highest degrees earned and current positions. According to the survey results, only 15 to 20 percent of the respondents with doctoral degrees were hired as tenure-track or tenured professors, which is much less than the results of the survey conducted for this study. I consider this a challenge because when a Master's degree is the most common required qualification for instructors or lecturers (Wang, 2014), KFL instructors must have doctoral degrees to be competitive. As a result, one needs to dedicate more time, money, and energy to education.

Those who wish to compete for teaching positions do not only face the challenge of obtaining an advanced degree, they also need to have teaching experience. There is only one university that offers a doctoral degree in KS/FL in the US. Compared to other East Asian Languages, such as Chinese or Japanese, and MCTL, such as ESL or Spanish, there are fewer opportunities to gain teaching experience while working on the doctorate degree. Limited-term contracts subject to reappointment review for instructor or lecturer positions can be an extrinsic factor that contributes to employment insecurity among KS/FL instructors (Wang, 2014). Most job postings state that candidates are under evaluation for continuing appointment after the first one to two years. Wang observed in her 2012 survey that *disagree* and *strongly disagree* responses to job security satisfaction question almost doubled compared with the 2006 survey, and concluded that an increased number of overqualified KS/FL instructors and lecturers who hold doctoral degrees possibly contributed to these results.

3.4.1.2 Collaboration with other teachers

One area of the KFL field that has witnessed a positive development is that of collaboration with other teachers. The American Association of Teachers of Korean

(AATK) annual conference provides a platform for Korean instructors and administrators to share and exchange ideas and concerns with regard to their teaching as well as their current thoughts on the field. A considerable number of research presentations, workshops, and teaching material demonstrations are hosted at the conference every year. AATK receives more proposals each year, and as a result, the acceptance rate continues to fall (H. Y. Kim, personal communication, June, 2015). Not only has the proposal process become more competitive, but the total number of conference attendees has also grown. Clearly, the number of professionals in the KFL field is increasing and academic rigor and interest is rising.

3.4.1.3 Need for curriculum development

Moreover, the fact that the respondents identified curriculum as one of their challenges can be seen positively. Respondents indicated that there is room to improve and expressed need to grow, thus showing a high degree of awareness when it comes to program strengths and weaknesses. Instructors know what is possible in theory and ideal practice, and they strive to seek better or more appropriate curricula for their students. This suggests that they do not merely uncritically follow textbooks, thus contradicting the impression that many teachers are native speakers who are thrown into the classroom without any background knowledge. Rather, these instructors are professionals, scholars, and researchers who are aware of current thoughts in the field, who try to apply and adapt and make changes to improve the quality of their programs.

3.4.1.4 Equity and advocacy

Although KS/FL instructors are equipped with higher qualifications and more background knowledge than before, and although Korean programs are growing and now

typically offer multiple levels of courses, equity and advocacy of the instructors remain an issue. A panel discussion was held on this topic during the AATK annual conference in 2015. Even with highly qualified teachers and growing recognition of programs, the panel discussion leaders acknowledged that Korean programs are still struggling to gain more visibility be heard within their institutions. Another challenge that was discussed during this meeting pertained to the insufficient number of faculty, leading to heavy teaching and administrative workloads. Wang's (2014) survey results also support that only 15 to 20 percent of KFL educators are hired at the professor rank. Participants agreed that establishing more permanent faculty positions would help alleviate some of the problems (Petrikis, 1995, as cited in Wang, 2014), but this solution would also lead to further challenges, such as budgets and difficulty gaining understanding from administration about the need of additional teaching staff due to lower enrollment compared to other MCTLs.

In summary, the challenges experienced in the KFL field differ from those observed in other LCTL programs as more KFL instructors and instructor candidates have received training in language pedagogy and possess higher education credentials. Equity and advocacy still remained challenges among university KFL instructors due to relatively lower enrollment numbers compared to other MCTLs. The most common challenge reported was that of heavy teaching loads. These contextual factors (RQ1c) affected pragmatics instruction in classroom more than teachers' beliefs about the importance of pragmatics and pragmatics instruction (RQ1b). This finding follows other researchers' arguments and confirms the role of other mitigating factors (RQ1c) which were found to a greater impact than instructors' beliefs on their classroom practices

(Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003; Choi, 1999; Crooks & Arakaki, 1999; Freeman, 2002; Pajares, 1992; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015; Saydee, 2014; Woods, 1996; Zacharias, 2005; Zhang & Liu, 2013). Furthermore, the observed inconsistencies among the survey responses indicated that there might be other underlying factors affecting the KFL teachers' attitudes and practices of pragmatics instruction.

3.4.2 Pragmatics instruction beliefs and practices

The inconsistency among the survey responses is worth noting because it points to differences between individual participants' beliefs and practices of pragmatics instruction. A few participants stood out as they answered differently for the questions asking them about their degree of satisfaction with the current overall status of pragmatics instruction as well as the amount of time devoted to, and assessment of, pragmatics. These instructors indicated that they were closer to somewhat satisfied as mean value with regard to the current status of pragmatics instruction; however, they were somewhat dissatisfied or neutral with respect to the amount of time spent on and assessment of pragmatic skills. At the same time, relatively more issues were mentioned from the satisfied end group than expected, based on their positive responses. The inconsistency derived from a combination of different aspects. One aspect might be the respondents' higher expectations, as Wang (2014) argued. Wang (2014) surmised that her survey participants in 2012 had higher expectations regarding the quality of Korean programs as they had more teaching experience and Korea and Korean language had gained more recognition around the world; according to Wang, these developments led to an increase in respondents who answered "not sure" in response the question about their satisfaction with the current status of Korean programs in 2012 compared to the 2006

survey. The current survey was conducted two years later, following a period in which KFL continued to gain recognition and experienced yet more enrollment growth. Like the participants in Wang (2014), the respondents of the current survey may have higher expectations when it comes to pragmatics instruction, in line with the growing needs of well-articulated KFL programs to accommodate growing enrollment and students' expectations. This may have caused somewhat dissatisfied and neutral responses to the questions about teaching time and assessment. However, the respondents may have given more positive answers, or socially desirable answers, to the current overall status satisfaction question than to the questions about their satisfaction to teaching time and assessment as they interpreted the question about their satisfaction with overall program status as an evaluation of their own pragmatics teaching (Tourangeau & Yan, 2007) and because "I [instructors] do what I [they] can" under the current circumstances and perceived limitations.

Another possible contributing factor to the inconsistency is the lack of exposure to pragmatics instruction among teachers. Teachers' exposure to pragmatics instruction includes previous experiences both as learners and as teachers. As learners, they may have taken foreign language classes that paid limited attention to pragmatics compared to other areas such as grammar and vocabulary, considering most of the participants received secondary education in public schools in Korea. Therefore, the instructors had weak schooling experiences (Borg, 2006) in pragmatics as a basis of their beliefs development. Moreover, postsecondary studies do not necessarily provide sufficient exposure to pragmatics either. KFL teachers appear to be better prepared nowadays as is attested by their knowledge of second language acquisition (SLA) theories and foreign

language teaching approaches and methodologies, as mentioned above (National Institute of Korean Language, 2010, 2016). In fact, eighty-seven percent of the current study's respondents had majored in SLA or linguistics for their Master's or doctoral degrees. During their studies, they may have learned about pragmatics in workshops, courses, or a part of course, as discussed by Vasquez and Sharpless (2009), who found that postgraduate studies include pragmatics as part of the curriculum to varying degrees. This experience may have affected their beliefs and attitudes toward the importance of pragmatics.

Like the English as a Second Language learners in Vasquez and Sharpless (2009), who attribute more importance to pragmatics than native English speaker peers, all participants in the present study also perceived pragmatics as a crucial aspect of learning a foreign language. However, their beliefs about the need of in-class instruction did not mirror their beliefs about the importance of pragmatics. In-class instruction responses varied from *sometimes* to *most of the times* to *always*. Those who thought pragmatics to be *somewhat important* believed that pragmatics should be taught in class *sometimes* (80%) or *most of the time* (20%). There were some people who believed pragmatics is *extremely important* but should be taught only *sometimes* (20%) in class. However, no apparent differences could be established among each group in terms of contextual aspects, including participant demographic and program characteristics. The limited previous exposure to pragmatics as learners might contribute to the inconsistency between teachers' beliefs about the importance of pragmatics and the perceived need of in-class instruction.

As teachers, the participants of the current study might have limited opportunities to reflect on their own beliefs, attitudes, and practices of pragmatics instruction. In other words, it is possible that the respondents had not had a chance to thoroughly think about and/or articulate pragmatics teaching prior to this survey. It is also possible that the Korean instructors did not receive sufficient hands-on or practical training in how to incorporate pragmatics and/or activities in class. The responses to the questions regarding challenges in pragmatics teaching support this claim. The participants recognized that the lack of training is one of the issues that they experienced, along with teaching time and materials. These issues are interconnected. To integrate pragmatics instruction into the current prevalent textbook-driven approach, instructors should be equipped with expertise in teaching pragmatics, especially when the textbooks do not emphasize pragmatics. If they lack this expertise, lesson planning and preparation likely requires more time and may cause frustration among instructors. In addition, a lack of expertise would work as a barrier to implementation of a teaching approach in class even if teachers believe the approach in question is more effective (Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014). The survey participants also felt that developing lesson plans with “more pragmatics instruction” and activities that “connect my teaching with the real world” and “student’s experience” require more preparation time. Moreover, it would be easier for the teachers to resort to following textbook activities in sequence when there are external pressures to finish the assigned chapters than to add and implement something that they are unsure of. Unfortunately, it is difficult to claim that theoretical knowledge would automatically be transferred to classroom practices (Peacock, 2001; Richards & Pennington, 1998).

3.4.3 Implications: Need for practical trainings and pragmatics-rich textbook

These findings call for the need for practical training focused on implementation of target methods in class and reflection on one's own teaching practices, as such training can help teachers acquire the necessary expertise (Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013). Administrators' support is important when it comes to the incorporation of different teaching approaches into the curriculum and the availability of professional development opportunities (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Lam, 2000; Lee, 2011; Tsui, 1996). Byon (2004) also asserted the importance of administrators' support to curriculum development and suggested that overall attitudes of administrators and those who are responsible for curriculum and teaching approaches toward pragmatics need to change in order to more effectively promote pragmatics instruction in the KFL field. On a positive note, the analysis of the survey showed that respondents who held administrative positions believed that pragmatics should be taught in class (*most of the time*, mean = 4.29) more than those who do not have administrative duties (*sometimes*, mean = 3.85). With the help of the administrators, KFL educators could plan and offer workshops and trainings focusing on how to incorporate pragmatics instruction into the current textbook-oriented curriculum. Given the prevalent textbook-driven model in the field, the development of a textbook that emphasizes pragmatics could also help the instructors to bridge the gap between their beliefs and practices.

3.5 Limitations

One obvious limitation of the current study regards sample size, which is relatively small. Even though the survey results provided a somewhat general picture of instructors and administration demographics, program characteristics, and pragmatics

instruction, it is difficult to extend the study's results to every Korean program in the U.S. The current study had about twenty participants. Compared to other survey research (Byon, 2008; Richards, 2002; Silva, 2007; Wang, 2014), this study had half or one-third of the number of participants though it had more respondents with doctoral degrees and working at 4-year public universities. A more complete picture of Korean programs in the US universities and colleges would have been available if more participants and more quantitative and qualitative data. However, the current survey results made contribution to the literature by revealing the emerging needs and trends in the field at 4-year public universities because of this particular participants demographic.

A second limitation of this study concerns population. I cannot say that I reached the intended target population to represent administrative staff because the participants in the administrative category are instructors who have administrative duties. In other words, they were instructors who are also coordinators for the program instead of coordinators or directors with more administrative decision-making power. This study's original goal was to get information from those who are not involved with Korean language course teaching as well as from those who are working as both instructors and administrators, such as my LPD/A/C group respondents. Therefore, the results from the administrative group cannot be interpreted and be representative as pure administrative staffs' point of view. To understand administrative position personnel who are separated from teaching positions and/or Korean language teaching, future studies need to conduct surveys with purposive sampling method for participants.

Another limitation is that there might be misinterpretation in survey questions among the respondents in the program characteristic section. The questions asked

whether the program provided documents related to teaching such as curriculum, syllabus, and lesson plans to instructors, and the instructors need to follow strictly. Most of the respondents reported that there are such policies in their institution *always* or *often*. However, in the instructors' roles and responsibilities section, they reported that they are responsible for creating and/or updating those abovementioned documents *always* or *often*. There is a chance that the respondents misinterpreted the question in a way that programs provided those document to students rather than to instructors themselves and checked they *always* or *often* provide those documents to students and most of them were *always* responsible to create them to execute in their own teaching.

Research design might be another possible limitation. Attitudes and beliefs are complex entities by their nature. It is difficult to make conclusions by self-reported multiple choice questionnaire responses alone. In fact, many studies investigating beliefs and attitudes were done through case study methods instead of survey (see Basturkmen, 2012). In this study, the survey included open-ended questionnaires to capture qualitative data as well. However, some respondents answered using the example wordings given in the questions. As a result, some open-ended questions yielded somewhat quantitative data instead of true qualitative data that the current research expected to find. In the following chapter, I investigated further on how beliefs and attitudes toward pragmatics and contexts and institution characteristics interact with in-class pragmatics instruction practice via interviewing five volunteers among the current survey participants. Therefore, more in depth discussion on how these elements play a role in teaching practice will be provided in the next chapter.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter presented survey results to provide an overall picture of Korean programs at the tertiary level institutions in the US and how pragmatics instruction practice interacted with LPD/A/C and instructors' beliefs and attitudes and contexts. All but one respondent were native Korean speaker. Average respondent was working at four-year public universities with at least a Master's degree. The participants' Korean programs were somewhat established offering 400-level courses with less than 100 students. The respondents were experienced teachers and had autonomy over their own classes with guidance from the programmatic level at some degree. All the respondents believed pragmatics is important, varied from somewhat to extremely, and believed that pragmatics should be taught in class. No significant relationship was found between how the KFL educators think about the importance of pragmatics and how they actually teach pragmatics in-class (RQ1b). In addition, their beliefs about how often pragmatics should be taught in-class and their pragmatics instruction classroom practice was found to be independent from each other (RQ1b). This finding supports that there are other mitigating factors (RQ 1c) between beliefs and classroom practices, and it had more impact than their beliefs on their classroom practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003; Choi, 1999; Crooks & Arakaki, 1999; Freeman, 2002; Pajares, 1992; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015; Saydee, 2014; Woods, 1996; Zacharias, 2005; Zhang & Liu, 2013). Surface factors found in the survey responses were time constraints and professional development opportunities. The teachers experienced time constraints due to heavy teaching load and number of textbook chapters to finish to follow set curriculum of the department, and professional development opportunities such as workshops helped the

instructors to implement certain teaching techniques in class. The instructors were neutral or satisfied with the current status of their pragmatics instruction even though there are challenges that they were aware of. Even though the abovementioned limitations were present, the findings from this study contribute to the limited body of research on the Korean programs in the US and on the LCTLs teachers' beliefs and pedagogic practice (Byon, 2004, 2008; Richards, 2002, Silva, 2007; Wang, 2014). The next chapter will explore teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward pragmatics instruction and their teaching practice more in depth through analysis of interviews.

Chapter 4: Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) Instructors' Cognition on Pragmatics and Pragmatics Instruction

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 surveyed Korean as a foreign language (KFL) programs at tertiary level institutions, and roles and responsibilities of KFL instructors and administrators. Teachers' and administrators' beliefs and attitudes toward pragmatics and pragmatics instruction were also surveyed. Beliefs and attitudes are complex entities because they are shaped dynamically, both influencing and being influenced by many factors. A questionnaire provides a relatively static measure of such dynamic features, thus it is not sufficient to provide a whole picture. Therefore, using a questionnaire alone to capture beliefs has been less favored than implementing multiple instruments (Basturkmen, 2012). Along the same line, theories-in-use will not be captured and one cannot understand the in-classroom practice if beliefs and attitudes are researched via a questionnaire only (Argyris & Schon, 1974) because "when people were asked how they would act, people give their espoused theory, the theory of action to which they pledge allegiance, but the theory that actually governs their action and behavior is their theory-in-use which may or may not be compatible their espoused theory" (Klein 2004, p 285-286). Phipps and Borg (2009) echoed that beliefs elicited through questionnaires may reflect teachers' theoretical or idealistic beliefs. However, beliefs articulated through the discussion of actual classroom practices may be based more on reality and reflect teachers' practical or experiential knowledge, rather than their ideals. With this understanding, the current chapter analyzes follow-up interviews which were conducted after the survey. The interviews further investigated 1) KFL instructors' and administrators' cognition about pragmatics (espoused theory); 2) in-class pragmatic

instructions (theory-in-use) as an individual teacher and a group of professionals; and 3) interaction among contributing factors, espoused theories, and theories-in-use of cognition about pragmatics and pragmatics instruction. This study aims to answer the following research questions:

RQ2a: What factors contribute to KFL instructors' beliefs about pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction?

RQ2b: How do beliefs about pragmatics shape in-class pragmatics instruction?

RQ2c: Are the beliefs about pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction and actual classroom practice consistent?

First, I present the methodology of this study. Then, each teacher's profiles is provided based on the analysis of interview data. The profiles are presented following four factors of Borg's framework (2006) as Figure 4.1 below: *Schooling*, *Professional Coursework*, *Contextual Factors*, and *Classroom Practice* (see section 2.3.2). After summary of the profiles, the interviewees' espoused theories and theories-in-use of pragmatics and pragmatics instruction are reviewed to answer the research questions. Discussion, limitations, and implications of the current study follow.

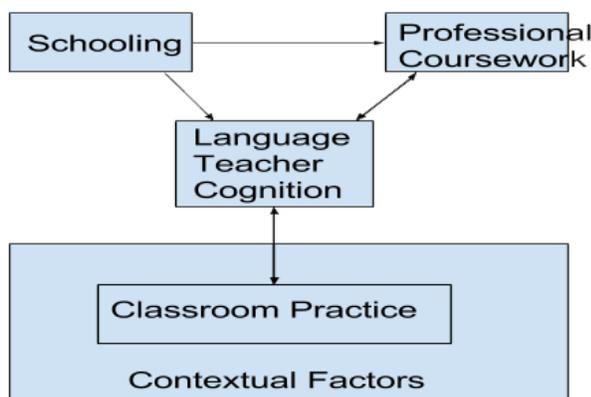


Figure 4.1 Borg's Framework on Language Teacher Cognition (2006).

4.2 Methodology

To better understand relationship between beliefs and practice of pragmatics instruction and the factors shaping beliefs, a mixed method design of data collection and analysis were used (Basturkmen, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Quantitative data were collected from the survey. Qualitative data, the analytic object of the current chapter, were collected through individual interviews and open-ended questions from the survey.

4.2.1 Participants

The participants were recruited through the survey described in Chapter 3. At the end of the survey, a question asked participants whether they were willing to participate in a follow-up interview. They were asked to leave their email address if they wanted to be interviewed. Since the question was shown to all survey participants regardless of their current position, the researcher planned to include only those who had KFL teaching experience at a tertiary level institution due to the scope of the research questions for this chapter. Participant demographics are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 *Participant Demographics*

Name	Age	Years of experience	Degree	Degree Major	Institution Type	Current Position	Current Teaching Level
Amy	30-39	3-5 years	MA	Language education	Public	Lecturer	Advanced 300 and up
Bella	40-49	3-5 years	PhD	Comparative literature	Public	Assistant professor Program coordinator	Advanced 300 and up
Cathy	30-39	3-5 years	PhD	Applied linguistics	Public	Lecturer Program coordinator	Elementary and intermediate
David	40-49	3-5 years	MA	KFL pedagogy	Public	Lecturer	Elementary and intermediate
Ed	30-39	3-5 years	PhD	Linguistics	Public	Professor	Elementary and intermediate

4.2.2 Instrumentation

In addition to analysis of the participants' survey responses, semi-structured, in-depth individual interviews were conducted. I asked the participants to be specific in their responses to understand socio-contextual factors and their beliefs about pragmatics instruction practice. Informed by Borg (2003, 2006), I posed additional questions to find out the participants' previous foreign language learning experience, because this is one of the crucial factors shaping beliefs. The interview protocol consisted of six main questions: 1) demographic, 2) prior foreign language learning and teaching experience, 3) roles and responsibilities regarding curriculum decision making at the current employed institution, 4) in which area KFL learners should focus on to be proficient, 5) beliefs toward pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction, and 6) in-class pragmatics instruction reflection.

4.2.3 Data collection

Data for this study were collected via both the survey and interviews. The survey provided quantitative data regarding the 5 participants' demographic information (Table 4.1) and beliefs and attitudes toward pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction (Table 4.2). The individual interviews provided qualitative data on the participants' prior foreign language learning experience, filled the gaps of the survey responses, and provided richer ideas on what the participants' beliefs are about pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction.

After the survey was closed in September 2014, the responses to the interview participant recruiting question were collected. There were a total of 7 participants. Two interviewees were excluded from this chapter for the purpose of having a more controlled and uniform teaching context, a four-year university. One participant shared her teaching at secondary level institutions rather than her teaching experience at a four-year university where she was working, even though she was redirected to the target institution level of students. Another participant was teaching at a community college. The volunteers were contacted via email individually to set up a date for the interview. A reminder email with their survey responses attached was sent to each participant two days prior to the interview date. The participants were given options: face-to-face, Skype, or phone interview. One interview was done face-to-face. Five participants were interviewed through Skype. One interview was conducted over the telephone due to a technical problem. Interviews lasted 30 to 50 minutes. The participants had options to choose interview language between Korean and English because English was the participants' second language, and using first language would make it easier to articulate

one's cognition. All participants chose to be interviewed in Korean. The interviews were recorded with a built-in audio recording software of the researcher's laptop and desktop computers (QuickTime Player) and were transcribed in Korean to keep the accuracy of the participants' thought processes and responses. Excerpts, quoted in later sections, were selected and then translated into English.

4.2.4 Data analysis

The analysis of interview data used grounded theory, or a constant comparative method guided by the 5 elements of Borg's framework (2003, 2006): *cognition*, *schooling*, *professional coursework*, *contextual factors*, and *classroom practice*. For the scope of this chapter, *schooling* was limited to foreign language learning. *Professional coursework* was renamed *Professional coursework and experience* to include previous teaching experiences, because teachers rely on experiential learning, and this provides professional knowledge as it becomes internalized over time (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001; Borg & Burns, 2008; Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014). *Contextual factors* included institutional setting, course offerings, constraints, roles and responsibilities, and so on. *Classroom practice* focused on current practice of TKFL and pragmatics teaching. The interview transcripts and recordings were reviewed to organize the data into the five categories. Under each category, more descriptive codes were given and grouped into emergent themes:

- Cognition/Beliefs (b)
 - On pragmatics (bp)
 - On in-class pragmatics teaching (bip)
- Schooling (s)

- Institutional setting (s-i)
- Personal experience (s-p)
- Professional coursework (p)
 - KFL teaching experience (p-tk)
 - Teaching experience other than KFL (p-to)
 - Graduate coursework (p-g)
 - Workshop or training (p-w)
- Contextual factors (c)
 - Curriculum (c-c)
 - Administration (c-a)
 - Students (c-s)
 - Roles and responsibilities (c-r)
 - Teaching levels (c-l)
 - Textbook/materials (c-m)
 - In class Time (c-t)
 - Professional development offered at work (c-pw)
 - Teacher's personal life (c-pl)
 - Extra-curricular activities (c-e)
 - Coworkers/teachers/personnel (c-p)
- Classroom practice (t)
 - Activities (t-a)
 - Approaches/methodologies (t-am)
 - Materials (t-m)

- Assessment (t-t)

4.3 Findings

This section presents findings from the individual interview data to answer the research questions:

RQ2a: What factors contribute to KFL instructors' beliefs about pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction?

RQ2b: How do beliefs about pragmatics shape in-class pragmatics instruction?

RQ2c: Are the beliefs about pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction and actual classroom practice consistent?

First, each interviewee's profiles is provided to answer the research question 2a, categorized by four categories of Borg's framework (2006): *schooling, professional coursework and experience, contextual factors, and classroom practice*. The research questions 2b and 2c are answered in the *cognition* section, where each teacher's espoused theories and theories-in-use of pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction are discussed. Next, a summary of interviewees' responses is presented to provide a better understanding of an overall picture of each factor affecting cognitions as a group of professionals.

4.3.1 Amy: Pragmatics in theory, grammar in practice

Amy was in her early thirties, pursuing her doctorate degree in the field of language education. She taught advanced Korean at a four-year public university on the upper east coast as a graduate teaching assistant (TA). She came to the US for her post-graduate degree after she earned her bachelor's degree in Korea. It was her third year in her doctoral program. In the survey, she reported that pragmatics is extremely important

for being a competent foreign language speaker, and pragmatics should be taught sometimes in class.

4.3.1.1 Schooling

English was the only foreign language that she could speak other than Korean. Her foreign language learning experience was similar to what typical Korean college students at her age range would experience with one extra experience, study abroad. Her middle school and high school English classes put more emphasis on written competency than spoken language competency. Another emphasis was on test preparation for the college entrance exam. Her college English courses focused on grammar and preparation for proficiency tests such as the Test Of English for International Communication (TOEIC). TOEIC is a standardized test that Korean society uses most to measure English proficiency. In addition to middle school and high school English curriculum and college English courses, she had one year-long study abroad for English language. She shared that her study abroad experience in the US helped her English proficiency more than her English courses from school.

4.3.1.2 Professional coursework and experience

Her professional coursework included coursework during her Master's and Doctoral programs, previous teaching experience, and teacher training. Her Master's degree and Doctoral degree majors were in the language education field. The survey had a definition of pragmatics, and interviewees were asked whether or not there was something they wanted to change or add. She was the only one who articulated a definition of pragmatics of her own. She informed the interviewer that she completed a pragmatics course with one of the researchers actively studying pragmatics in KFL. Her

teaching experience in an institutional setting began with her graduate study. She was a teaching assistant and her main role was assisting a distance learning class. She was in charge of managing a remote campus classroom. The main campus and the remote campus had the same course schedule and the two classrooms were connected via video conferencing technology. She helped set up the conferencing for the remote campus students and helped them when they had questions. She also participated in the teacher meetings for the main campus KFL program. She taught the elementary level at another nearby four-year public university one semester before joining her Doctorate program. When she first started the current position “the syllabus was given to me. At first, I just followed the syllabus exactly. I had training, observation about a month.” Prior to the current teaching position, she had one month of teacher training, which involves mainly observation of other classes.

4.3.1.3 Contextual factors

Amy brought up several contextual factors during the interview. Her institution was a four-year public university where she was pursuing her doctorate degree in language education. The Korean program offered a minor in Korean. All levels of Korean language classes were offered as well as workshops and independent study courses. There were approximately 75 students in her Korean program. She did not know how this curriculum had been developed and never had a conversation about curriculum with other teachers and/or the department chair. She was in charge of teaching advanced language courses. Similar to other KFL instructors from the survey, she had autonomy over decision-making in regards to teaching materials, including textbook, lesson plans, teaching approaches and methodologies, and assessments. Integrated Korean Advanced

series, 1st edition was the textbook, and it had been used as the main textbook before she started to teach the course. She had a mixed opinion about the textbook:

I've been using the textbook because it is really good, but if you look at the book from the pragmatics point of view... They are natural dialogues but implied or metaphoric expressions... these things are lacking and there are many parts that don't mirror authentic conversation.

She thought that the textbook dialogues were linguistically appropriate but did not reflect authentic conversation between native Koreans.

Another aspect affecting her teaching practice decision was students' varying proficiency level from class to class. She specifically mentioned that she was considering changing assessment because "the overall students' Korean proficiency this semester was lower than previous semester students." She was *somewhat satisfied* with the current status of pragmatics instruction in her department. Her major concern toward pragmatics instruction was that her students did not have enough time to practice and to be exposed to Korean language. Her class met three times a week for an hour. She thought that her student did not retain most of the previous lessons once they stepped out of the classroom, and she could not see any improvement in the students' Korean language proficiency. Thus, she suggested that the department should offer opportunities where students could be exposed to Korean language and culture more, such as conversation partnerships with native speakers, especially with KFL teachers, and/or multimedia spaces where students could watch Korean TV series and/or movies.

4.3.1.4 Classroom practice

Amy emphasized the importance of vocabulary and grammar as bases of language competency. She preferred audio-lingual methodology to teach vocabulary and grammar. In her opinion, in addition to vocabulary and grammar, students' native language (L1) is what teachers need to utilize in a classroom. As one way to incorporate students' L1 competency, she provided an example of her own class. Her class started with a review of the previous lesson. She described a context, such as refusing a party invitation, where her students could apply vocabulary and grammar structure. Then, she sought students' responses to the context she provided. She would allow all the responses from her students and add her own, and textbook examples to the student-generated list. A comparison activity between students' and native Koreans' responses followed. The activity was done as a whole class with her asking, "How would you turn down or refuse in this situation?"

Her classroom activities were built around the main textbook. Videos and newspapers were other resources she brought into the classroom. With these genuine materials, she "showed my students those clips and explained the contexts and situations", or she researched topics herself and "told my students what I found on the web and books because I think my knowledge is not enough." She did not want to focus on pragmatics too much in class because "there are other important things such as vocabulary, grammar, idioms and proverbs, pronunciation, and conversation practice." She preferred to "teach pragmatics systematically like grammar." She did not want pragmatics to be something that students needed to memorize similar to vocabulary and grammar structure. Rather, she liked to stimulate her students' L1 competency to

generate their own pragmatically appropriate responses as the above example of her class. In this respect, she believed that assessment was unnecessary and assessing pragmatics contradicted her teaching philosophy.

4.3.1.5 Cognition on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction

She reported in the survey that pragmatics is *extremely important* to be a competent foreign language speaker, and she agreed that pragmatics should be taught *sometimes* in class. During the interview, she reaffirmed her espoused theory that pragmatics is *extremely important* when she was asked to confirm her survey response. However, she showed reservations about teaching pragmatics in an elementary level classroom. She believed that linguistic competence should precede pragmatic competence and students cannot produce “a meaningful utterance without enough vocabulary and grammar knowledge.” For elementary level proficiency students, she thought that “it is enough if they can do self-introduction and simple sentences describing stuff only.” In addition, she had the same concerns with her own students and class. There were other aspects of language to cover in class and her students’ Korean proficiency was lower than that of previous semesters’ students. Due to these constraints, she did not have enough time to teach pragmatics inductively and all she could do was “show video clips with short description of contexts.” Even though her espoused theory of frequency of in-class pragmatics instruction is congruent with her practice, inconsistency was observed regarding the type of pragmatics instruction, as she integrated activities with more deductive approach than inductive.

4.3.1.6 Summary

There was inconsistency between her espoused theory and theory-in-use on the importance of pragmatics. She thought that pragmatics was *extremely important* but this was not applied to all proficiency levels. Also, pragmatics was not important enough to be covered in class as much as vocabulary and grammar. Thus, pragmatics should be taught *sometimes* in class. The interview revealed that contextual factors, especially student issues, attributed most to her classroom practice. For example, she needed to focus more on grammar and vocabulary rather than pragmatics even though she taught the advanced level because of her students' proficiency level. Her professional coursework, especially graduate coursework, had the most effect on her espoused theory, that is utilization of L1 and importance of pragmatics.

4.3.2 Bella: We need pragmatics, but I'm too busy

Bella was an assistant professor at a four-year public university in the Western United States. She was also a program coordinator for the Korean program in her department. She taught advanced proficiency level class at the time of the interview. Her survey responses indicated that she believed that pragmatics is *extremely important* to be a competent foreign language speaker, and pragmatics should be taught *most of the time* in class.

4.3.2.1 Schooling

Bella is English-Korean bilingual. Her parents were native English speakers. She was born and grew up in Korea until she was a teenager. She has proficiency in French and Chinese. Her schooling experience related to foreign language learning is unique. She studied French on her own while she was homeschooled in her high school years and

while she was in college. Then, she went to Taiwan to teach English and acquired Chinese language. She continued taking French courses during her graduate studies. She believed that her immersive learning experience in Taiwan helped her learn French. She shared that she “learned how to study a foreign language” and could apply the methods when she was learning French later. These methods helped build automaticity of her French proficiency. This idea echoed during her interview when she was asked about her students; her students did not have concrete ideas on how to study a language. Her friend also affected why she believed pragmatics is extremely important. Her friend, a genius in language, according to Bella, could speak about 20 languages. Her Korean proficiency was excellent in grammar and vocabulary. However, from Bella’s perspective, her friend ignored pragmatics, thus Korean native speakers perceived her friend’s utterances rather “too direct and rude.”

4.3.2.2 Professional coursework and experience

Bella has a PhD in Comparative Literature. Her professional coursework relating to foreign language teaching involves actual teaching experience rather than classes such as methodology of teaching a foreign language. She had been teaching KFL for 3-5 years, according to her survey response. She taught KFL as a private tutor before her doctoral studies. Her first KFL teaching at an institutional setting was as she started her PhD course work at a four-year public university. She also taught English as a Foreign Language and Chinese as a Foreign Language before she started to teach KFL.

4.3.2.3 Contextual factors

Bella’s institution is a four-year public university. The Korean program offered all proficiency level classes from elementary to advanced, and other courses such as Korean

culture through literature and Korean history. There were 75 to 100 students taking Korean courses. Students at the institution could earn a minor in Korean Studies. Curriculum in her program was based on a textbook series. The program used the *Integrated Korean* series published by the University of Hawaii. The first semester used *Integrated Korean Beginning 1*, the second semester used *Integrated Korean Beginning 2*, the third semester used *Intermediate 1*, and the fourth semester used *Intermediate 2*. Bella shared that the curriculum was set before she joined the program.

When she first joined the program, she was hired not only as an assistant professor but also as a program coordinator for the Korean program. She had a chance to update the curriculum, but she did not make any changes except to update the textbook to the second edition of the same textbook series for the beginning and intermediate levels. She saw herself as “a newcomer” at her school and saw another Korean teacher who had been there before she joined the program as “a senior”:

Of course I came in as a representative, but because I am a newcomer, I’m a newcomer here and other professor is a senior, I was not in the position of changing the curriculum even if I wanted to because of this.

Due to this dynamic, she thought that she “was not in the position” where she could change the curriculum even if she wanted to. As for the advanced level she had been teaching, she changed the textbook a few times to meet the needs of her students. Other instructors’ qualification is another factor she provided as a reason for her limited intervention to curriculum. There were 6 instructors including Bella. Two graduate students were majoring in Education, one instructor was majoring in Teaching KFL in Korea before she joined the team, and one instructor had earned a PhD degree in

Teaching KFL in Korea. She said that her program was “lucky to have such qualified teachers,” reflecting teacher qualification issues in LCTL programs.

Other contextual factors Bella mentioned were students, teaching materials, lack of time to develop teaching materials, and limited in-class time. Particular to her institution, Bella thought that there were more students who visited Korea for a longer period of time than students in other institutions at the third year advanced level. This posed a large gap in terms of proficiency between the students with study abroad experience and the students without. On top of this, the textbook introduced limited speech styles with limited context or background information. Due to the textbook’s limited interpersonal situations, that is, between peers and between a student and a professor, students were exposed to mostly casual speech style and polite form. Bella perceived this as problematic because that textbook limited students’ exposure to speech styles varieties, and students were not provided with enough knowledge about each speech style. Even though she was aware of the problem with the textbook, due to other responsibilities including her own research, she “cannot invest too much time” to develop teaching materials. She also thought that her students were not given enough in-class time to study a language within the American college system. Therefore, she would like to see a language resource center established so that her students could study KFL outside of class with abundant genuine material resources.

4.3.2.4 Classroom practice

The textbook was the main resource in Bella’s classroom practice. She occasionally brought in another KFL grammar book, but rarely used video clips or other genuine materials because “it takes a lot of time to prepare the materials.” She shared that

she “like[s] teaching language and want[s] to devote time on teaching, but cannot”, because of her other responsibilities. One extra lesson she prepared in the beginning of the semester for her class beyond the textbook was a “grammar lesson” regarding speech styles. She used deductive instruction on different speech styles, providing rules and detailed context explanation about where each speech style can be used. She preferred formative assessment, but, in her classroom, speech styles were assessed summatively as a part of writing or role-play assignments at the end of each chapter. She also remarked that she did not have clear ideas on how to assess pragmatics.

4.3.2.5 Cognition on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction

Bella believed that pragmatics is *extremely important* for being a competent speaker of Korean, and that pragmatics should be taught *most of the time* in class. Her observation of her friend’s usage of Korean, and a possible extended schooling factor from Borg (2006), contributed most to her beliefs towards pragmatics in Korean. As mentioned above, her friend used grammatically perfect Korean sentences without acknowledging social distance and social position between herself and listeners, leading to pragmatically failed conversation and losing face. *Nunchi* is a Korean social concept Bella brought up to emphasize the importance of pragmatics to KFL learners. *Nunchi* is ability to read the situation and the interlocutors’ mood and then be able to act accordingly. Pragmatics is a core part of *nunchi*. She believed that KFL learners should focus on sociopragmatics more and more as their Korean proficiency gets better.

Therefore, her ideal in-class pragmatics instruction emphasized social distance and social position among interlocutors. She would like to expose her students to authentic conversation between native Korean speakers in various contexts through video

clips. After the students comprehend the content, they analyze the social distance and social positions, though she was a bit skeptical about how much her students could successfully conduct the analysis. Then, the students would make their own dialogues using appropriate speech styles based on their analysis. However, her class focused more on pragmalinguistics of speech style as formulae and practice the formulae as grammar lessons even though they were advanced proficiency level students, unlike her espoused theory which is more focused on sociopragmatics as a student advances in proficiency.

4.3.2.6 Summary

To sum up, Bella's interview revealed that her theory-in-use, or teaching practice, did not always reflect her espoused theory, although she had strong ideas about the importance of pragmatics and that pragmatics should be taught from the beginning:

We teach greeting from the very first class in elementary level. I think it's important to seed concept about pragmatics as we shape class atmosphere reflecting Korean culture.... Of course, in the beginning level, we teach just a part of whole Korean structure, but the part should include all the important stuffs even just a little bit. It is the most important thing.... It is systematic and complex at the same time. I think we should emphasize pragmatics such as all different speech styles at the same time....

The extra lessons on speech style at the beginning of each semester mirror her espoused theory. However, as she reported, her in-class pragmatics instruction was largely based on the textbook and pragmalinguistics. This contradicts her beliefs about the ideal pragmatics learning experience for her students, which is developing *nunchi* and being exposed to various authentic situations as much as possible to understand

sociopragmatics. The main contextual factor for the incongruence was her roles and responsibilities other than teaching. She could not allocate enough time to prepare materials to teach the way she wanted to due to other job responsibilities as an assistant professor and a program coordinator.

4.3.3 Cathy: Meeting students' expectations, one new expression (from the textbook) at a time

Cathy was in her thirties with a PhD in Second Language Studies. She had been a lecturer and a Korean program coordinator at a four-year public university on the east coast for about two years. She was the only Korean faculty in her department at the time of the interview. The department offered only elementary and intermediate levels and she was in charge of all four classes with one teaching assistant (TA). Her survey responses indicated that she believed that pragmatics is *extremely important* for being a competent foreign language speaker and pragmatics should be taught *most of the time* in class.

4.3.3.1 Schooling

Her schooling factor directly related to learning a foreign language was experience with English as a foreign language. Similar to Amy, most of her English learning took place in the public school system in Korea. The main focus was grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension to pass a college entrance exam. After she graduated from high school, she took English conversation classes in Korea. The conversation classes were typical English as a Second Language conversation classes where an English native speaker led the class with a small group of people.

4.3.3.2 Professional coursework and experience

Cathy's professional coursework involved graduate studies and teaching experience. She earned a doctorate degree in applied linguistics, Second Language Studies. She took courses on second language pedagogy and taught English as a Second Language courses, but her main research area was sociolinguistics. She had been taught KFL for almost 3 years at the time of the interview. Her first two years of teaching KFL was at a private four-year university. She was in charge of one KFL class with a graduate teaching assistant. After that, she was hired as a lecturer and a program coordinator at her current institution, a public four-year university. It was her third semester. They offered only elementary and intermediate level classes, according to her survey response. There were four classes, two per level. Cathy was in charge of all four courses. She had a TA to help with grading and tutoring.

4.3.3.3 Contextual factors

The Korean program at Cathy's institution was at the start of developing and expanding the program. The institution wanted her to help to make their KFL program more systematic. At the time of the interview, Cathy had been hired as a lecturer and a Korean program coordinator about one year ago. The program was adding one more course in the next semester. Due to the course addition, the department was considering recruitment of one more instructor. She was in charge of all course offerings, including curriculum development. Before Cathy joined the program, there was no official curriculum besides assigned textbooks because there was not a person dedicated to the Korean program, such as a coordinator or a faculty member. Korean classes were taught by TAs. They were assigned to teach a course each. Japanese instructor was coordinating

Korean program. Before her arrival, “Nothing much was done... but um... just like other schools, other Asian language instructors were coordinating Korean program.”

Other contextual factors Cathy brought up were teaching materials, time constraints for instructors due to teaching load, and students due to big classroom size, meeting times, and student interests. She acknowledged that there were not enough teaching materials for pragmatics. She did not have time to develop materials because she was teaching four courses at the time of the interview. Korean courses at the institution were offered three days a week. Cathy thought that, in class, there was not enough time to do “something extra” other than covering textbook content. Bigger classroom size than in private universities allowed limited time for teachers and students to communicate. She would like to use a textbook organized by theme and usage rather than the current textbook that she was using. Cathy’s student factor provided new insight to current student demographic trends. She believed that students had gaining more opportunities to travel or study abroad in Korea nowadays compared to previous years. This trend led to more interest in learning pragmatics at a lower level, even from the first semester students. Pragmatics was a part of the advanced level curriculum, but she was trying to introduce pragmatics at a lower proficiency level due to the students’ requests.

4.3.3.4 Classroom practice

The textbook, Integrated Korean series, and video clips were the main teaching resource for Cathy. Video clips were used to show how native Koreans use the “New Expression” phrases in the textbook chapters in context. The video clips were excerpts from Korean TV series. After watching the clips, she provided details of the context and asked students to use the phrases in the given contexts. Discussion of different contexts

was followed from time to time. Since she considered the “New Expression” section of the textbook as target pragmatics points her students to learn, she was able to introduce authentic language use at least once a week. However, she was dissatisfied with the time devoted to pragmatics because there was not enough time to do any extended activities around the target expressions. She preferred alternative assessment to measure pragmatics learning using role-play instead of a sit-down exam. She believed that assessing how a student could “perform the language” is more useful and is needed more than assessing declarative knowledge of pragmatics.

4.3.3.5 Cognition on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction

Cathy perceived that pragmatics is *extremely important* for being a competent foreign language speaker and pragmatics should be taught *most of the time* in class. Her beliefs towards pragmatics were based on her native speaker’s intuition. She shared that there are “characteristics unique to Korean language compare to other foreign languages” and that “Korean language is more tightly related to culture.” By unique characteristic and culture, she was referring to interpersonal dynamics, especially the polite end of speech style spectrum, as her example of what ideal in-class pragmatics instruction would reveal. Expression was the other term she often used to referring to pragmatics. Her espoused theory, that pragmatics, or unique Korean expressions, are important, was consistent with her theory-in-use, teaching pragmatics most of the time by spending special attention to the “New Expression.” This congruence was attributed to one particular contextual factor, students’ interests:

It’s important to know a lot of vocabulary and expressions that only the Korean language has. College students like learning about them.... I think pragmatics is

what KFL students want to learn but think it is difficult to learn at the same time. So, I'm trying to add such a thing [pragmatics] in my class as much as I can... there is a lot of demand... they want to learn those expressions and how to use them in what context. I'm trying to teach the expressions a lot because beginning level students want to learn about them and have a lot of interests.

Her analysis of the students' needs was based on her own students' report. Her previous KFL teaching experience, a part of her professional coursework, made it possible for her to identify her students' needs and interests and design her classroom practice.

Furthermore, she emphasized that "it is important to use it in addition to learning the expressions and learning how to express according to the context because communicating in real life is the ultimate purpose of KFL students" when she was asked to confirm her survey response on the importance of pragmatics. Her in-class activities she described was reflecting her espoused theory:

I ask students to use it in class. They practice the expressions within the contexts I describe... It would be better if they can use outside of the classroom as well as in class.

However, limited in-class time did not allow her to incorporate more extended activities that her students could engage in speaking.

4.3.3.6 Summary

In summary, Cathy's theory-in-use was consistent with her espoused theory. The theories were aligned with each other in terms of what pragmatics features in Korean she saw as important to teach and the objectives of her lessons. In addition, she believed that students' active use of the target expressions was important and her classroom activities

involved students' production as one of the main parts. The factors contributing the most to her espoused theory and theory-in-use were a contextual factor (students' interests), and a professional coursework (previous KFL teaching experience).

4.3.4 David: Setting up the scene as real as possible; something creative is not for the lower level, yet

David was a PhD candidate in East Asian Languages and Literature, focusing on Korean at a four-year public university. He was teaching one elementary and one intermediate language course at the time of the interview. He had been teaching KFL for four years. According to the survey, he believed that pragmatics is *somewhat important* for being a competent speaker of Korean; and it should be taught *sometimes* in class.

4.3.4.1 Schooling

David's schooling factor was based on formal institution classroom only. He studied English following a required curriculum for middle school and high school. His classes were lecture, where the main focus was grammar and short paragraph reading comprehension. There were fifty to sixty students per classroom. Students rarely had chances to actively participate and they were always at the receiving end of information.

My case is the same. If I learned English at a restaurant or at a coffee shop, I could have learned the actual expressions that I could use. Then, I think I would be good, when I'm in the situation later. I'm still having a difficulty ordering food or stuff.

He shared that immersion would be a better experience than his own foreign language education in school.

4.3.4.2 Professional coursework and experience

David's professional coursework consisted of attending college and graduate classes, teaching Korean in Korean high school, and teaching KFL at a college in the U.S. He taught high school Korean for about 10 years before he joined the doctoral program in the U.S. Korean as a subject is different from KFL. High school Korean deals more with literature than language. Both Korean literature and Korean linguistics college credit hours are required to earn the teacher license. David's college coursework were focused on earning the required credit hours for the license. He considered teaching at an institutional setting as the only eligible teaching experience: "Well... I did volunteer here and there in Korea and then here in the U.S... I cannot say I taught KFL in Korea. Teaching KFL in the us is my first time teaching it." He has been a member of the American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK) since he started the PhD program and he was serving as a graduate student representative of the AATK.

4.3.4.3 Contextual factors

David brought up three contextual factors: curriculum, limited in-class time, and personal life. His institution had one of the most established and largest KFL programs in the U.S. The department offered an undergraduate major and a minor in Korean. There were more than 150 students taking Korean classes. The program offered all language proficiency level classes in addition to literature, linguistics, culture, academic Korean, and professional Korean. As the most established KFL program, there was a curriculum set in place. There were less flexibility in terms of textbook selection and assessments since there were other teachers teaching the same level. He believed that pragmatics was

not recognized as much he would like to emphasize. In-class time was limited to include pragmatics to follow the set curriculum:

There are way too many things to do.. We need to give quizzes, need to cover textbook, need to prepare students for the midterm oral exam.... We do student performance after each chapter... They have to change textbook dialogue with their own information, change words here and there, at least change something like numbers in the dialogue, and then perform in front of whole class.... and I need to move on to the next chapter and I need to write my dissertation... you know...

He also brought up his other role, an All But Dissertation (ABD), as one of the contextual factors that made him somewhat dissatisfied about current status of pragmatics in his teaching and about time devoted to pragmatics teaching. He would rather spend time focusing on his dissertation writing than material development for his classes.

4.3.4.4 Classroom practice

As he mentioned, David's classroom practice was focused on textbook coverage and assessments. He said "most of the time, grammar, tests, or activities are the main focus when I teach." He integrated genuine materials, especially video clips, because "it's simple, easy to use, and students like them." Unlike other institutions where only one or a handful of teachers were employed in a KFL program, there were many KFL instructors working together and they had a collection of short video clips. This made video clips more accessible and easy to integrate in the everyday lesson. The video clips were used as a warm up to a deductive grammar lesson in his class:

There is no post activity after watching the clips. Showing the clips provides students opportunities to see the contexts and how it is used in a context. Then, I have them practice the form, and then give a task so that they can pair up and practice.... Sometimes we talk about that like it is used this way and that way... I don't think we do something creative.... That's it... We don't do any extended activities. We don't have time...

The video clips were used to show how native speakers of Korean use the few expressions such as idiomatic formulae in the textbook dialogues.

4.3.4.5 Cognition on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction

David reported that pragmatics is *somewhat important* for being a competent speaker of Korean; and it should be taught *sometimes* in class. His espoused theory observed from the survey and from the interview were conflicting. He verbally expressed throughout the interview that pragmatics is an important aspect of competency. Whereas his survey said *somewhat important*. Therefore, if one followed the espoused theory from the interview, it might seem that the interview somewhat conflicted with his survey results. However, his beliefs about the importance of pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction were aligned with the survey results. I asked him to confirm his response to the importance of pragmatics. He specified that he responded to the question with in-class teaching in mind when the survey question asked the importance of pragmatics for being a competent foreign language speaker. He changed his survey response and asserted the importance of pragmatics based on his schooling by providing his professor's anecdote and his own experience as quoted earlier. Therefore, his espoused theory was that pragmatics is *extremely important*.

In David's own experience, knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary did not transfer automatically in his daily life and he sometimes struggled to order food at a restaurant. He believed that how he learned, memorizing vocabulary and grammar structure in a classroom, affected his automaticity when he was situated in a real life setting. Furthermore, when he was asked "what aspect is most important for KFL students to learn", he was a firm supporter of promoting pragmatics in a classroom and that his students, who are at the beginning and intermediate level, should be exposed to pragmatics in class:

At first, I thought that knowing a lot of grammar and vocabulary is important. It's important but beyond that, what you are doing now, pragmatics is really important. It's important to have the ability to speak according to the situation, appropriate to the context... Well, vocabulary and grammar are important because they are the base frame but um.... However, what makes it [the ability to communicate situation appropriately] possible is providing pragmatics [sic] situation and context. And helping them acquire those [vocabulary and grammar] in the provided situation. This is important.

As he stated that vocabulary and grammar are the base frame, he would like to have his students learn grammar and vocabulary first, before they are exposed to pragmatics instruction or are immersed in David's ideal in-class pragmatics instruction. He believed that "something creative" is "not suitable for 101, 102, 201, 202 students yet." Thus, all the elementary and intermediate proficiency level students were doing was watching the video clips before they practiced grammar points in the textbook. The purpose of pragmatics for him was "helping them acquire" vocabulary and grammar.

David believed that pragmatics should be taught *sometimes* in class, but again he was reluctant to include any extended activities focusing on pragmatics because of a contextual factor, limited in-class time. There was not enough time to include something outside of the pre-decided assignments and assessments. When I asked him whether he wanted to take out any pre-decided assignments, assessment, or activities to include pragmatics instruction, he was also hesitant to devote in-class time to pragmatics instruction:

Well, there's not much to eliminate. Instead of taking out stuff, do those activities with consideration of pragmatics. Something integrating pragmatics rather than focusing on pragmatics alone. Well... I mentioned context before. Everything has a context factor, so I would like to put something in line with that.

This accorded with his beliefs on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction at the lower proficiency level, which was focusing on learning vocabulary and grammar drill activities while providing some fun elements such as video clips for language usage models instead of emphasizing pragmatics. His beliefs led his in-class pragmatics instruction spending more efforts on setting up the classroom as life-like as possible than including any additional activities:

For example, the performance I mentioned. If the conversation is running into each other on a street, we can go there and have class there. We don't have to be stuck in a classroom. Then, I think that's pragmatics. If they are talking about their family, bring their own pictures and show them, or bring tablecloth and coffee and have conversation as if it's real. Then I think that's pragmatics. Or dressing up, you know. Setting up more closely to real-life.

However, his ideas could not be carried out due to limited in-class time and his own responsibility as an ABD. Moreover, the interview revealed his definition of pragmatics. David articulated two factors of pragmatics: context and the relationship between interlocutors:

In the given contexts, you know there are unique characteristics that Korean language has. Honorifics, language usage based on dynamics of interlocutors, refusals... We need to help students to be aware of the context and to be sensitive of the context. Using the language in the certain contexts...

David's idea about pragmatics was heavily focused on the setting: providing an immersive setting or setting up the scene. When he shared his ideal pragmatics instruction, his own schooling experience played a great role. He saw immersion as an ideal setting, contrary to the lack of authentic exposure that his schooling experiences provided. He wanted to "take students to the situation where it happens." He believed that "if the given situations are considered, I think the acquisition would happen easier." In addition, when he applied pragmatics instruction to his current teaching, he focused on setting up the scene with realia to be more interesting to the students and the audience when the students performed their chapter-end role-playing assessment. Interestingly, despite his articulation of context and relationship between interlocutors, both examples of his teaching practice were focused on context only. It seemed like pragmatics, to him, involved setting up the learning location to be as authentic as a real situation, and it ends at providing physical settings. He did not go so far as to make aspects of speakers' relationships explicit. Along the same line, one interesting point was that he used pragmatics as an adjective to the situation and context: However, what makes it [the

ability to communicate situation appropriately] possible is providing pragmatics [sic] situation and context. Based on the interview responses, his theory-in-use definition of pragmatics seemed like real or authentic contexts.

4.3.4.6 Summary

In sum, his espoused theory, that pragmatics is important, and his theory-in-use, that pragmatics should be taught after students have enough linguistic competence, are inconsistent. Schooling factors, his professor's and his own experience, had the most effect on his espoused theory. However, contextual factors, time constraints both in-class and preparation time due to his other responsibility as an ABD, made it hard to carry out his espoused theory. His definition of pragmatics demonstrated differences between his espoused theory and theory-in-use. Both contexts and interlocutors' dynamics were mentioned when he talked about the importance of pragmatics. However, he only discussed setting up the contexts so that dialogues could be as real as possible, such as creating a theatrical setting, came up when he talked about his theory-in-use.

4.3.5 Ed: Let's wait until students reach higher proficiency to handle pragmatics

Ed was an assistant professor at a four-year public university on the Northeast. It was his third year working at the university as a tenure-track professor. He was the only faculty member in the Korean language program. He was in charge of all levels of Korean language courses. He reported in the survey that pragmatics is *extremely important* for being a competent speaker of Korean; and pragmatics should be taught *sometimes* in class. Later during the interview, he changed his responses to say that pragmatics is not that extremely important to teach in class.

4.3.5.1 Schooling

Ed's schooling factor related to foreign language involved mostly institutional experience both in Korea and in the U.S. He was fluent in English and Japanese at the time of the interview. His English learning experience was similar to other interviewees. He went through middle and high school English curriculum in Korea. During his college years, he studied linguistics and took English college courses. In addition, he participated in English conversation courses offered at a private English language center outside of his college curriculum.

As for Japanese, he studied during his doctoral program in the US. He took classes offered at the university. He reached advanced level proficiency going through classes. He expressed great enthusiasm for the way the Japanese textbook provided audiolingual method exercises:

Conjugation practice...just changing the intonation and you can make a question.

This type of simple drill was in the Japanese textbook..... Then students can automatically do listening and speaking and learning grammar through the drill...instead of writing out all the conjugation, have them listen and repeat after...

I really liked those drill activities.

This positive learning experience through audiolingual method affected how he designed his own classes. He also took courses in Chinese language for one year during his doctoral program.

4.3.5.2 Professional coursework and experience

Ed's professional coursework related to teaching a foreign language was comprised of both graduate coursework and his teaching experience. His coursework did

not directly address second language acquisition theory nor methodologies and approaches for teaching a foreign language. However, it provided expert knowledge in linguistics. He earned his Bachelor's and Master's degrees in Linguistics in Korea, and PhD degree in Linguistics in the US. Ed had been teaching for about 12 years in total at a college level. He taught English general education courses in Korea as a lecturer, and a Linguistics course and KFL courses in the US as a teaching assistant (TA) during his graduate study. He had been the only full-time faculty at his current institution for three years teaching KFL courses. The focus of his courses was different based on where he taught. "The focus was listening in Korea. It was a gen ed course. Conversation was not the focus. Reading and listening were. Conversation was the focus in the US." His teaching experience resembled his and other interviewee's English language learning schooling experiences in Korea. As a TA, he was assigned to lead drill sessions, meeting five hours a week, complementing grammar lectures, meeting three hours a week. He led the sessions fully in Korean, per the program's policy, using simple classroom expressions such as "Listen carefully or speak." Before he started leading the drill sessions, he did not have trainings. His drill sessions were the only KFL teaching experience prior to his current position.

4.3.5.3 Contextual factors

Contextual factors Ed provided were more at the program level than of students and classroom level. Ed's institution offered a minor in Korean. There were elementary and intermediate level KFL courses and one advanced level reading course. Before Ed joined the program, graduate students who were native Korean speakers taught Korean courses, according to Ed. Advanced Korean language courses were proposed by Ed and

were under departmental review at the time of the interview. In the meantime, the students who wanted to pursue their Korean study further used “the weird reading class as an independent study course” with Ed “to study around their interests such as history, culture, and society in Korean films.”

He was the only full-time faculty for the Korean program and was responsible for the curriculum decision making. The curriculum followed the Integrated Korean textbook series, University of Hawaii Press. The same textbook series had been used before his arrival and he continued to use the series because the same textbook was used during his TA-ship and he was familiar with the textbook. Besides him, there were three more part-time faculty members, who were graduate students. He would hand down all of his materials he used in class to new teachers and told them: “This is the base frame. Do something like this. This is the textbook. I don’t care how you teach as long as you cover from this chapter to this chapter.” There was no training for incoming teachers besides how many chapters to cover for a semester.

His previous teaching experience influenced his decision making on changing class meeting times. The classes used to be offered twice a week for two hours per day. He changed it to one hour a day meeting Monday through Thursday because he thought that “it is not a suitable system for language learning.” After the class meeting times were changed, he could teach the class in the same format as he used to teach during his TA-ship:

I lecture, explain grammar, go over the contents, and something like this on Mondays and Wednesdays. On Tuesdays and Thursdays, I asked her [other

teacher] to have students practicing speaking using Korean most of the time like I did before at the university. Another change he made was online quizzes. He utilized the course management system to conduct quizzes via online outside of class time. He believed the change was a positive one because his students preferred online quizzes and he could finish the whole book within a semester. This linked to limited in-class time, which is why he did not want to include outside authentic materials such as a music videos for in-class activities.

4.3.5.4 Classroom practice

Similar to other interviewees, Ed's classes were also designed around the textbook. The rearranged class meeting times accommodated classes to follow the textbook organization, which reflected his TA experience. The textbook had four main parts: Conversation 1, Conversation 2, Narration, and Usage. In his classes, Conversation 1, Conversation 2, and Narration were the main focus. Audiolingual method was a main methodology implemented in class:

I cover the dialogue or a paragraph comprehension and grammar lecture with mechanical drill practice. Then the students do workbook as a homework. They drill the relative grammar points or new expressions the following day. Then, lecture and drill session for Conversation 2, Narration lecture, and practice drill as a wrap-up.

He used activities from the workbook in class to supplement drill exercises. Genuine materials were also used in his classes to show the example usage of grammar points. However, he showed reservation on introducing genuine materials at the beginning and

the intermediate level except short video clips from Korean TV series or from Youtube.com because of the students' proficiency level:

Well... if it's for higher level, I would use those extra materials, but, at the first and second year level, I sometimes use Youtube video, a short clip from TV.... I don't do much because there are too much advanced grammar structures to fully comprehend the lyrics.... Students' Korean proficiency is not enough to discuss these questions. I don't like using English in class. I just ask simple questions only, trying not to use English as much as possible.

Due to his view on L1 use in class, lower level students had limited input other than the target grammar structures of each chapter around the genuine materials.

4.3.5.5 Cognition on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction

He reported that pragmatics is *extremely important* for being a competent speaker of Korean and pragmatics should be taught *sometimes* in class. He changed his survey responses when he was asked to confirm during the interview. His espoused theory on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction was based on students' proficiency level. He believed that "pragmatics could be a bigger part of class as students reach higher level proficiency....as their grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary are more polished, pragmatic competence should be at that level." However, at the elementary level, he saw pragmatics as "unnecessary because students get confused if you start teaching pragmatics, like it can be used this way or that way in a real situation."

Not only did he feel that pragmatics instruction was unnecessary at the elementary level, he showed resistance to talk about pragmatics in class if he thought that the students did not have grammatical knowledge:

They can ask questions. The student who watches Korean Drama TV series a lot and he doesn't know grammar at all, and then he brings up in class saying that it [grammar/expression] was used in this way in the TV. Then, I reluctantly talk about it. (Emphasis added)"

The reason why he was negative about pragmatics instruction was based on the organization of his course, lectures and drill sessions, and context. He believed that students need to be immersed in the situation to learn pragmatics, thus, "the students cannot get the intuition no matter how many times I talk about it" and "students cannot understand through just listening" to his lectures.

In addition, he thought that language proficiency level determines foreigner identity of the KFL speaker, perceived by a Korean native speaker. As a student gets more proficient, his foreigner identity gets lost. "A Korean native speaker expects his other social contextual knowledge at the same level as his fluency" thus, the KFL speaker was expected to act more like how native Korean speakers do. However, "if someone cannot speak Korean fluently, he sounds like he studied Korean but needs to learn more and... if this person makes mistakes, it is forgivable" as this person has prominent foreigner identity which allows him to practice outside normal Korean society norm.

Ed's theory-in-use was aligned with his espoused theory. His elementary level classes focused on mastering grammar and vocabulary via lectures and drill sessions. He did include pragmatics during lessons by "giving comments when students made mistakes. I do talk about usage in a real life.... For example, the family term in the textbook. Actually it's social term rather than family term.... It's not in the textbook but I talk about it...." Pragmatics were supplements to target grammar structure and

vocabulary: “I do whenever it comes to me when I explain [grammar points and vocabulary], but there is no regular set time or activity for this.” In most cases, pragmatics instruction was done outside of class time. “It’s for the students who come to the class early. I show them before the class because I don’t want to waste class time” to teach grammar and vocabulary.

His previous schooling experience with Japanese language learning led him to believe video of textbook main dialogues would help students to learn pragmatics because students can see nonverbal communication along with the dialogue as if they were in “a real life watching the conversation happening”. Even though he thought that the video would help students learning Korean language, he thought that “there is no need to watch the video in class” but “just giving the link” to students so that they can watch it on their own time if they are interested.

4.3.5.6 Summary

Ed believed that pragmatics is important only to the advanced students, and in-class pragmatics instruction could be a bigger part at the advanced level class because linguistic competency has to be achieved to learn pragmatics. His theory-in-use on pragmatics was in line with his espoused theory. Pragmatics was dealt with outside of regular class time. In-class time was focused on grammar lecture and drill practice affected mostly by his schooling, especially Japanese language learning, and professional coursework, his KFL TA experience.

4.3.6 KFL instructors as a group of professionals

The above profiles of each individual provided valuable information and insights on how cognition about pragmatics and KFL teaching were shaped. In addition to the

individual teacher's cognition information, in a similar study, Bell (2005) documented that there was a general consensus among professional beliefs. Looking at the interviewees as a group and identifying group cognition would shed light on background knowledge to design KFL and/or LCTL-specific professional trainings as both researchers and instructors saw the need for professional training opportunities designed in consideration of the languages that instructors teach (Freeman, 1989; Saydee, 2014). The summary follows the same organization as individual profiles.

4.3.6.1 RQ2a: Schooling

The interviews revealed that schooling had the most effect on theory-in-use of classroom practice and theory-in-use of the importance of pragmatics, supporting the notion of the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). Schooling experiences of the interviewees were very similar to each other, except Bella. Bella had a unique experience, compared to those who had spent his or her youth year in Korea. She was home-schooled, instead of attending a school, with a centrally designed curriculum by the Ministry of Education. The rest of the teachers finished post-secondary level education after graduating from middle and high school following the centrally designed curriculum. Based on the age range, they went through a very similar curriculum. The main purpose of learning a foreign language during their secondary education was passing a college entrance exam. Their experience of English curriculum was similar to other students' and/or teachers' experiences in other Asian countries (Choi, 1999; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Peacock, 2001; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Woods, 1996; Zhang & Liu, 2014). Their main goal was to achieve a higher score on college entrance examinations or a higher GPA for high school admission. Most of the classes they partook in Korea

focused on written part more than spoken part, and grammar lessons were explicit deductive methods because the exams were mostly reading and listening comprehension. Foreign language courses at the postsecondary level were not very different from their secondary education due to students' purposes for learning a foreign language. Students took a conversation course at a private language center or went study-abroad when they wanted speaking focused classes, such as Amy and Ed.

After their college education, all interviewees pursued post-graduate education in the U.S. The focus of their graduate studies was different, but all were language-related fields, from linguistics to second language acquisition, to Teaching a Korean as a Foreign Language (TKFL), to comparative literature. They started teaching KFL as they entered their graduate programs and continued after graduation. Each teacher's schooling experiences about foreign language learning during his or her postgraduate studies were different. Bella and Ed had formal classroom instruction in a foreign language other than English. At the same time, all teachers, except Bella, were immersed in ESL environments. It was interesting that none of the teachers mentioned outside of school learning experiences as language learning experiences, except Bella. This idea contradicted their interviews. Most of them mentioned that their students should have learning and practicing opportunities outside of class time to be more competent in Korean. It may be possible that the teachers validated learning in a classroom setting more than learning in an informal setting. Further discussion of how schooling influenced the interviewees' cognition is provided later in the discussion section.

4.3.6.2 RQ2a: Professional coursework and experience

Professional coursework includes pre-service courses, in-service professional development opportunities, and previous teaching experiences. Except Ed, whose previous teaching experiences influenced his cognition about in-class pragmatics instruction, professional coursework did not have much effect on the teachers' beliefs about either the importance of pragmatics or in-class pragmatics instruction. Unlike the instructor qualification challenges LCTL programs encounter (Al-Batal, 2007; Gor & Vatz, 2009; O'Connell & Norwood, 2007; Sanatullova-Allison, 2008), the interviewees can be considered highly qualified KFL teachers in terms of academic credentials and teaching experience. The teachers have doctorate degrees or were pursuing doctorate degrees in language-related fields. Besides the credentials, the focus of their doctorate studies varied from TKFL to second language acquisition, to mainstream language education, to linguistics, to comparative literature, reflecting the current demographics of KFL program faculty. Regardless of their major, the interviews showed that pre- and in-service professional development opportunities on pragmatics instruction were very limited.

4.3.6.3 RQ2a: Contextual factors

Similarities and differences in institutional contexts among the interviewees were found. Their institutions were four-year public universities, and Korean programs were recognized as one unit in a department. The curriculum was based on the textbook series at all institutions. All of the teachers had full autonomy in pedagogic decision-making, including textbook selection. The size of their programs varied among the interviewees. Course offerings ranged from two years to graduate studies. This reflects current trends.

KFL courses have been getting more attention from students, and enrollment numbers have been increasing, according to the Modern Language Association of America's 2013 report. Universities and colleges have expanded their course offerings from two years of language courses to four years, in addition to general education courses such as a culture or a literature course, as they have more enrollment are in more demand. Related to the size of KFL programs, the number of faculty ranged from one full-time, non-tenured faculty member to five tenured or tenure-track faculty.

The teachers' perceived constraints mirrored findings in current literature reviews. Contextual factors had an effect on cognition about in-class pragmatics instruction more than on cognition about the importance of pragmatics. Incongruence between the teachers' espoused theory and theory-in-use was observed from Bella, David, and Ed. None of them were able to include pragmatics in class as much as they believed it was needed due to time constraints. The reasons for the time constraints were different. Bella did not have enough time to prepare the material because of her other responsibilities; David shared that the main constraints were his personal life as an ABD as well as the required chapters to cover within a semester; and Ed also thought that in-class time was not enough to include pragmatics because he needed to finish assigned chapters.

Other contextual factors brought up were student-related ones: proficiency level and expectation. Students' expectations led Cathy's theory-in-use to be consistent with her espoused theory. Amy's espoused theory and theory-in-use were congruent due to students' proficiency level. Ed also mentioned students' proficiency level as another factor that led to inconsistency. Both Amy and Ed had very similar beliefs about pragmatics instruction, and mentioned the same contextual factors. There were

differences between these two teachers' current teaching course level. None of the teachers mentioned their current teaching course level as a factor, but this played a role in making pedagogical decisions, leading to congruence or incongruence between their espoused theory and theory-in-use.

4.3.6.4 RQ2a: Classroom practice

Based on the years of teaching, all interview participants can be considered experienced teachers because they have been teaching KFL for at least 3 years. Their classroom practices were very similar to each other. Their classrooms followed textbook organization, as the curriculum of their institutions followed textbook series. Grammar and vocabulary were the main concerns of all teachers regardless of students' proficiency level. Another similarity among the teachers was preferred teaching approach. They preferred deductive grammar lessons with audiolingual methods activities. Summative assessments were implemented across the institutions.

Different perspectives and practices were observed in regards to genuine materials and students' L1 use. Even though all teachers saw the benefit of genuine materials for students' learning, use of outside materials varied. Most of the classes incorporated genuine materials, but genre of the materials was limited. Video clips were used most, and only one teacher, who was teaching an advanced level class, mentioned that she used news articles. Teachers tended to use readily available video clips from Youtube.com and/or a video clip database developed by a team of KFL instructors. The teachers showed the clips before the class or during the class time, depending on their views about genuine materials and time constraints. The genuine materials were used as examples to show how expressions and grammar points from the textbook were used in everyday

lives. The teachers perceived the video clips as an entertainment for the students. No extended activities, beyond teachers' explanation of contexts and practice of the expression, were designed and executed around the genuine materials. Two teachers mentioned students' L1 use in class. Amy liked to see her students' L1 competency transfer to Korean. Her idea of incorporating students' L1 was that she did not want to limit her students to produce grammatically error-free Korean. She mentioned linguistic aspect of L1 only. Other L1 competencies were not mentioned such as genre knowledge, communication strategy, pragmatics competence, and symbolic competence. Unlike Amy, Ed had negative view on students' L1 use in a foreign language class. Ed would like to provide as much Korean as possible to his students by speaking Korean in class, and the Korean input his students received was adjusted to his students' level.

Table 4.2. KFL Instructors' Cognition of Pragmatics and In-class Pragmatics Instruction and Contributing Factors

Name	Def. of Pragmatics	<u>Importance of Pragmatics</u>				<u>Need for In-class Instruction</u>			Satisfaction with Current Pragmatics Instruction Status
		Contributing Factors	Espoused Theory	Contributing Factors if Not Consistent	Theory-in-use	Espoused Theory	Contributing Factors	Theory-in-use	
Amy	Sign, user, and context: listener is able to understand the sign that I send based on the contexts	Professional coursework	Extremely important (5)	Schooling: View of pragmatics: pragmatics and linguistic competence are separate	Somewhat important (4)	Sometimes (3)	Student proficiency	Sometimes (3)	Somewhat satisfied (4)
Bella	Context and grammar, speech style, <i>nunchi</i>	Friend	Extremely important (5)	—	Extremely important (5)	Most of the time (4)	Time constraints; lack of time to develop materials due to other responsibilities	Sometimes (3)	Somewhat satisfied (4)
Cathy	Idiomatic expressions, speech style	Being a bilingual, native speaker intuition	Extremely important (5)	—	Extremely important (5)	Most of the time (4)	Students' expectations	Most of the time (4)	Somewhat satisfied (4)
David	Setting up the scene	Professor, own experience	Extremely important (5)	Schooling: View of pragmatics Pragmatics and linguistic competence are separate	Somewhat important (4)	Sometimes (3)	Time constraint: lack of in-class time due to rigid curriculum and other responsibility	Rarely (2)	Somewhat dissatisfied (2)
Ed	Non-verbal, context	Personal knowledge, native speaker intuition	Somewhat important (4)		Somewhat important (4)	Sometimes (3)	Time constraint: lack of in-class time due to assigned chapters to cover; student proficiency	Rarely (2)	Neutral (3)
Mean			4.8		4.4	3.4		2.8	3.4

4.3.6.5 RQ2b & RQ2c: Cognition on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction

This section reviews the espoused theory, collected from the survey data, and theory-in-use, collected from the interview data, about pragmatics and in-class pragmatics instruction to find out how cognition about pragmatics impacts in-class pragmatics instruction cognition (Research question 2b) and to find out whether they correspond with each other (research question 2c). Table 4.2 provides the espoused theories, theories-in-use, each teacher's working definition of pragmatics, contributing factors, and satisfaction status to his or her current pragmatics instruction.

All participants believed that pragmatics is important to be a competent foreign language speaker, similar to findings from literature (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; House, 1996; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001). As for the espoused theory, four teachers believed that pragmatics is extremely important and one teacher, Ed, somewhat important. Their tendency to value pragmatics follows Vasquez and Sharpless's finding (2009). The most common contributing factor to the espoused theory was from personal experience, such as anecdotes from a friend or a professor. In addition, being bilingual or multilingual played a role. As a bilingual or multilingual person, they were able to find differences between Korean and other languages and thought that pragmatics is important due to the differences. For Amy, her professional coursework played a greater role than schooling on her espoused theory. Except Amy, other teachers' sources for the cognition cannot be placed in the Borg's framework. One might argue that influence of a friend or a professor can be considered as an extension of schooling factor, because schooling includes the influence of important figures in one's life. However, it cannot be schooling since their examples were not about teaching and learning in a

school system. The results of these interviews revealed that there are other factors contributing to one's cognition beyond the framework.

Bella and Cathy's theories-in-use were that pragmatics is extremely important; Amy, David, and Ed's classrooms were based on the idea that pragmatics is somewhat important. Two of the teachers (Amy and David) showed inconsistency between their espoused theories and theories-in-use. The two teachers' espoused theories valued the importance of pragmatics more than their theories-in-use. Their theories-in-use were that pragmatics is somewhat important, which is different from their espoused theories: pragmatics is extremely important. Their interviews revealed that they perceived the importance of pragmatics differently based on their students' linguistic proficiency level. The same idea was observed from Ed's interview. The three teachers (somewhat important group) believed that linguistic competence, especially vocabulary and grammar, has to be developed first to start pragmatics instruction. Otherwise, pragmatics instruction would be neither successful nor meaningful. They also believed that a meaningful utterance can be made only when students make grammatically correct sentences. Their definition of "meaningful" was grammatically correct utterance. Their idea of language learning has a narrow view of language, which includes the linguistic side alone. These ideas were heavily influenced by schooling, and mirror the focus of their secondary and post-secondary foreign language education. Cathy had different views from the other three teachers even though she went through very similar schooling experience. The difference was incorporation of students' expectation to her curriculum. Cathy included pragmatics at the first semester classes because her students wanted to learn, while Ed refrained from the discussion about pragmatics if he thought that students were not ready, or linguistically proficient enough, even though his students wanted to learn about pragmatics.

These teachers' espoused theories about in-class instruction were congruent with their theories-in-use of importance of pragmatics. The more their theories-in-use valued pragmatics, the more their espoused theories included pragmatics in class. Overall, their espoused theories were on a positive scale, sometimes to most of the time. However, none of them thought that pragmatics should be included in class always, even if they think pragmatics is extremely important, because there was a certain number of chapters to finish within a semester and other exams. Similar to the cognition about the importance of pragmatics, their theories-in-use of in-class pragmatics instruction were in the less frequent scale than their espoused theory except Cathy, ranging from rarely (David and Ed) to sometimes (Amy and Bella) to most of the time (Cathy). The contributing factors were time constraints and students. Time constraints were due to their responsibilities other than instruction and rigid curriculum. Student factors were students' Korean proficiency and expectations. Students' proficiency factor linked theories-in-use of in-class pragmatics instruction to their theories-in-use about the importance of pragmatics, that is, students need to reach advanced level linguistic proficiency to learn pragmatics. Therefore, the classroom instruction was limited to showing the video clips and brief explanation of sociopragmatics, similar to the teachers in Patton (2014).

4.3.6.6 Summary

Interviews revealed beliefs about pragmatics and pragmatics instruction and the contributing factors of each individual and KFL instructor as a group. For their beliefs about the in-class pragmatics instruction, their previous schooling had the largest effect on shaping their espoused beliefs, and time constraints and students had the largest effect on their theory-in-use, leading to mixed results of congruency between the espoused theory and theory-in-use. Some contributing factors to the cognition such as foreign language learning experiences outside the

school setting did not have a place in Borg's framework. In addition, one's definition of pragmatics influenced how he or she perceived the importance of pragmatics, classroom practice, and satisfaction to the current status of pragmatics instruction. The discussion section will further elaborate on the findings.

4.4 Discussions and Implications

Analysis of the interviews yielded noteworthy findings regarding the teachers' cognition on pragmatics and in-class pragmatics in addition to answering the research questions: Personal experiences beyond formal schooling settings, views on language and language learning, views on pragmatics and pragmatics instruction, and limited professional coursework opportunities on pragmatics instruction. This section discusses the findings and implications, hoping to assist better understanding of the interviewed teachers' cognitions and directions for future studies.

4.4.1 Personal experiences beyond formal schooling settings

The interviews were reviewed based on the Borg framework because the framework has been used by many scholars in the cognition studies and is known for its breadth of contributing factors of language teacher cognition (Borg, 2006; Hill, 2014; Nishino, 2012). However, the interview analysis of the current project revealed an insight that there can be other contributing factors beyond the four elements: *schooling*, *professional coursework*, *contextual factors*, and *classroom practice*. The additional factor of espoused theories of importance of pragmatics did not fit into any of these categories. Amy's espoused theory was based on professional coursework, a graduate course on pragmatics. She was able to provide her working definition of pragmatics using terminologies such as user, sign, and context. Her use of English word/terminology in Korean sentences signified the source of her definition. Except for Amy, who provided her own definition of pragmatics instead of just agreeing with my definition when

I read it to the teachers during the interview, all other teachers' espoused theories were based on their personal experiences or anecdotes from other people. Being a bilingual or a multilingual speaker provided insights for the teachers to notice differences between two or more languages and to do comparative analysis. Bella compared Korean with Chinese syntax to point out specific traits of Korean language, leading to her beliefs about the importance of pragmatics in Korean. Other teachers also shared that pragmatics is important because "Korean has many different aspects if you compare it to other languages" (Cathy, interview).

A primary finding of the current study is that the topic of the current study, pragmatics, played a role on that the teacher drew their espoused theories from their personal experiences. Pragmatics is deeply related to actual language use and pragmatics failure has a bigger impact than grammar failure during conversations (Canale & Swain, 1980; Grossi, 2009; Thomas, 1983). Native speakers of the foreign language perceive pragmatics errors to be more serious than grammar errors, leading to face-threatening situations and negative stereotypes of the speakers (Thomas, 1983). This failure makes negative imprints to not only the native speakers of the foreign language, but also the foreign language speakers themselves, based on the interviews. "You know all the grammars, rules, and words, but can't understand what the guy said," and this led to embarrassment at the moment. This communication failure experience of David's professor made him think of pragmatics as *extremely important*. This provoked him to think that all the good grades from exams could not guarantee successful communication. This impression was supported by his own experiences at restaurants.

These types of face-threatening situations repeatedly came up during the interviews as reasons why pragmatics is important. It was often compared to grammar. Perfect grammar and linguistic competency did not help speakers to have successful conversations with native

speakers. Bella's "linguistically genius" friend was perceived as rude to Korean native speakers due to lack of pragmatics competence even though her utterances were grammatically perfect, supporting what literature claims (Canale & Swain, 1980; Grossi, 2009; Thomas, 1983). Actual conversation causing loss of face had a more shocking effect than getting a lower grade on an exam or anything that happened in classrooms. This might be the reason why the teachers' personal experiences and anecdotes were about the failure rather than perfect use of pragmatics. Also, this might be the reason why their source for espoused theory is from actual language usage than from classroom experience.

As previously mentioned, literature on cognition about pragmatics instruction was scarce (Byon, 2004; Ishihara, 2011; Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009). The majority of the literature on cognition investigated teaching methodology and/or approaches or general beliefs about teaching (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2006). The findings from the literature could be explained using the Borg framework. However, this project's results required at least one additional factor concerning personal experiences beyond formal schooling system to explain the findings. Therefore, even though Borg's framework is fairly broad and general, one should consider that there might be additional factors with influence beyond the four elements in the framework, depending on the subjects. Another limitation of Borg's framework is the limited view on the domains where language teaching and learning occur. As it was mentioned in the previous chapter, *schooling* accounts for the influence of other significant people in the process of cognition formation. However, Borg limited the influence to the education happening in school (2006). The contributing factors of the KFL instructors in this project were from outside of the schooling system. Perhaps the framework conveys a limited view of learning as something that happens only in school. There are many sources outside of school that people can use to learn

languages, from traditional teaching materials on the internet to smart phone applications to conversations in real life. The most influencing factors to the teachers' espoused theories were mostly from these nontraditional learning opportunities and encounters. Therefore, future research on cognition about teaching a foreign language should consider this aspect as well when they use Borg's framework as language learning platform horizons are expanding.

4.4.2 Views on language and language learning

Similar views on language learning contexts to Borg (2006) were observed from the KFL teachers. This limited views on learning contexts affected their working definition of pragmatics and cognition on pragmatics instruction. Except Bella, all teachers shared their foreign language experiences that happened in classroom settings, even though the question asking about their experiences of learning a foreign language did not include wording to limit contextual settings. David's response to the teaching experience question clearly showed that he viewed the formal classroom setting as the only valid teaching and learning setting as he shared that his first KFL teaching experience was in the U.S. He did not count volunteer teaching experiences in Korea as valid experiences. This view contradicted his response to the importance of pragmatics. He thought that he would have less anxiety and be more comfortable ordering food at a restaurant in English if he learned English in real life rather than in a classroom, memorizing grammar and vocabulary. However, throughout the interview, the former idea, learning a language in a classroom setting focusing on grammar and vocabulary, had a stronger impact on his view on language learning.

This prevalent view, that is, learning is happening in a classroom setting, might originate from English being a foreign language rather than a second language to the teachers. Similar perspectives about their students and Korean was observed across the interviews. They were

concerned that there were not many opportunities for their students to be exposed to and practice Korean outside of the classroom. Just as the English language was the teachers' foreign language, Korean was their students' foreign language. With their narrow view on language learning contexts and Korean being a foreign language to their students, teachers were trying to pack more vocabulary and grammar into curriculum, or assigning many chapters from the textbook series, and teaching them in class. Thus, they were satisfied when their elementary-level students could "do self-introduction and simple sentences describing stuff only" and they focused on pragmatics when students were at an advanced level. Literature findings support Ed's idea that pragmatics awareness is difficult to achieve by lecture alone in a foreign language setting (Soler & Flor, 2008). Students need to "go out and experience the real world" to grasp pragmatics, according to Ed. Because of this view, the teachers tended to focus on what they could do for their students in class, teaching grammar and vocabulary as much as they could, and left pragmatics learning to their students.

This focus of their instruction, influenced by their past schooling experience, reflected these teachers' views on language and language learning. The teachers overlooked symbolic competence and did not view language as discourse. They believed that language represented "objects and phenomena of the physical world" (Lin, 2011, p. 40) rather than "a part of the social world (Lin, 2011, p. 40)." Therefore, they focused on language structure and assessment of knowledge of language instead of seeing a language as social elements or discourse with ecological view. For example, Ed's goal for his department was focused on developing linguistic knowledge to non-heritage language learners. It was well documented when he shared that second-generation Korean students did not need to take Korean classes because they had good enough Korean linguistic competence. He also referred to a Korean literature course as "a weird

course” because heritage language learners of Korean were taking the course. In his view, Korean courses were limited to language courses and the target student group was KFL students. There has been a movement among KFL educators to expand their ideas on language and language teaching. The American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK) worked as a proponent of this movement through its conferences. The organization invited keynote and plenary speakers on the topic of multiliteracies over the last few years, and emphasized the idea of language as discourse. The interviewed teachers, except Bella, were active members of AATK. They reported that they had been attending the AATK conferences. However, *schooling* had a stronger effect on their cognition about language than *professional coursework*, attending the conferences in this case. It was still persistent that linguistic competence achievement was separated from other social elements in their instructional practice, similar to findings of Breen et al. (2001).

Furthermore, the teachers’ previous schooling experiences affected their views on the place of pragmatics in curriculum. As previously mentioned, they believed that linguistic competence had to precede pragmatics instruction. Researchers have found that there is a correlation between pragmatics competence and linguistic proficiency (Soler & Flor, 2008). It could also be true that the foreigner face associated with lower linguistic proficiency can allow second/foreign language speakers more lenient pragmatics competence standards, as Ed argued. However, pragmatics is not an automatically transferable skill as one achieves higher levels of fluency. The current project’s interviews pointed out that advanced linguistic proficiency did not guarantee successful communication. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) also documented that long exposure to the foreign language did not always result in pragmatics awareness. Therefore, pragmatics instruction is necessary regardless of students’ proficiency, and regardless of whether the

language students are learning is a foreign language or a second language. However, students' lack of linguistic proficiency was a barrier to providing pragmatics instruction, even at the advanced level classrooms for most of the teachers in this study. This contradicted their theories that pragmatics should be a bigger part of curriculum as their students' Korean proficiency developed. This indicated that there might be other factors affecting pragmatics instruction other than students' proficiency level.

4.4.3 Views on pragmatics and pragmatics instruction

The KFL teachers in the current project formed their cognition about pragmatics instruction based on their working definition of pragmatics, in addition to their schooling experiences and contextual factors. Similar to the findings from Graham et. al. (2014) and Saydee (2014), they had different understandings of what pragmatics is. It varied from theory-informed definition, to grammar, to expressions, to contexts, to non-verbal language. Unlike other areas, pragmatics seemed to be unclear to the KFL teachers. One common theme across the board was context. As how they perceived what pragmatics was, it seemed that context also had different meanings to each teacher. For example, to David, context was setting up the scene or background with realia, different from the relationship between interlocutors and contextual influence on language use as Bella perceived.

Their working definitions influenced their satisfaction about the current status of pragmatics instruction. When they could incorporate pragmatics, whatever their definitions, in class, they were more satisfied. Cathy referred to pragmatics as idiomatic expressions, and she was *somewhat satisfied* because she incorporated "new expressions" as much as she could. Bella's pragmatics dealt with speech styles more than other aspects. She dedicated a few hours at the beginning of each semester on speech styles, thus, she was also *somewhat satisfied*. However,

David was *somewhat dissatisfied* with current pragmatics instruction because he could not prepare props for his students during their role-plays to have more authentic setting.

Another consensus among the teachers was that pragmatics is something separate from grammar and vocabulary. Thus, it needs separate instruction. Kasper suggested that pragmatics instruction does not have to be a separate entity. As Bella referred to pragmalinguistics as grammar, the Korean textbook series that the teachers used presents pragmatics as grammar points. Due to Korean language structure, pragmatics elements are embedded into all aspects of language and are always present. Often, pragmatics elements are conjugated with main verbs and/or adjectives. Therefore, the teachers might not have been aware of the presence of pragmalinguistics in their instructional practice because they were teaching “grammar points.” The imbalance between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics was observed from the interviews and the textbook series, reflecting trends in the field (Soler & Flor, 2008). Sociopragmatics aspects were present but the main focus of classroom instructions was conjugation. Similar ideas were observed in Byon (2004). The teachers Byon interviewed thought that pragmatics instruction was not necessary because it was dealt with as grammar points in the previous semesters or chapters. They saw the need for pragmalinguistics, or grammar, much more than sociopragmatics as the teachers in Ishihara (2011) before the seminar on pragmatics teaching and learning. The interviews for the current project were conducted more than a decade after Byon’s interviews, but cognition about pragmatics among KFL educators were still very similar.

The most frequently used method introducing sociopragmatics was video clips, according to the survey and the interviews. Authentic audiovisual inputs were recommended as instructional materials by many scholars, including Rose (1997, 2001). What needs to be

emphasized is not what is used in classroom, but how it is used. Similar to the teachers in Graham et al. (2014), there was a lack of activities around the video clips. The main focus of integrating video clips was providing “grammar points” or “new expressions” in an attractive way so that students could have a break between grammar lectures, exams, and drill exercises. Sociopragmatics information was briefly mentioned by teachers, but it was not enough to develop awareness, because, as Ed and other researchers mentioned, lecture alone is not enough for foreign language learners (Soler & Flor, 2008).

4.4.4 Limited professional coursework opportunities on pragmatics instruction

The interviews revealed that the teachers had limited professional coursework on pragmatics and foreign language pragmatics instruction regardless of their education level, area of study, or years of teaching. This corresponds with findings of Vasquez and Sharpless (2009). Graduate programs in the U.S for teachers of ESL acknowledged that pragmatics is important and should be included in curriculum. However, the degree of how pragmatics were introduced varied from a dedicated course to a section of a course. Therefore, pre-service teachers were exposed to pragmatics, but their knowledge about pragmatics could be varied, similar to the teachers in the current project. One teacher took a pragmatics course and was able to add onto the provided definition using learned terminology in addition to my definition during the interview. All other teachers just agreed with the provided definition. Later on, they expressed their lack of knowledge in pragmatics instruction. For example, Ed shared that “I do not know pragmatics well... I cannot draw from theories...” and his uncertainty about pragmatics was shown again later when he discussed his classroom practice. “If it is considered pragmatics, then, I do.” Bella also expressed that “there is no assessment for pragmatics portion. I do not know how to do that [assessment] well...” This trend was similar to the teachers in Graham et al

(2014) regarding their desire to use alternative ways of teaching listening, but they were not able to do so due to lack of professional knowledge.

Moreover, the interviews showed that there were limited professional training opportunities for the KFL teachers to reflect on their cognition about pragmatics and apply their ideas to actual lessons. This limited their ability to transfer learned knowledge to their practice. Most of the time, they were assigned to teach a course, and the textbook was given, as with Ed's faculty. Then, with other contextual factors involved, teachers tended to resort to how they were taught and rely on their cognition on language learning drawn from personal experience in school systems and as language learners (Peacock, 2001; Richards & Pennington, 1998). Even though they believed pragmatics was important, they could not carry out lessons focusing on that methodology or approach if they were not competent enough to execute without guidance, especially if it was not a common practice of their school (Graham et. al., 2014). Amy's classroom was an example. It was clear that she valued L1 use in foreign language classrooms as informed by her *professional coursework*. However, her use of students' L1 was limited to linguistics aspect only. Her students' other resources in their L1 were not utilized. Other teachers' classrooms also resembled their previous schooling experiences, mastering linguistic competence via lecture and drill exercises.

This lack of schooling experiences in foreign language classes that incorporate sociopragmatic aspects and appreciate language as a multidimensional dynamic social entity, could not provide the KFL teachers sufficient expertise to plan and execute pragmatics instruction. Their limited professional coursework, including graduate courses, conferences, and previous teaching experiences, was neither sufficient nor effective enough to encourage them to go beyond the comfort zone of their regular teaching practice. These findings indicate that ample

professional coursework should be provided to the KFL teachers to compensate lack of direct schooling experiences on balanced pragmatics teaching, that is emphasizing both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics, and to integrate the same type of instructions in their classes. Future professional trainings should be designed with the teachers' background and cognition found above in mind to maximize their benefits (Freeman, 1989). More practical trainings than theoretical workshops would help the teachers to have concrete ideas on how balanced pragmatics lessons can be implemented (Lee, 2011; Saydee, 2014). This would provide direct experience of pragmatics lessons.

In addition to the professional training opportunities, the interviews' results called for the need for the textbook development. The interviews showed that the teachers relied heavily on textbook and textbook-governed curriculum and in-class instruction. The reported pragmatics instruction and activities by the teachers were from the textbook's grammar sections. The video clips were also from the "New Expression" section of the textbook. Furthermore, considering contextual factors that causing inconsistencies between their espoused theories and theories-in-use, the teachers preferred ready-made materials; and their decision making about classroom materials was based on convenience of obtaining the materials. Therefore, textbooks with activities that focus both on pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics might have more influence on reshaping current teaching practices.

4.5 Limitations

One limitation of this study might be that classroom observation was not conducted to document the teachers' pragmatics instruction. Observations might show a possible gap between the teachers' actual classroom activities and their descriptions of activities. However, discussion of their actual classroom practices during the interview provided important information,

regardless. It helped the researcher to collect both their theories-in-use and actual classroom practice (Phipps & Borg, 2009) whereas there might be a chance that the teachers would feel uneasy and design a lesson plan differently than what they used to do if the observations took place, because they knew the topic of the current project (Farrell & Bennis, 2013). Also, the teachers would not feel that they needed to defend their pedagogic decision making during the interview. In addition, discussion of their practice and beliefs provided the teachers a valuable opportunity to reflect on their theories and practice, which is crucial for one's professional development and reshaping cognition especially because they were relatively newer experienced teachers in the field, based on their years of teaching experience (Borg, 2006; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Patton, 2014). This might lead to another limitation that it cannot be generalized to all KFL instructors, as teachers gain new perspectives as they gain experience (Crookes & Arakaki, 1999). This project only tries to explain what these teachers perceived and practiced. However, since they are a good representation of the current and newer generation of KFL teachers in the field, this project can provide insight into the emerging needs and trends of KFL teacher training and education.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter analyzed follow-up interviews of KFL instructors working at four-year tertiary level institutions to get a better understanding of teachers' cognition about pragmatics and pragmatics instruction. The interviews revealed that espoused theories and theories-in-use were shaped and reshaped by various factors with schooling and that their personal experience/anecdotes had the most influence. Their classroom pragmatics instruction was consistent with how they defined pragmatics rather than their stated and observed theories. It was also found that, even though pragmatics has been given more attention in teacher education

courses (Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009), the teachers were not exposed to pragmatics enough to internalize it and reshape their cognition and practice. Even if there was an opportunity, it was a theory-based course to provide declarative knowledge, as with Amy's experience (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Patton, 2014).

Regardless of the teachers' theories and definitions of pragmatics, textbooks governed the teachers' instructional practices. The textbooks were the core element of their curriculum, instigating contextual factors, leading to inconsistency between their espoused theories and theories-in-use. In this project, all teachers used the same textbook series, thus there was no opportunity to compare classroom practices and cognitions about pragmatics based on different textbooks. Textbooks are not ideologically neutral products (Chapelle, 2010; Davcheva & Sercu, 2005; Nault, 2006; Ndura, 2004; Nguyen, 2011; Shardakova & Pavlenko, 2004; Shin, Eslami, & Chen, 2011). They are designed to serve their unique purposes and objectives. Therefore, future research should investigate whether there is a correlation between textbooks and teachers' cognitions and practices. The findings of future studies can inform textbook developers so that they can write textbooks better designed to foster pragmatics competence. This project has shown that the teachers preferred ready-made, easy-to-use materials that fit their busy course calendars without great modification to their current curriculum. As a response to this need, the next chapter presents a series of instructional units for teaching pragmatics, particularly speech styles, designed around the same textbook series that all of the teachers were using, to explore how pragmatics instruction focusing on both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics can be integrated into current textbook-oriented curricula.

Chapter 5: Pedagogical Application: Speech Styles Pragmatics Instruction in Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) Introductory Course

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a series of instructional units to develop sociopragmatics awareness of Korean speech styles, theoretically informed by multiliteracies pedagogy (The New London Group, 1996) and explicit inductive Pragmatic consciousness-raising (PCR). As the survey results showed in the previous chapters, teachers of Korean as a foreign language (KFL) recognized that pragmatic competence is an important part to become a fluent Korean language speaker. However, most of them limited students' pragmatic competence to a pragmalinguistic level, as a grammar, when it comes to teaching in a classroom. Therefore, they thought that pragmatics teaching is hard to implement in a first and second semester beginning level class, and that it is hard to show meaningful development in pragmatic competence. The teachers only briefly introduced sociopragmatics to students with explanations about contexts including certain situations and relations among interlocutors. Some teachers used short video clips, some teachers used their own experiences as a native speaker of Korean, and some teachers used a combination of both.

One can observe similar patterns regarding speech styles in *Integrated Korean: Beginning 1* published by University of Hawaii Press. While pragmalinguistic features of polite forms are presented and explored extensively over several chapters as conjugation rules and exceptions, sociopragmatic features are presented and explained in the introduction chapter alone in relation to static contextual features such as one's social status and/or age. Examples throughout the chapters provide limited information for students regarding interlocutors as well. There are recurring characters conversing with each other across the textbook series. They are classmates and they use only polite form speech style with each other. Other characters appear

such as a professor, parents, and grandparents in textbook example sentences when subject honorifics and other honorifics are explained. In my opinion, the textbook provides grammatically correct and socially acceptable and neutral uses of speech style and honorifics, as if speech style is a math formula. This fulfills what students need to know at a pragmalinguistic level, but there is a chance that limited sociopragmatic information is presented to develop well-balanced pragmatics awareness. In other words, this limited presentation might reinforce elementary level students to perceive speech style as a static verb and/or an adjective ending since they have to use at least one speech style from the very beginning due to its pragmalinguistic feature. As a warning to this, some researchers have found speech style as a choice in relation to more dynamic features such as attitude or distances among interlocutors (Agha, 1998; Byon, 2007; Choo, 1999; Cook, 2011; Yoon, 2010). It is not a limitation that only applies to this particular textbook. Brown (2010), Choo (1999), and Yoon (2010) found insufficient sociopragmatic information on speech styles in both textbooks that targeted learners of Korean as a foreign language and in textbooks that targeted learners of Korean as a second language.

Moreover, we as teachers of KFL need to remind ourselves that our students do not start with empty language fluency. They are fluent users of their native languages. They are competent in playing with and manipulating language in their lives, and using it for a variety of purposes in a variety of contexts, in sociopragmatically appropriate ways. We should let the students know that Korean is not just a difficult-to-learn language but it is another language which they have potential autonomy, and that speech style is another resource that they can use to mark their stance and to convey their intended meaning. Textbooks can show great examples of the pragmalinguistic features of speech styles and conventional sociopragmatic features, but it

is not enough to provide opportunities to think and discuss about how to be an autonomous Korean language learner with speech styles. Learners must have the opportunities to use the language as well.

The purpose of this chapter, thus, is to explore how instructional units can integrate questions and activities that challenge students' static sociopragmatic perception of speech styles, so that they can develop awareness of the dynamic aspects of speech styles in use. The units were implemented in an upper beginning level Korean language class at a university as supplemental lessons. Their design is based on explicit inductive teaching and multiliteracies pedagogy (The New London Group, 1996). The chapter seeks to answer the following questions:

- 3a. Can awareness-raising instructional units based on a multiliteracies pedagogy framework lead to an increased sociopragmatic understanding among KFL learners of speech style or hearer honorifics?
- 3b. What are the students' perceptions toward multiliteracies pedagogy-based instruction?

First, I present the methodology of this study. Then, the instructions and implementation in CRL 202-311 in Fall 2014 is described. Finally, I present results and discuss themes that emerged from the students' responses and productions to answer the research questions. Limitations and implications of the current study follow.

5.2 Methodology

In this section, context, participants, instructional units which include brief reminder of multiliteracies pedagogy framework's four curricular components and activities implemented within the units, instruction unit length, data collection, and data analysis are presented to answer the research questions.

5.2.1 Context

The instructional units were implemented in an upper elementary level university Korean language class where I worked as a tutor. This was a self-instructional class in which students met with a tutor as a small group for only 2 hours a week. Chapter 13 to Chapter 17 of *Integrated Korean Beginning 2* published by University of Hawaii Press were covered during the semester. Based on the textbook contents and in-class meeting time, I consider it upper elementary level although the class was fourth-semester. Even though the class was self-instructional study, most of assigned learning content were taught in class. I did not see much of a difference from other language classes in terms of how in-class lessons were organized and delivered. One difference I observed was that there were less activities around the learning contents due to in-class time constraints. There were two official exams, one for midterm and one for final. The exams were conducted as oral interviews with an outside examiner through Skype. The interviews were conversations with the examiner based on the learning objectives from the textbook. The instructional units were not counted towards the students' grades as-is, but affected their in-class participation and preparation points.

5.2.2 Participants

The participants were students who were taking fourth semester of self-instructional Korean language class at a university. The students were 1 male and 6 females, ranging from 20 to 23 years old. Students' ethnicities varied. Two students were Korean-American heritage learners. Only one student has both a Korean mother and father. There were international students who are from Saudi Arabia and China. Other students were Hispanic descendants, born and raised in the U.S. The reasons why they wanted to study Korean language also varied. Most of the students were triggered by pop culture, other students wanted to learn the language due to

their heritage. One student wanted to learn the language because it is “cool” because not many people learn Korean. The students’ ultimate goals varied ranging from having near native-like fluency in the language to being able to communicate in both formal settings and informal settings, including study abroad, conversation with family and friends, etc., to being able to understand when they travel.

5.2.3 Instructional unites

This section presents goals of the instructional units followed by main concepts and activities that can be carried out during each curricular component. Each unit is presented with objectives, teaching materials, and grammar points from the textbook contents in Appendix J. The activities actually implemented in CRL 202-311 in Fall 2014 are described below by the curricular component and units.

5.2.3.1 Goals of instructional units

Guided by multiliteracies pedagogy and explicit inductive pragmatic consciousness raising activities, I designed a series of instructional units on sociopragmatic teaching on speech styles. The main idea of these instructional units is to develop students’ sociopragmatic awareness through the activities that can foster critical analysis of social contexts and that can challenge students’ perceptions of speech style as a static, syntactic element of Korean language. The use of multimedia also gave students opportunities to use all available designs to make meaning out of and to analyze contexts critically and then to make informed choices. In the same sense, these instructional units contain more than speech style as learning objectives. It allows students to explore different topics of cultural aspects as the target speech styles are presented in genuine materials from Korea. In addition, students can find learning objectives from the textbook, which are the grammar points presented in chapters; and in the materials so that they

can observe how the grammar points were used in more meaningful authentic situations than the textbook example sentences. These particular instructional units are designed to be supplemental units to the KFL class where I worked as a tutor. This class used part of Integrated Korean: Beginning 2 as a main learning resource. Therefore, these instructional units included activities noticing many grammar points from chapter 13 to chapter 17 of the Integrated Korean: Beginning 2. Learning goals of this series are as follows:

1. Students will be able to critically examine cultural values in videos as learners of Korean language.
 - a. Koreans' and Americans' different and/or similar attitude towards same topics and possible reasons on safe driving and suicide prevention after watching public service announcement (PSA).
 - b. Korean cultural values and comparison between Korean and students' own culture on the following topics after watching/reading short inspirational video essays: Smartphone-dependent life; *gosure* custom and *samjae*-ism; and *hyo*
2. Students will be able to expand the knowledge of sociopragmatics of polite form and deferential style through Multiliteracies framework based lessons.
3. Students will be able to make use of relevant explicit metapragmatic information when deciding on the appropriateness of speech style.
4. Students will be able to produce appropriate speech styles and use metalanguage to explain their choices.
5. Students will be able to analyze multimodal cues in a video to understand speech style use.

5.2.3.2 Overview of activities

This series of instructional units presents activities in terms of four curricular components of multiliteracies pedagogy framework: Situated practice, Overt instruction, Critical framing, and Transformed practice. This series of units followed Situated practice, Overt instruction, Critical framing, and Transformed practice sequence most of the time. However, the New London Group

(1996) and Kern (2000) suggested that these components are neither requirements nor sequential for one lesson; they are organically related to each other. Throughout the instructional units of this study, the instructor guided students to explore the provided texts in terms of linguistics resources and cultural values. In other words, students reached their own conclusion with the teacher's guidance through discussion instead of being told by the teacher. As a result, students had opportunities that they could explore linguistically and culturally from their personal perspectives at the time of implementation rather than from few sentences representing native speakers' point of view and from the textbook. The students completed all activities as a group of two or three. Overview of main idea of activities for each curricular component will be discussed with activity suggestions. Then, each unit will be presented with objectives, teaching materials, and activities followed by a sequence of the activities implemented in CRL202-311 in Fall 2014.

5.2.3.2.1 Situated practice

Students are exposed to the videos and background knowledge of the topic. After showing the title page, students talk about the topic as a whole class and predict the story before moving on to activities. Suggested activity is Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DRTA) (Kern, 2000). Students make predictions and then read to confirm or refute their own prediction with the teacher's guidance. Another suggested activity is jigsaw puzzle reading. Students can work alone or can be paired up. Each student or pair is assigned to one or two sentences. After they read their own sentences, students make a full story by asking and comparing with other students. Four to five full story groups for future activities are ideal, but it depends on the class size. After students form a full story group, students watch a video to confirm their story line. Students will analyze videos in a multimodal way while they watch with/without audio. Teachers

can advise students to use linguistics and/or contextual cues while they make predictions and confirmation and while students compare their sentences with other peers to make a full story.

5.2.3.2.2 Overt instruction

Students explicitly analyze texts in terms of relationships among texts. The main idea is not for students to translate but to think critically of word choices and sentence structure. For example, students can be directed to bracket embedded clauses and modify phrases to clarify the basic structure at a syntactic level. Another suggested activity is focusing on word/semantic level. Students can be directed to examine speech style and discuss how different speech style choices can make differences in meaning, nuances, attitudes, and/or social acceptability.

5.2.3.2.3 Critical framing

Students analyze texts in terms of cultural value. The main idea is that students have opportunities to discuss a topic from their own perspectives along with native speakers' perspectives. In addition, students examine their own cultural values of the topic during this stage. Therefore, they have chances to develop their own ideas and attitudes towards the topic. Suggested activity is critical focus question activity. The teacher asks questions focusing the effect of using certain vocabulary and sentence structure to a reader. This activity can be used in both Overt instruction and Critical framing stage. The teacher expands the question to reflect students' own language usage or own culture and has students think about how these work in Korean and their own language.

5.2.3.2.4 Transformed practice

Students are able to use what they learned in other contexts. Suggested activity is translation activity. This activity does not stop after translation at a syntactic level. Translation in

multiliteracies pedagogy does not mean language-to-language only, but also text genre to genre. The main focus of this activity is defending their own translated version. Students translate and compare translation with other groups in class. When they present their translation, they have to justify their words, sentence structures, and/or speech style choices using metalanguage. This activity can be extended beyond students' own production. Students can compare their products with published translated versions. Another possible activity is dialogic transformation activity. This activity is turning a text into an interview script between author and reader.

5.2.3.3 Sequence of activities

The series of instructional units were comprised of six units with flexibility. Each unit used one genuine material as a language sample except the first unit, which used two Facebook threads generated by native Korean speakers. The materials included two native speaker-generated Facebook threads, two PSAs, and three short inspirational video essays. The video essays were mainly narration with occasional dialogue between the characters from the story. The essays had background music throughout with one or two voiced narrations by the author at the end. Dialogues between characters were voiced as well. The scenes aligned with the narration and narrations were written on the screen.

Facebook threads were chosen to start the series because the students are familiar with them from their own lifestyle and the spoken language-like aspect of Korean. PSAs and the essays were chosen for a couple of reasons. First, PSAs and the inspirational essays convey what current Korean society values as a good citizen. Unlike the textbook's cultural sections that might be chosen to show only positive and neutral images of Korea (like information brochure for foreigners), PSAs and the essays provide chances to discuss what are the perceived good values as well as underlying cultural and social issues. Another reason for integrating PSAs and

the essays is their built-in features such as aligned image and narration since the target participants were beginning students. Their complementary relation can ease the anxiety of elementary level KFL learners when they encounter genuine materials from outside of the textbook. Sadly, beginning level students in the program worked with genuine materials on a very limited basis. Even if they work with genuine materials, it is less challenging in terms of written language. They are most familiar with one-paragraph-length written Korean from the textbook. The idea of working with full-length genuine materials regardless of linguistic complexity might overwhelm students and hinder the learning process. The PSAs and the essays multimodal aspect can provide other resources that beginning level KFL students can work with to understand the content as well as foster the idea that language is not a separate entity from all other available designs.

The purpose of the first unit is to explore authentic language samples with polite form usage and casual form, or *banmal*. Two Facebook threads were used as language samples. One had speech style usage that is in line with the textbook explanation. Kinship terms were used as cues. The other one had kinship terms as well, but textbook norm flouting was exhibited in terms of speech style usage. The objectives of the first unit are to introduce students to non-canonical uses of speech styles starting from where they are comfortable, to know the purpose of the usage, to be aware that speech styles are more than just a verb and/or an adjective ending, and to reflect their own language usage that has similar functions. To this end, students were presented the first Facebook thread and asked to find out relationships among participants in the thread (age, distance, setting, etc.) based on kinship terms and polite form in addition to the question noticing grammar points from the applicable textbook chapter. Then, the same questions were asked with the second Facebook thread, which has textbook norm flouting. Students discussed what they

found and compared and contrasted it with English and/or students' native language. After the discussion, students wrote a summary of their findings of polite form usage. They were asked to compare their summary with textbook explanation and revise if necessary. Finally, students presented their finalized version of summary to the whole class.

From the second unit to the sixth unit, the purpose was to introduce students to a variety of speech styles working and interacting in one genre. In addition, students were exposed to the purposeful use of multiple speech styles by one person. Each unit was built around one PSA or one essay. A similar set of questions was asked across the units. Activity sequence followed Situated practice, Overt instruction, Critical framing and Transformed practice as mentioned above. Kern (2000) suggested DRTA as an appropriate Situated practice activity for elementary level foreign language students. He mainly worked with written materials. My materials had more available designs and resources that the students can make use of to construct meaning. Therefore, I modified DRTA to work with digital resources. First, the students watched the video without audio to get the general idea. Instead of line by line or sentence(s) by sentence(s) cutting as Kern (2000) suggested, the class paused the PSA or essay scene by scene to make assumptions and confirm and/or refute their assumptions. Then, the students worked with sound to validate their assumptions from image-only input. While they were partaking in Situated practice, they also had chances to discuss genre knowledge for better understanding of the content.

During the Overt instruction the students worked with the script of the PSAs or the essays they watched. First, the students were asked to find speech styles presented in the scripts. Even though the students already had lessons on conjugations according to curriculum, they were asked to develop their own rules regarding the certain speech style and/or to confirm their

knowledge on speech style conjugations. This process wasn't quite 'overt' as the title of the step suggested. The students had to conduct their own investigation with the teacher providing examples. Then, the students were directed to examine speech styles presented in the scripts and to discuss how various speech style choices made differences in meaning, nuances, attitudes, and/or social acceptability. The last activity overlapped with Critical framing activities. Once the students discussed their findings of the different speech style usage, they compared their assumptions with the textbook explanation of the target speech style and their own experience, whether it was their first or secondhand. Then, the students went beyond Korean language. They discussed the similar options in English or their own native language followed by writing a paragraph about their own findings. The students were asked to find an article from the same genre from their native culture on the same topic, then compare and contrast them. They also discussed whether either one would have a positive effect in their counterpart culture.

Transformed practice was implemented during the last unit, unit 6. Unit 6 used one PSA on the topic of suicide prevention. The PSA had three one- or two-words sentence length dialogues with narration. The students were asked to choose one character from the PSA and make a dialogue between the character and another person from the PSA or outside of the PSA. They also wrote a journal like entry from the character's point of view. While they created the dialogue and the journal entry, the students were asked to write out their justification for certain speech style choices. This activity allowed the students to work with metapragmatic language and to reflect what they had been discussing. Then the students presented in class.

5.2.4 Length

This series of instructional units were implemented over the course of 10 hours throughout the whole semester. Mostly the class worked one or two units after each assigned

textbook chapter was done. However, not every units were administered at the same pace nor were every activities administered in-class due to expected and unexpected constraints. Some activities were assigned as homework especially where the students need to investigate such as finding same genre counterpart article and compare and contrast. The in-class discussion of the students' own findings were followed next class period when they had assignments. Length of treatments in interlanguage pragmatic studies vary greatly ranging from semester-long to short single treatments of just twenty minutes (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p.54). Target pragmatic features affect appropriate treatment length. Other studies focusing on speech style in Korean (Brown, 2013; Byon, 2007) dedicated one class period for the treatment. This is relatively short period of time compared to this project. One might argue that this project takes too long to teach speech style. In my defense, this project focuses on speech style teaching but it is not everything. This project was designed to fit or squeeze into any regular KFL courses by focusing integrating the types of question that stimulate KFL students fixed notion of speech style. This project includes cultural discussion as well as objectives from the textbook chapters. In addition, seven genuine materials were chosen and ordered to align well with the textbook learning contents. Therefore, one semester length was appropriate for this project.

5.2.5 Instrumentation

Data collection in this project consisted of questionnaires, surveys, and students' worksheets.

5.2.5.1 Questionnaire

There were two questionnaires students completed. Students filled out the first questionnaire prior to the instructions (Appendix K); another questionnaire after all the instructions were given. The first questionnaire had two sections. One section asked students'

demographics and purpose of learning Korean. Second section asked students' perception and knowledge of speech styles in Korean. In the second section, students were asked to provide their opinion in English regarding whether speech styles are important in Korea(n) or not, why speech styles are important, and their knowledge about speech styles. Open-ended questions were used to avoid limiting students' opinion to provided examples or statements. The second questionnaire was comprised of the same question as the second part of the first questionnaire. Same questions were given to measure whether there were any differences in the students' responses from their previous responses.

5.2.5.2 Survey

A survey (Appendix M) was administered after the instructions to know students' perception towards the instructions based on multiliteracies pedagogy. The survey had both open-ended questions and ranking questions using a Likert scale. It asked students' overall impression about the instructional units; whether the instructional units helped learning speech style, grammar points from textbook, and vocabulary; their favorite activities and least favorite activity; whether they want to take another class with similar style of instruction; and suggestions.

5.2.5.3 Worksheet

Two worksheets were collected. The first worksheet was collected to see the students' predominant ideas regarding speech styles. The worksheet was distributed in class after the first questionnaire was administered. The students were asked to draw a flowchart of speech style usage. They were also asked to include their own native language examples. This worksheet was done in a group and they had a complete freedom on what to include because I wanted to see

how students use metalanguage to discuss their choices and to see what the most prevalent ideas among the students are.

The second worksheet was the students' last activity. Students' last worksheet was collected to see how students applied speech styles in real-life-like situation. Students' last worksheet was chosen because it would show students' gained knowledge on speech styles over the instruction. Students were asked to watch a public service announcement (PSA) from Korea first. Then they chose one character from the PSA and wrote a dialogue between the character and other person/people and a journal entry-like paragraph telling background story of the dialogue they created. Students worked as a group. They were also asked to explain their speech style choices. Their explanation of speech style choices showed their perceptions and knowledge toward speech styles and it accompanied post-instruction questionnaire in terms of documenting students' development.

5.2.6 Data analysis

Qualitative data was gathered from the open-ended questions on the two questionnaires and survey and from students' worksheets responses. It was coded inductively to find emerging themes. Numeric data was gathered from the survey in the Likert scale format.

To answer the research question 3a (Can awareness-raising instructional units based on a multiliteracies pedagogy framework lead to an increased sociopragmatic understanding among KFL learners of speech level or hearer honorifics?), I first measured students' sociopragmatic understanding of speech style before the instructional unit was given. I collected and analyzed a part of the first questionnaire where the students were asked to share their ideas on what the speech style(s) is/are and whether it is important or not and why. This part shared the same questions as the second questionnaire. The second questionnaire and the students' last

worksheets, which are their own dialogue creation and journal-like entry after all of the units were given, were collected and analyzed to see their sociopragmatic understanding of speech style after the instruction. Exact words of students' responses from the survey and assignments were used without grammar correction. Then, I compared the two data to see any changes and/or development.

To answer the research question 3b (*What are the students' perceptions toward multiliteracies pedagogy-based instruction?*), the survey was distributed after all instructional units were given. Open-ended questions were used to learn students' overall impression about the instructions; their favorite activities and least favorite activities; their willingness to take another class with similar style of instruction; and suggestions. Ranking questions using a Likert scale, 1 being not useful and 5 being very useful, were used to ask whether the instructions helped learning speech style, grammar points from textbook, and vocabulary.

5.3 Results

This section presents the students' responses to the questionnaire and survey to answer the research questions for this chapter:

RQ 3a. Can awareness-raising instructional units based on a multiliteracies pedagogy framework lead to an increased sociopragmatic understanding among KFL learners of speech style or hearer honorifics?

RQ 3b. What are the students' perceptions toward multiliteracies pedagogy-based instruction?

The analysis of the students' responses to the pre- and post-instruction questionnaires and worksheets showed that their sociopragmatic understanding of hearer honorifics was broadened as their post-instruction responses included more sociopragmatic aspects in the following areas: metapragmatic awareness, sociopragmatic criteria, sociopragmatic purposes, pragmalinguistics,

and dynamic speech style usage by same person. These themes are presented after pre- and post-instruction questionnaire responses are provided. Then, post-instruction survey responses are presented to answer RQ 3b.

5.3.1 RQ3a: Increased understanding of speech style

5.3.1.1 Students' pre-instruction perceptions toward speech style

The pre-instruction questionnaire revealed several themes about the students' perception towards speech style: 1) awareness of sociopragmatic aspect including involvement of other interlocutors, age differences between interlocutors, and purpose of showing respect; 2) awareness of pragmalinguistic aspect; 3) awareness of social meaning to native speakers; and 4) students own personal experience reflection as in Table 5.1 at the end of this section.

In response to the *Is speech style important when you speak in Korean?*, all students answered that it is important. The responses from the question asking why it is important varied from a phrase to a sentence ranging from 4 words, "showing respect to others" to 16 words, "because I want to be able to use the correct forms when speaking to certain people." All of the students but one showed their awareness that the speech style is in relation to other interlocutors involved in the conversation. However, their responses showed limited sociopragmatic perception towards speech style. Age seemed the only factor the students specified to determine speech style usage as one student specifically mentioned age as a factor to choose different speech styles, "when people use polite form in Korean that means that people is *older than you (emphasis added)*." Another student included "peer," along with "adults," among the interlocutor examples that she needs to show respect. There was not enough evidence to conclude whether the student meant social distance between peers or age between peers. It is also possible that she just included to show different age group interlocutors.

Students' awareness of sociopragmatic purpose is another theme I observed. Two students used the word "respect" directly to describe the purpose of speech style without any further supporting reasons. The association of speech style and respect might have derived from the textbook and its name. Polite form is the term the textbook uses and is the first speech style the students were introduced to in the textbook series. Even though there is deferential style in the textbook and the deferential style is used occasionally, polite form is the most commonly used speech style between interlocutors throughout textbook, workbook, and in classroom. Polite form is used in the dialogue between classmates, between a student and a professor, and so on. Subject honorific infix $-\text{ㄹ}[s\dot{i}]-$ is introduced with polite form speech style during their first semester. The textbook uses examples with parents, professor, and grandparents. Those are simple and good examples to show age and social status as a criterion to use subject honorific infix. However, it does not go beyond this relationship. Due to the fact that the polite form is most prevalent, usage with subject honorific infix, and its name, the students might have developed the idea that speech style, especially polite form, has only one purpose, which is "showing respect" and has one criteria, or age.

Additionally, the responses showed the students' awareness of pragmalinguistic of speech style. One student explained the importance of speech style in terms of valuing native speakers' language culture saying that "it's important to learn because the speech style is important to Koreans." However, I cannot conclude anything beyond this because she did not provide why she thought the speech style is important to Koreans. There was one student who, unlike other students, reflected her own experience to share her ideas on the importance of speech style. She thought that intimate style is important because she had not been able to observe many native Korean speakers using formal style around her.

Their pragmalinguistic knowledge of speech style is more developed than that of sociopragmatic. The responses from the first questionnaire did not provide much information. Students' responses to the questionnaire showed that the students were aware of that there are different speech styles, but they were not able to use metalanguage to explain. One student differentiated formal from informal style in spoken Korean. Half of the students listed different speech styles, and two students explained it in relation to people involved in a conversation. One student complained that she was having difficulties with conjugation with future tense. Even though the questionnaire did not show much, the flowchart of speech style worksheet showed more on the students' pragmalinguistic knowledge. During the in-class instruction, the students drew flowcharts of speech style as a group. They created two flowcharts. Their flowcharts included pragmalinguistic information alone. One chart compares Korean with their native language. They put Korean in the middle and had four branches. The four branches were "dictionary form", "casual", "honorific", and "polite." Casual, honorific, and polite branches were connected to their native language with a couple of words in their native language that belong to same category in their opinion. The other chart listed different speech style levels with example verbs. Even though the students had complete freedom on what to include in the flowchart, there were no signs of interpersonal relationships between interlocutors. Social distance was completely ignored in both flowcharts.

In sum, the students' sociopragmatic perception before the instructional unit was mostly informed by spoken language from the textbook uses except one student who reflected her own experience. They demonstrated that the speech style is based on the interlocutors involved in the conversation but purpose and criteria of speech style sociopragmatic are limited to age and showing respect. The students were more focused on pragmalinguistic than sociopragmatic level.

Table 5.1 Themes from Pre-instruction Questionnaire

	Theme	Students' Response Excerpt
Awareness of sociopragmatic aspect	Involving other interlocutors	Each individual (peer, adults, etc) To certain people People is older than you (relationship) To others
	Relationship between interlocutors - Age	Peer, adults People is older than you
	Showing respect	Shows respect Showing respects
Awareness of pragmalinguistic aspect		The correct forms Polite form Informal style/ formal style
Awareness of social meaning to native speakers of Korean		Important to Koreans
Reflecting their own experience		Not much Koreans speak formal style

5.3.1.2 Students' post-instruction perceptions toward speech style

The second questionnaire and students' last worksheets where they created their own dialogue and journal-like entry with justification of speech style use were collected. The second questionnaire had similar question items as the first questionnaire. All students answered that the speech style is important as they responded in the first questionnaire. The students provided longer explanations about why it is important than they did in the first questionnaire. The responses ranged from 11 words to 26 words. The post-instruction questionnaire showed mainly two themes: awareness of pragmalinguistic aspect and awareness of sociopragmatic aspect as in Table 5.2 at the end of this section. Sociopragmatic aspect includes 1) involving other interlocutors, 2) age differences between interlocutors, 3) social distance, 4) social setting, 5)

purpose to show respect, and 6) students' purposeful use of speech style as they practice autonomy as Korean speakers.

After the instruction, the students maintained the idea that the speech style is in relation to other interlocutors. I could observe more themes from the first questionnaire regarding sociopragmatic criteria. The students acknowledged that age is one factor. They referred to age differences using older and younger dichotomy, which was observed from the first questionnaire also. The students included 'same age' as another factor to consider.

Unlike the first questionnaire where they pointed out 'age' as the only factor, the second questionnaire had two more criteria. One is social distance between the speakers. The students were able to articulate that the speech style usage depends on familiarity between the interlocutors. They not only differentiated familiar-unfamiliar dichotomy, they were able to describe distances more in detail such as "in the first few meetings" and "recently met." It shows that the students became aware that social relationship building might be required to decide appropriate speech style use.

Another criterion they pointed out is the social setting. A couple of students responded that they use certain style in formal settings. The purpose of the speech style the students mentioned were very similar to the ones in the first questionnaire. Unlike before the instruction, they didn't use the word "respect" directly. The responses tend to be more descriptive, such as "people won't like you," "offensive," "insult," and "will not be good." However, most of the responses were limited to showing courtesy or respect to other interlocutors.

One interesting response was that the speech style "makes a difference between a statement and an insult." There is not enough evidence from this questionnaire only, but it is

possible that the students noticed that by manipulating the speech style purposefully, they can achieve more than being polite and showing respect with the speech style, which is ‘insulting.’

The students’ pragmalinguistic awareness was more elaborate than in the first questionnaire. In the first questionnaire, the students listed the two or three speech styles alone. However, in the second questionnaire after the instruction, the students were able to provide responses with more information such as sociopragmatic criteria and social settings. There was only one student who mentioned deferential style and casual form in the first questionnaire, but all but two of the students included casual and deferential style along with polite form. The two students who mentioned only polite form here also showed more elaborate responses including social distance and age to describe the usage. Therefore, I do not think that their answers for this item have lower quality compared to other responses.

More interesting points were observed from the last activity than the questionnaires. The students worked as a group for the last activity. They watched a suicide prevention PSA. There were three groups in the PSA: teenage female friends, one married couple, and older generation male friends. The students were asked to choose one group and make up a background story (journal style) and a dialogue. They were able to choose a character for the dialogue from within and outside of the PSA. Then, they wrote justification of their speech style choice.

The first group chose the older generation male friends. They used polite form to write a journal. They reflected that deferential would be better fit for the journal because it is a background story narrative. For the dialogue, they created one new character. The character is younger male. The new character met one of the older males in the PSA and they started a conversation as strangers. This group pointed out age as one factor why the younger man used polite form to the older man. They also incorporated the concept of social distance between the

speakers to explain their speech style choice. Since the two characters did not know each other before, the older man should use polite form to the younger man. This is different from the general idea of honorific and speech style usage commonly explained in classroom. Usually, honorific expressions are explained as older person does not use it to younger person. The students showed that they could separate honorific expression from speech style usage. Even the older people can use polite form to younger people.

The second group and third group chose the teenage girl friends. The second group created a dialogue between the two girls in the PSA; the third group misinterpreted the worksheet direction and wrote two dialogues, one between one of the girls and her parents and the other one between the two girls in the PSA. The second group chose to use polite form in the journal entry and they explained that polite form is appropriate since the character is the narrator. They used intimate form in the dialogue and the group provided social distance, “close and best friends” as a reason why they used intimate form to each other. The third group also used casual dialogue between the two girls from the PSA due to the same social distance reason as the second group. In the dialogue between one of the girls and her parents, the daughter and father used intimate form and the mother used both intimate and polite form. This is the first time students alternated between speech styles. They explained the mother’s use of intimate form based on the age factor. This usage reflected a canonical use of speech style.

However, they also showed creative use of speech styles. They incorporated emotion as another factor regarding speech style choice. The dialogue between the girl and her parents was happening after her mother received a phone call from the teacher of her daughter, who is a senior at high school. The teacher informed the mother of concerns regarding her behaviors at school. They explained that the daughter used intimate form because of stress and the father

because he is angry. The mother used polite form because she felt bad for her daughter. This idea of using speech style based on the emotions was never brought up in the textbook. The students were able to use speech style as a sentence ending defined by not only age seniority, but also social distance and social setting. The students' justification of speech style choices demonstrated that they did not view speech style as a meaningless sentence ending any more but as an element that carries more meaning and as a tool to communicate.

Table 5.2 Themes from Post-instruction Questionnaire

Theme	Students' response excerpt
Involving other interlocutors	People won't like you Communication To older person/people Between friends or people...
Relationship between interlocutors - Age	Speaking to older person Younger people/ older people/ same age people The speaker who are not older
Awareness of sociopragmatic aspect	Same age but not familiar In the first few meetings Between friends Recently met
Social distance	Social setting
Social setting	Formal setting if you don't know the speech style, people won't like you.
Showing respect	Difference between a statement and an insult Don't come off as offensive Speaking to older person and using casual will not be good
Purposeful use Practicing autonomy	Difference between a statement and an insult
Awareness of pragmalinguistic aspect	Casual Polite form Deferential

5.3.1.3 Pre-instruction vs. post-instruction

This section describes observed differences between pre-instruction questionnaire responses and post-instruction questionnaire and students' own dialogue and journal entry creation with their reflection on speech styles. The following themes were considered: metapragmatic awareness, sociopragmatic criteria, sociopragmatic purposes, pragmalinguistics, and dynamic speech style usage by one speaker.

5.3.1.3.1 Metapragmatic awareness

Students' responses regarding what the speech styles are and whether it is important and why were found more elaborated and explicit on speech style in the post-instruction questionnaire than in the pre-instruction questionnaire. The students used only age differences and the word 'respect' to explain why speech styles are important in the pre-instruction questionnaire. Also, the responses were relatively short varying from 4 words to 16 words. In the post-instruction questionnaire, the students included more sociopragmatic criteria beyond age. They counted social distance and social setting as a factor to consider deciding appropriate speech style. It was not seen in the questionnaire, but the students' worksheet where the students explained their speech style choices also showed genre as another criterion to consider.

The responses in the post-instruction questionnaire were longer than the ones in the pre-instruction questionnaire ranging from 11 words to 26 words. The students explained with their own words about why they need to use appropriate speech style rather than just copying from the name of speech style, as they include social distance as a factor.

Pragmalinguistics knowledge also expanded compared to the pre-instruction even though it is just a category. Polite form alone was prevalent in the pre-instruction questionnaire but polite form, deferential style, and intimate form were equally observed in the post-instruction

questionnaire as well as in students' own descriptions of their speech style choices of their dialogue and journal entry.

5.3.1.3.2 Sociopragmatic criteria

Students' sociopragmatic criteria to use appropriate speech style was broadened after the instructions. Age was the only criterion that the students mentioned in both the questionnaire and speech style mind map before the instructions. However, the post-instruction and the last worksheets clearly showed that students still had age as a factor but it was not the only one like before the units. They included social distance between interlocutors using expressions such as "not familiar", "between friends", and "recently met" in the post-instruction questionnaire. Their use of social distance as criterion was observed in the worksheet. One group justified older generation male's use of polite form to younger generation male due to the fact that they just met each other for the first time. Other groups also included social distance to explain why two teenage girls used casual form to each other unlike what they usually see in the textbook, which is using polite form between classmates. They explained the two girls used intimate form to each other because they were close and best friends.

The students mentioned social setting as another sociopragmatic criterion to use appropriate speech style in the questionnaire. Even though the use of formal setting was not observed in the worksheet because all groups chose informal settings for their dialogue, I believe that the students were aware of the social setting criterion while they created the dialogues because their dialogues took place in informal setting and they did not use deferential style which is what they claimed appropriate for formal setting. Textbook explanation of deferential style includes gender differences. It claims that male speakers tend to use more of deferential

style than female speakers do. However, the gender differences were not addressed by the student in the questionnaires and worksheets either before or after the instruction.

5.3.1.3.3 Sociopragmatic purposes

The students also showed broadened understanding of sociopragmatic purposes of speech style. Before the instruction, 'showing respect' is the only one that students mentioned why they thought the speech styles are important. It seems that the students thought of polite form alone when they thought of speech style before the instructions. Therefore, they automatically came up with idea of 'respect.' After the instruction, the students also had the same idea, 'showing respect,' however, unlike the pre-instruction questionnaire, they did not use the word 'respect' directly. Instead, they tried to use their own words to describe 'showing respect.' I think this shows improvement from direct connection derived from the speech style name 'polite form' and 'respect.'

After instruction, they shied away from the one-dimensional direct connection and they tried to think about the speech style more in depth. This practice can be observed in the students' worksheet. They were reflecting their choice of speech style according to the genre. One group mentioned they should have used deferential style to write the journal entry due to its genre even though they used polite form. Another group argued that polite form was also acceptable to use in a journal because they thought the journal is for themselves so they can use any speech style they like. This idea exchange showed that the students were also aware of the audience. It clearly demonstrated that they could differentiate speech style, or hearer honorifics, from subject honorifics.

Another interesting use of speech style was observed when the students were away from the age dichotomy and respect idea. One group created a dialogue between a teenage girl and her

parents. The daughter and father used casual form and mother used both casual and polite form. The daughter's use of intimate form to her parents was never explained or modeled in the textbook. In fact it contradicts textbook examples and explanation of speech styles. The students in the group justified each character's speech style use with emotion. The daughter used intimate form because she is stressed out, the father used intimate form because he is angry, and the mother used polite form to her daughter because she felt bad for her. I view this creative use of speech style as a positive change. It shows that they finally thought of the speech styles not as mere sentence endings but as tools to express what they wanted to express. Some might argue that use of speech style depending on the emotion might lead students in an unsafe position as a KFL learner. Non-canonical use of speech style might expose students in face-threatening situation. Even though there are chances that students will be in embarrassing moments, these can be their valuable learning moments outside of the classroom. In addition, this experience, playing and working with language, will provide chances that they can use language and grammar not only as the textbook describes but also as tools to be autonomous speakers of KFL. This movement, acknowledging speakers' intention with use of speech styles, was found from one response in the post-instruction questionnaire showing recognition of speaker's autonomy using speech style to make an utterance as an insult or a statement.

5.3.1.3.4 Pragmalinguistics

The students were able to notice that there are different speech styles but most of them included only polite forms before the instructional units. In the mind map, they included intimate form and polite form along with honorifics. Honorifics are not speech styles. It shows that they have mixed ideas of honorifics and speech styles. It also explains why they mentioned 'showing respect' alone to explain speech style use. However, after the instructional units, the students

included intimate and deferential style as well as polite form, except one group. All groups had more elaborated explanations using age, social distance, and social setting. One group provided conjugation. One student in this group provided conjugation in the pre-instruction questionnaire also. Compared to the ones in the pre-instruction questionnaire, conjugations in the post-instruction questionnaire included more accurate conjugation for all intimate, polite form, and deferential style.

5.3.1.3.5 Dynamic speech style usage

One group used different speech styles for one speaker in a dialogue based on emotion. I see this as a positive change to be more autonomous speakers of KFL. Dynamic speech style usage rarely happened in the textbook. However, one can see speech style changes without difficulty in conversations between native Korean speakers. Therefore, the students showed movement towards more authentic conversation styles rather than mimicking textbook conversation styles as a result of the instructional units.

5.3.2 RQ3b: Students' perceptions of multiliteracies pedagogy based instruction

The survey found that students had positive perceptions of the instruction, as students said that the lesson “was a good way to use what we learned and apply to real-life”, and “gives what we are learning a true feeling.” Another student commented, “I am now able to understand speech styles a lot better than before.” Students also showed positive attitudes towards inclusion of authentic materials, as one commented that the instruction was “much better than if we used only the book,” and “using just the textbook can be very old-school”. All students thought that the instruction was very useful to learn speech style (mean=5), and to learn grammar (mean=4.71) as well as vocabulary (mean=4.71).

Table 5.3 Speech Style Instructional Unit with Authentic Materials

Materials	Number of Responses (n)					Mean
	1 (Not useful)	2	3	4	5 (Very useful)	
Speech style	0	0	0	0	7	5.00
Grammar	0	0	0	2	5	4.71
Vocabulary	0	0	1	0	6	4.71

Students most favored overt instruction and critical framing with PSAs and Facebook activities, then inspirational essays as students said “showed good examples of deferential vs. polite”, “I learned when and why to use speech styles easy”, and “it is very relevant to our generation on how to read Korean’s current speech style with slang that is used very often.” Students least favorite activities were working with the textbook, saying that “the materials from the book is hard to understand how it’s used in the real life,” and “they do not explain it well.” One student pointed out her least favorite activity was translation at the syntactic level. There was no assignment asking syntactic level translation, but this student misinterpreted the word ‘translate’ and perceived as syntactic level translation. All students wanted to take another class using the multiliteracies based instruction because they thought using genuine materials outside of the classroom could provide richer and more useful input than what a textbook can offer. Another student commented that the materials “come from the actual culture, and not an academic opinion.” A student also liked the multiliteracies based instruction because it “challenges you to know more Korean.” One student suggested including music for future implementation and another student wanted to use PSAs and commercial advertisement more.

5.4 Discussion

The findings demonstrated that multiliteracies pedagogy-based lessons had positive effects on students' understanding of the sociopragmatic aspects of speech styles. As the students' survey responses indicated, the lessons also had positive impacts on the students' attitudes towards multiliteracies pedagogy. The analysis of findings revealed that 1) multiliteracies pedagogy can provide activities to foster students' *full participation* (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and 2) the students' existing notion of literacy might be tenacious to change over the course of semester.

5.4.1 Multiliteracies pedagogy to foster students' *full participation*

The analysis of the students' responses provided supports that instructors' approach and/or pedagogy to genuine materials and literacy make a difference in language teaching. Students' exposure to the target language communities is also dependent on the instructors' perspectives, and their perspectives can or cannot make classroom instructions to lead students to *full participation* in the target language communities of practice (Johnson & Kress, 2003; Kalantzis and Cope, 2005; Lave & Wenger, 1991; MLA, 2007; New London Group, 1996). Similar to Brown (2011), the current implemented textbook, *Integrated Korean*, does not elaborate on sociopragmatic aspect of subject honorific infix *-si-*. As for the speech style usage, the textbook does provide more information than for the subject honorific infix. However, conjugation is still the main focus. The limited and prescriptive sociopragmatic information regarding the appropriate social settings, speakers, and interlocutors reinforces the idea that pragmalinguistic aspects are the main focus of the speech styles and honorifics.

The students' pre-instruction data reflected the textbook information. Their responses were primarily focused on pragmalinguistics and they had a confused understanding between honorifics and speech styles. Their responses to the question about speech style were limited to polite speech style even though three different speech styles were included in the question as examples. When more than one response was mentioned, they referred to different verbs with polite speech style or one with subject honorific infix *-si-* and one without. Other student used the "formal" vs. "informal" dichotomy without further elaboration. One student mentioned that "tense is most difficult" for her, indicating a lack of awareness on the concept of speech style. The speech style flowchart activity also demonstrated that the students did not have clear ideas about honorifics and speech styles. One group treated honorifics as a part of speech styles by placing all three (honorifics, polite form, and casual/intimate form) at the same level as well as the dictionary form, the default form of verbs and adjectives before they are conjugated. Another group wrote "honorifics" and then branched out to explain different speech styles.

Like the students, it is uncommon for beginning foreign language educators to focus on pragmalinguistics and linguistics resource. Some KFL instructors believed that further instruction on pragmatics was not necessary because pragmalinguistic aspects were dealt in class as grammar points in the previous semesters (Byon, 2004). Moreover, instructors believe that elementary level students lack ability to work with genuine materials due to insufficient vocabulary and grammar knowledge. When I was first introduced to the multiliteracies pedagogy in a methodology course, there was skepticism about this pedagogy among many students, who were graduate students in foreign language departments with limited teaching experiences. They believed that this pedagogy is overwhelming for elementary level students because they do not have linguistic competency to work with genuine materials. Similar reactions were found from

the KFL instructors I interviewed for the previous chapter. As the graduate students from the methodology class, most of the instructors had reservations about working with beginning students regarding pragmatics due to the same reason, linguistic incompetence.

Although they tend to overemphasize linguistic resource, many KFL educators reported that they integrate genuine materials, especially video clips, into their own classrooms according to Chapter 3 survey results and Chapter 4 interviews. They also believed that exposure to the authentic context is important and valuable to their student. However, they used the materials only to demonstrate a phrase from a textbook dialogue in contexts, because they do not believe elementary level students can manage authentic materials. The video clips the instructors used were usually collections of few second-long video clips. These were extracted from Korean TV show programs and TV series. The clips were cut to show various people using the same phrases. Activities exploring the phrases more in-depth were seldom followed. Only brief explanation of social setting was a common practice, associated with the use of the video clips in a classroom.

The main resources for this project were also video clips. Different from the common use of video clips in their classroom, the students were asked to engage with the video clips using multiple available resources. The activities guided the students to use audio, visual, and spatial resources to make meaning out of the video clips, mirroring their own literacy practices. The students in this chapter contradicted the KFL educators' and the above future instructors' apprehension that elementary level students cannot manage genuine texts. None of the students claimed that the lessons were too difficult for them. One student even mentioned that it "challenge[d] [her] to know more Korean." Not only were the students able to complete activities successfully, but they also enjoyed the activities.

Furthermore, the students' post-instruction data showed elaborated sociopragmatic aspects including how sociopragmatic criteria (familiarity, initial meetings, and settings) can be applied to each speech style. The students' responses moved away from over-generalized speculations without any evidence, such as "important to Korean" or "not much Koreans speak formal," to documenting their own observation and their own language experimentation, such as "in the first few meetings" or "difference between statement and insult." The lessons helped the students to be peripheral or full participants instead of peripheral bystanders who make blunt speculations to the literacy practice of the target language. Throughout the lessons, the students were encouraged to be active users of the language rather than spectators from outside of Korean language users' communities of practice.

However, in an average traditional classroom instruction, honorifics and speech styles were taught in relation to static social status, such as age and professions, based on the textbook information with very little outside resources. It may be a simple and quick way to introduce the general concepts and denotations of speech styles and honorifics. This way of teaching might be perceived as the only option for the KFL teachers when, according to the teachers' responses from the survey and interviews from the previous chapters, they had too much to teach and cover in a limited amount of time. Unfortunately, it was shown that such instruction is not enough to explore connotation of speech style usage because "connotations are shared by particular communities of practice and are much more dynamic" whereas "denotations are shared by large groups of speakers" (Dewaele, 2004, p.130). Connotation and non-canonical usage of specific speech style can be learned through meaningful and productive learning moments, which allow students to actively participate (whether they actively produce or actively observe) in language use across different communities of practice of Korean language speakers.

As foreign language educators, we should not limit students' accessibility to the communities of practice as a result of the fact that we limit literacy as linguistic resource only. The notion of literacy should be more than encoding and decoding texts with vocabulary and grammar to offer KFL students peripheral participation opportunities to the Korean language users' communities of practice. Instructors should design "multiple, varied, more- or less-engaged and –inclusive" activities that bring "an opening, a way of gaining access to sources for understanding through growing involvement" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p.37). The students in this chapter were able to explore the genuine materials as active language users, instead of being irrelevant outsiders, through the activities that encourage the use of various available resources. Their participation and experiences working with authentic texts provided their own evidences to justify their use of specific speech style, which were not available to them with previous vocabulary and grammar focused classes.

5.4.2 Schooling affects students' notions of literacy

As Lortie (1975) argues, students observe their teachers' views and trained with the activities emphasizing vocabulary and grammar as main parts of language practices. KFL lessons or other foreign language courses, designed with traditional views of literacy as encoding and decoding texts, affect students' notion of literacy. After the multiliteracies approach based lessons, the students were able to expand their ideas on language (Choi, 2015; Kern, 2000; Michelson & Dupuy, 2014). For example, they were able to identify different speech styles with social purposes in mind rather than just listing a series of conjugation formulae. Additionally, they demonstrated autonomous and dynamic use of speech style based on their own justifications instead of static criteria that their textbook provided. However, the study revealed that previous schooling experiences could have stronger effects on the students' notion of literacy and, as

Chavez (2011) argued, it would take more time and effort to change students' view on language in a foreign language course.

Some students' responses found in post-instruction questionnaire and activities revealed that the students were experiencing a clash between their previous ideas and new ideas about language practices. The students' responses to certain questions were focused only on linguistic resources and correct use of pragmalinguistic aspect of speech styles. During the lessons, one student misinterpreted a translation assignment. She was absent that day and received the assignment via email. Other students had a chance to clarify that the translation activity is genre transformation and it is not a typical Korean to English or English to Korean translation exercise. Even though there was a direction explaining the exercise, the absent student thought of syntactic translation based on her previous foreign language schooling experiences, as she shared with me in class. Her foreign language experiences were focused on linguistic aspects and familiar activity to her was decoding a language to another one. Also, great portion of textbook and workbook activities were syntactic level translation. The student's schooling experiences did not provide enough opportunities to explore different genres and to utilize other available resources to mirror literacy practice in her native language.

Other evidence was found from the post-instruction questionnaire. One group of students provided conjugation formulae of different speech styles without sociopragmatic explanation as responses to the question asking about speech style usage. Their understanding of speech styles was improved, compared to pre-instruction. Their post-instruction questionnaire included appropriate speech styles exclusively. They included neither other honorifics nor same speech style repetition with different verbs as they did for pre-instructional questionnaire. Their dialogue creation worksheet and genre translation worksheet demonstrated that their sociopragmatic

understanding had been broadened. One of their characters for the last activity even used multiple speech styles depending on specific purposes. However, when they were asked to talk about speech styles, they provided conjugation formulae, similar to something found in a textbook.

What made more interesting was that a student in the group reported that the lessons were “a good way to use what we learned and apply to real-life,” contrary to Chaves (2011)’s argument that learners might “see little wrong with the lack of connection between classroom instruction and real-life language-use practices” (p.94), but they went back to their familiar practice of foreign language learning, focusing on conjugation without any mention of usage. Another student’s response to the use of genuine material pointed out the disconnection between the textbook and real-life language usage. Unlike Chaves (2011), the students were aware of the possible disconnection between classroom instruction based on a textbook and real-life language practice. They preferred to have instructions that can place them in the periphery of the communities of practices of native Korean speakers. The curriculum and instructors should incorporate more lessons that enable students’ autonomous language use so that the students can begin (trans-) forming and reinforcing their new notion of language and language learning.

5.5 Implications

The findings and discussion suggested the need for curriculum adjustment to further develop KFL programs in terms of quality of students’ language learning experience and retention rate (Domron & Forsyth, 2012; Nam, 2017). Similar to the post-instruction survey results, their students’ surveys revealed that KFL students in their institutions, one four-year public university and one four-year private university, likely to continue when the curriculum is challenging enough and interesting to keep their motivations and expectations (Domron &

Forsyth, 2012; Nam, 2017). The KFL instructors from the previous chapters also expressed the need of academically challenging curriculum for her department. In addition, Nam (2017) found that motivation and positive self-image as a Korean language user contributed to the continuing learning Korean.

Multiliteracies pedagogy based instruction provided students more challenging, interesting, and stimulating learning opportunities than the traditional instruction, which generally focuses on developing linguistic competence before students are exposed to authentic materials. Moreover, this study showed that multiliteracies pedagogy informed lessons can be integrated into a typical textbook-based KFL curriculum when instructors provide ample and meaningful exposures and spaces where students can test out their own theories and ask questions which can challenge students to observe speech styles as more than sentence ending or marking respect. Once students challenge one grammar point as dynamic language element through this type of instruction, they can see language not just as strings of grammar points and words that they are insecure about, but as a resource they can work with based on the literacy competency they have already developed using multiple available designs around them. As a result, students would have more autonomy in the language learning process with instructors' guidance as experts in the native Korean speakers of communities of practice. Their foreign language classroom experiences would be their apprenticeships as language users instead of translation software. Their immersive language experiences would provide stronger intrinsic and/or extrinsic motivations to continue KFL studies.

Another implication from the study results is the need for teacher training to successfully execute the multiliteracies pedagogy based instruction. These instructional units were designed based on the *Integrated Korean* textbook series. When one considers that each classroom is

different and never the same from one class to another, each teacher needs to adapt and modify the lesson plan however necessary according to textbook, context, and so on. If an instructor does not have better understanding of multiliteracies pedagogy and its terminology, some of the activities might lose their own purpose and fall back into one of the workbook or textbook exercises, especially the translation activity as happened in my research with one of my students.

The study also provides methodology implication. The analysis in the current project has shown that performance test alone would not provide sufficient data to document students' metapragmatic awareness changes after the instructional units. Many researchers use performance test to measure effectiveness of teaching intervention (See Song & Pyun, 2011 for KFL, and Jeon & Kaya, 2006 for Most Commonly Taught Languages (MCTLs)). However, pragmatic performance cannot be evaluated solely by students' pragmatic knowledge. There are other reasons such as identities and ideologies that might play a more important role than students' incompetency (Brown, 2011; Kasper & Rose, 2002). We can never precisely know what the underlying justifications of students' choices are and what they actually do regarding language use with performance test alone. Performance tests provide valuable quantifiable data, but, without any reflection questions, it is hard to argue that performance tests would be better methods to document pragmatic awareness development. When a performance test is combined with reflection or justification questions, it would yield more in-depth data to understand students' development and effectiveness of instruction.

5.6 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

One of the limitations of the current study concerns the class size. The Korean class I worked with was the only type that the university offered. There was a class size limitation, which was 10 students maximum per section. There was only one section at the time of the

lesson plan implementation and less than 10 students were enrolled. If more classes and students were there to implement the lesson plans, there would have been more quantitative and qualitative data to gather, which would have allowed more in depth analysis of instructional unit effect and students' pragmatic awareness changes. Future research should focus on working with more students and/or having a comparison group to draw more concrete claims.

Another limitation of this project concerns the study design. I tried to document students' metapragmatic awareness as much as possible by including open-ended questions in the pre- and post-instruction questionnaires and survey and by including justification questions to their speech style choices from the worksheets. This methodology provided evidence that students' metapragmatic awareness changes before and after the instructional unit. However, classroom discourse analysis would provide more thorough qualitative evidence of the students' metapragmatic awareness development. Therefore, future research should consider including multiple classroom discourse analysis to have better understanding of students' development. In addition, implementation of the dialogue creation with justification activity before and after the instructional units would have been more interesting and yield richer data on how students' metapragmatic awareness had changed because students' post-instruction worksheets, where they created dialogue and provided justification of their speech style choice, showed better understanding of how the students' metapragmatic awareness worked.

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented a series of experimental instructional units on sociopragmatics awareness of Korean speech styles, theoretically informed by multiliteracies pedagogy (The New London Group, 1996) and explicit inductive teaching. I presented the instructions overview first. Then, the actual instruction implementation was described followed by methodology. Finally, I

presented results and discussed themes that emerged from the students' responses and productions to answer the research questions. The focus of the chapter was to implement multiliteracies pedagogy and explicit inductive teaching based instruction to help students to develop metapragmatic awareness of speech styles. Albeit there were obvious limitations to the current study, the students reported that they benefited from this series of instructional units. The data from the study supported the students' claim as well. The students showed positive changes in metapragmatic awareness, sociopragmatic criteria, sociopragmatic purposes, and pragmalinguistics. Dynamic speech style usage by one speaker was also observed. This project challenged the idea of teaching speech styles as a grammar point and sentence ending alone. Instead, the study demonstrated great potential that speech styles can be taught with pragmatics approach and integrated into traditional curriculum when the right questions and materials are provided.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This dissertation project explored the current state of KFL programs at tertiary-level institutions in the U.S., as well as KFL educators' practices and cognition in regards to pragmatics instruction. Based on this research, interventional instructional units on speech styles were proposed. In Chapter 3, I reported my survey findings on the KFL instructors' and administrators' demographics and their programs' characteristics, including pragmatics instruction practices. This chapter went on to examine the relationship between instructors' beliefs about pragmatics, in-class pragmatics instruction, and socio-contextual factors. Chapter 4 further investigated the surveyed KFL educators' cognition and practices of pragmatics instruction using Borg's (2006) language teacher cognition framework. This served to identify factors that contribute to the instructors' beliefs and possible areas for future research aimed at developing effective and efficient pragmatics instruction that can be implemented into the current curriculum. Based on the results of the first two studies and the MLA's 2007 report recommending transcultural and translingual competence, Chapter 5 reported on the implementation of a series of instructional units, informed by Pragmatic Consciousness Raising (PCR) and Multiliteracies pedagogy framework. This chapter also presented the results from the analysis of pre- and post-questionnaires, as well as excerpts from students' written products focusing on their sociopragmatic understanding of Korean speech styles.

This concluding chapter will summarize findings and key points from each chapter, focusing on the results provided by the three interrelated studies. This summary will address the invaluable insights these surveys grant into the unique qualities of KFL programs and the challenges faced by KFL educators in regards to pragmatics instruction, which then leads to

several points of attention. This chapter will then go on to consider the implications and limitations of the present research, provide suggestions for future research, and present concluding remarks.

6.2 Summary of Main Findings and Discussion

Analysis of quantitative and qualitative data from the survey presented in Chapter 3 showed that the average respondent was employed by a KFL program within an academic department of a four-year public university. These KFL programs typically accommodate fewer than 100 students and offer elementary through advanced level courses. The average respondent was an experienced teacher (having taught for at least three years) with at least a master's degree in a language-related field. This demographic represents current trends in the KFL field, which is dominated by instructors equipped with more professional qualifications and credentials than ever before, staying in line with the overall professional and academic growth within this field. In spite of these positive changes, equity and advocacy are challenges KFL educators still face.

The survey results showed that KFL administrators and instructors alike believed that pragmatic competence is central/crucial to developing proficiency in a foreign language and that pragmatics should be taught in class. However, the analysis of the survey results also showed that although the importance of pragmatics is understood and accepted, it did not play a significant role in shaping classroom practices and current approaches to pragmatics teaching remain unsatisfactory. Moreover, institutional contextual factors did not play a great role regarding the treatment of pragmatics in the KFL classroom. Except for professional development opportunities, which did exhibit the use of certain alternative teaching techniques (discourse completion tasks [$p < 0.01$] and interviewing native speakers [$p < 0.03$]), there was no quantifiable or statistical significant differences across the board at $p < 0.5$ between inclusion of

pragmatics instruction and institutional contextual factors, such as how big/small the programs were, and so on. In other words, the respondents were better equipped to incorporate these teaching techniques to address target pragmatics when the respondents' programs offer more professional development opportunities.

Not surprising, variations in the survey responses are found throughout, including the pragmatics section of the survey. These findings suggested that the lack of articulation of pragmatics instruction practices in use before the current survey might have contributed to these uneven results. The surveyed KFL instructors' time was consumed by conducting daily lessons based on the assigned textbook series and had heavy workloads. These two factors prevented them from implementing innovative lesson plans and incorporating external materials, thereby stopping them from putting into practice what they believe to be important for teaching KFL.

Chapter 4 presented an in-depth analysis of the interviews with KFL instructors to further investigate how beliefs toward pragmatics, contextual factors, and classroom practice interact. The interviews revealed that the instructors' views on pragmatics and pragmatics instruction were shaped and reshaped by various factors. The most significant factor found to contribute to the teachers' beliefs was that of their own personal foreign language learning experience within and beyond the formal school setting. Interestingly, it was found that the teachers' classroom pragmatics instruction practices arose from their working definitions of pragmatics rather than their espoused theories. Regardless of their stated beliefs and working definitions, textbooks provided the core element of their curriculum and classroom practice. Teachers preferred these ready-made materials because they did not need to adapt them substantially to fit the needs of the curriculum in question.

Drawing on the findings discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, Chapter 5 presented a series of instructional units on sociopragmatics awareness of Korean speech styles, based on Pragmatics Conscious Raising (PCR) and Multiliteracies pedagogy framework. These units were created to be compatible with the textbook series *Integrated Korean*, which was used by all the teachers interviewed in Chapter 4, and served to explore how pragmatics instruction can be integrated into current textbook-oriented curricula, focusing on both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. KFL students in a pilot testing of the units in Chapter 5 showed increased metapragmatic awareness after completing the instructional units. They were able to incorporate various sociopragmatic criteria to determine appropriate speech styles, and the sociopragmatic purpose of their use of certain speech styles was more diversified. In addition, students' declarative knowledge of pragmalinguistics was expanded, and dynamic speech style usage was also observed. Contrary to the concerns of KFL instructors discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, beginner-level students were able to successfully participate in pragmatics lessons based on the PCR and Multiliteracies pedagogy framework and gave positive feedback on the lessons.

6.3 Implications

The findings of this dissertation offer implications for foreign language administration and pedagogy. These findings and implications should be of direct relevance to teacher cognition researchers, pragmatics researchers, program directors and administrators, teacher educators, foreign language teachers, and textbook developers and curriculum designers.

First, this dissertation offers teacher cognition researchers new information to ponder. The theoretical implication deduced from the analysis of interviews in Chapter 4 is that teacher cognition is a more complex entity than previously thought. Specifically, the interviews revealed that there is at least one additional factor that needs to be added to Borg's (2006) language

teacher cognition framework and that is personal learning experiences outside school. There are two important aspects to personal learning experiences outside school: experience using a language and experience learning a language. The teachers believe nontraditional learning opportunities and encounters beyond the formal school setting are the most effective channels to pragmatics learning. Since pragmatics is the study of actual language used in real life, the teachers' real-life experiences, especially face-threatening acts, affected more than vocabulary and grammar classroom instruction to form their beliefs about the importance of pragmatics. Consequently, participation in the current study (pragmatics) helped to broaden the teachers' scope of beliefs formation factors.

Unlike in 2006 when Borg developed his framework, nowadays there are many more resources outside of school that people can use to learn languages, from traditional teaching materials on the internet to smartphone applications to user-created videos online to conversations in real life. However, despite the availability of some of these resources in 2006, the framework adheres to a limited view of language learning as something that happens only in a school setting. Therefore, future research on language teachers' cognition should complement Borg's framework (2006) by considering additional factors such as nontraditional learning experiences depending on their research topics.

Second, this dissertation provides research methodology implications for pragmatics researchers. The analysis in Chapter 5 revealed that performance tests alone could not provide sufficient data to document changes in students' metapragmatic awareness after instructional units were taught. Although performance tests have long been used to measure effectiveness of interventional studies in the field of foreign and second language pragmatics (See Song & Pyun, 2011 for KFL, and Jeon & Kaya, 2006 for Most Commonly Taught Languages [MCTLs]),

pragmatic performance tests alone cannot fully evaluate students' pragmatic knowledge. Brown (2011) and Kasper and Rose (2002) state that other factors such as individual personalities and ideologies (emotion, in the case of the students in Chapter 5) might distort results when trying to assess students' competency. Performance tests do provide a standardized assessment, but they fail to provide in-depth explanations as to what language students choose to use and their underlying justifications for those choices. Undoubtedly, valuable quantifiable data can be collected through performance tests. However, it is difficult to support the argument that pragmatic awareness development is well-documented via the performance test method without the addition of reflection questions. Reflection or justification questions on performance tests would provide more in-depth data to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction and the development of students' understanding.

Expanding the implementation of PCR activities to include beginner level students will further contribute to pragmatics research since PCR activities are currently limited to intermediate and advanced level students (Brown, 2013; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Martinez-Flor & Soler, 2007; Rose, 1994). Surprisingly, Brown (2013) and Rose (1994) suggested that PCR activities centered around authentic materials are more suited for learners with pragmatic metalanguage competency and suggested textbook dialogue, instead of authentic materials, for elementary level students. This idea seems contradictory to the ideals of PCR, which views students as competent language users and values their L1 competency as an important starting point for investigating target language features. I used Multiliteracies pedagogy framework to design the pragmatics instruction because this framework can resolve conflicting views and broaden the resources that students can use as they participate in PCR activities. In Chapter 5, it was found that the lessons based on PCR and Multiliteracies pedagogy

can be effective in increasing the students' sociopragmatic awareness of speech styles in Korean. This conclusion supports the premise that, when PCR and Multiliteracies pedagogy framework are combined, pragmatics instruction with authentic materials done at an elementary level can add range and dimension to understanding foreign language and second language pragmatics.

Third, the findings of this dissertation also offer implications for program directors and administrators. Retention rate is one of the concerns many foreign language programs, especially LCTLs, have because it directly relates to their budgets. In Chapter 3, the administrator group also commented that they experienced challenges in producing the funds, in developing a curriculum and in managing their budget. The common finding was that both teachers (Chapter 3 and Chapter 4) and students (Chapter 5) believed that there was a need for a curriculum adjustment to further develop the student learning experiences and retention rate. When asked, the students in Chapter 5 expressed interest in continuing in the courses based on Multiliteracies pedagogy framework with authentic materials. They also shared that they would prefer a curriculum that does not rely on textbooks as its sole linguistic resource. Mirroring this research's students' survey results, Domron and Forsyth (2012) showed that students are more likely to continue when the curriculum is challenging and interesting enough to keep them motivated and engaged. Nam (2017) also found that motivation and a language user's positive self-image affected the retention rate.

These findings indicate that the addition of pragmatics to curricula is one way to meet the abovementioned demands students, instructors, and administrators have made. Pragmatics instruction is a recognized and important aspect of communicative competence (Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980; Jeon & Kaya, 2006) that has demonstrably helped students achieve higher levels of communicative competence. To appropriately teach pragmatics, balanced

instruction with authentic materials addressing both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics is needed. Authentic materials provide a more interesting contribution to lessons than decontextualized textbook examples. Activities based on PCR and Multiliteracies pedagogy framework are highly interactive and situated in student understandings, unlike simple grammar drills. These activities challenge students to step out of their comfort zone and critically reflect on old and new information while they learn both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. A curriculum that includes these activities can potentially motivate, engage, and challenge the students. When teaching techniques incorporate social constructivist ideas, these ideas take language development one step further and foster intercultural competence while studying pragmatics. By revamping the curriculum with textbooks that value pragmatics and other meaning-making resources, students will be more inclined to continue learning a foreign language, which leads to higher retention rates.

To be able to appropriately incorporate a Multiliteracies pedagogy framework, or any other target approach, into the curriculum, the present study suggests that administrators should provide instructors with professional development opportunities that focus on the application of a target approach and tailored to the specific culture of the language instructors, a conclusion that is also supported by other researchers (Freeman, 1909; Lee, 2011; Saydee, 2014). The KFL instructors surveyed in this study are highly educated in KFL or in other language-related fields and have considerable autonomy in their own classroom. They believed that pragmatics is an important aspect to becoming competent in a foreign language and should therefore be taught in class. However, their classroom practices were not consistent with their beliefs. The analysis of the survey results did not establish a relationship between their beliefs or contextual factors and classroom practices, with the notable exception of professional development opportunities. The

analysis of these interviews revealed that, even though the instructors were highly qualified teachers, they had limited theoretical knowledge of pragmatics and limited experience with pragmatics instruction both as teachers and learners. Their curriculum and classroom practices were built around the assigned textbook series and its organization. Although they believe pragmatics is important and should be taught in class, they were unable to integrate lesson plans on pragmatics beyond what the textbooks provided. The interviewees' experiences with coursework and insights gained by attending conferences and presentations on pragmatics and pragmatics instruction did not find a place in their own classroom either. Moreover, Chapter 5 hypothesized that Multiliteracies-based activities are inadequately employed due to a limited understanding of the underlying rationale. These findings support the need for hands-on professional training that allows participants to develop strategies to apply the target approach in their own classrooms. Program administrators can consult teacher educators about developing such professional training opportunities.

Fourth, in connection to the abovementioned implications for program administrators, the findings of this dissertation provide implications for teacher educators. Based on the findings of Chapter 4 (disconnection between their beliefs and practice) and literature review (see section 2.3), there is a need for a training program to develop skills and adapt available teaching resources to reflect the educators' beliefs and/or target approach and then implement them in a classroom situation within a given curriculum. Whether it is a methodology course in a graduate program or a two-hour workshop at a conference, teacher educators can have participants review and assess the current curricula, syllabus, textbook, and/or teaching materials. After carrying out this assessment, participants can determine when and where they can apply the target approach and design lesson plans and/or teaching materials around the resources that they are currently

using. Sharing their final products and ideas with peer participants would initiate discussion and the feedback given would help to refine their final products. This opportunity would provide participants with not only the materials they can use immediately but also highlight lessons or chapters where the developed materials can easily be incorporated.

This type of training opportunity is crucial to LCTL teachers because they constantly struggle to find updated textbooks, unlike MCTLs teachers. To meet students' expectations and keep them motivated, teachers must constantly develop teaching materials to supplement outdated textbooks. Although there are always genuine materials that teachers can access and bring into the classroom, without the skills to create teaching materials reflecting target approaches such as Multiliteracies pedagogy framework or PCR, unfortunately, teachers would develop just another grammar drill instead of a challenging and interesting learning resource.

Fifth, the dissertation findings provide implications for foreign language teachers as well. Despite the concerns expressed by KFL teachers in their interviews, it has been shown that Multiliteracies pedagogy framework based instruction with authentic materials can be implemented at the beginner levels. Teachers were especially concerned that this approach would be too difficult for lower-level students because students need to have sufficient overall language proficiency to work with authentic texts. However, the results from Chapter 5 revealed that lower-level students were capable of successfully participating in lessons involving Multiliteracies-based activities using genuine materials. Not only could they interact meaningfully using genuine materials but they also had positive attitudes toward this type of lesson because the activities “challenge[d] [them] to know more Korean.” Feedback given by the students proved that Multiliteracies pedagogy works and that foreign language educators should consider integrating it when revamping the current curriculum to a more academically

challenging curriculum, the kind a survey respondent saw the need for in his or her program. Moreover, the instructional units discussed in Chapter 5 provided the students with an opportunity to practice their language skills using genuine materials with sufficient guidance. The guidance went beyond vocabulary and grammar lessons, and the students were encouraged to use all available resources around them. Using these resources, the classroom activities helped foster their analytical skills, and they started to interpret genuine materials encountered outside the classroom more effectively. KFL educators have voiced concerns that their students have limited language learning opportunities outside the classroom, which is a problem many language students face especially with LCTLs. By helping students to develop symbolic competence via Multiliteracies pedagogy–based lessons and other similar approaches that are based on social constructivist ideas, students will be more conscious of the target language in the media and this awareness will lead to greater learning opportunities in their everyday lives.

Sixth, the dissertation findings provide implications for textbook developers and curriculum designers. The survey and interview analysis findings showed that KFL teachers use textbooks as the core aspect for their curriculum and classroom practices, preferring ready-made, easy-to-use pre-packaged materials that fit their heavy workload without substantial modification to their current curriculum. These findings support the view that it would be desirable to develop teaching materials that are focused on an explicit inductive approach based on PCR and a Multiliteracies pedagogy framework. In addition, a supplemental teachers' guidebook that provides suggestions for how to execute activities from the textbook would also be beneficial, since most KFL instructors did not learn a foreign language through an explicit inductive approach to foreign language learning and teaching.

Even though students would prefer to work beyond grammar and vocabulary focused lessons, it might not be easy for curriculum designers of LCTLs to find pre-packaged materials reflecting explicit inductive approaches with authentic materials and/or current thoughts in the field since LCTLs are less in demand than MCTLs. In response to this need, Chapter 5 showed how to complement the current curriculum with authentic materials and design Multiliteracies pedagogy framework instructional units. Curriculum designers can supplement existing textbooks by preparing authentic texts that start at an elementary level and increase in difficulty in portion to the Multiliteracies pedagogy framework in their curriculum. This will help their students be language users in real-life rather than language textbook consumers in a classroom.

6.4 Limitations

Despite these key observations, this dissertation is not without its limitations. One limitation concerns the lack of generalizability of the findings due to the sample size and population. The survey consisted of 20 participants, which is only one-third to a half of the number of participants typically involved in similar survey research (Byon, 2008; Richards, 2002; Silva, 2007; Wang, 2014). The administrator population was limited to instructors who were assigned administrative duties, whereas ideally the study would have targeted both language program director/administration/coordinators (LPDs/LPAs/LPCs) with and without teaching responsibilities. In addition, all interview participants had 3 to 5 years of KFL teaching experience, making it difficult to generalize the findings to include all KFL instructors from those just starting their teaching career to those teaching for 20 years or more. Therefore, it is important to note that the survey results may not be representative of all KFL programs and KFL educators in the U.S. However, since the current survey mainly involved participants with (or working toward) doctoral degrees who taught at 4-year public universities, this project makes an

important contribution to the literature by specifically revealing the emerging needs and trends of the KFL teacher training and the education of the instructors at these institutions.

Another limitation of the study transpired due to a lack of volunteers. The study invited the teachers interviewed in Chapter 4 to give their opinions on the pragmatics lesson plans that were implemented in Chapter 5. However, since no instructors volunteered to interview about the lesson plans, data to better understand how the teachers perceive different approaches to teaching pragmatics and Korean could not be collected. Since the lesson units addressed common contextual factors that teachers stated inhibited the implementation of pragmatics instruction (lack of time to develop teaching materials, lack of teaching time within the current curriculum, and lack of teaching materials), the teachers' responses would have provided richer data to do a more accurate analysis of the factors that prevent them from implementing and/or executing the pragmatics lessons with authentic materials.

Some people might argue that the classroom observation to answer Research question 2 and its sub-questions was necessary. However, there is a chance that the prospect of observation might make the teachers feel uneasy and compel them to adapt or change their lesson plans and deviate from their practices, especially when they are aware of the research goals (Farrell & Bennis, 2013). In this study, discussion of the teachers' actual classroom practices allowed the researcher to collect both their beliefs about classroom practice and actual classroom practice (Phipps & Borg, 2009) without making teachers feel that they needed to defend their pedagogical decision-making to provide socially desirable answers.

6.5 Future Research Directions

Drawing from the findings of this dissertation, I propose a number of avenues future research can take. Since the findings of this dissertation are limited to the 4-year public

university setting in the U.S., future research should expand the study populations to different educational settings (e.g., private universities), including institutions outside the U.S., to provide a more comprehensive picture of the current state of KFL programs. In addition, a more diverse study population could provide greater insight into the relationship between beliefs, practices, and contextual factors.

Future research could also focus on successful and/or unsuccessful LCTL programs and conduct individual case studies. These case studies could help LCTL educators identify areas that need to be emphasized to help develop and manage LCTL programs successfully over time. KFL teacher preparation education could be another productive area for future studies that would include an examination of KFL teachers' cognition and classroom practices with regard to pragmatics instruction, curriculum, and/or any area that a successful LCTL program might need.

Chapter 5 showed that instructional units based on a Multiliteracies pedagogy framework can be implemented in KFL successfully. This framework has previously been shown to be effective in areas other than pragmatics, or speech styles, such as Brown's (2016) teaching of cultural topics, and Choi's (2015) teaching, reading, and writing for advanced heritage learners' courses. Future studies could examine opportunities to teach vocabulary through Multiliteracies pedagogy at the beginner level to expand the framework's applications in the KFL field. It would help to reevaluate the prerequisite of linguistic competency and the students' ability to manage genuine materials at the beginner level to include pragmatics instruction in class. As a follow-up study, studies examining how students utilize their analytic skills, learned through Multiliteracies pedagogy-based activities in the classroom, in their personal lives could provide more information on the efficacy of Multiliteracies pedagogy in the field.

Moreover, future studies could assess LCTL teachers' attitudes toward the Multiliteracies pedagogy framework, provide valuable insights for future LCTL pedagogy, and inform the definition of language teaching based on the instructors' beliefs. This information will provide a starting point to develop and implement professional workshops that will assist LCTL teachers develop curriculum and lesson plans, which will in turn assist LCTL learners move beyond being passive recipients of knowledge to being active foreign language users regardless of their linguistic proficiency

6.6 Conclusion

The purpose of this dissertation was to provide a comprehensive picture of the current status of KFL programs and curricula as a whole and to identify issues and challenges that KFL programs face vis-à-vis the teaching and learning of pragmatics. By surveying and interviewing KFL instructors, this study analyzed contributing factors and identified areas that KFL instructors, both as individuals and as a group of professionals, can improve upon to provide effective pragmatics instruction. By testing pragmatics instructional units to examine the efficacy of lesson plans, informed by PCR and a Multiliteracies pedagogy framework, this study showed how the current KFL curriculum would improve with the addition of these pragmatics units.

The findings of this dissertation suggested that the KFL instructors had a narrow notion of pragmatics due to their schooling experiences, and that this limited understanding played a more significant role in shaping their classroom practices than any other factors. This led them to believe linguistic competence needs to be achieved first in order to make effective pragmatics instruction possible. However, the study showed that beginner-level students were able to successfully participate in lessons on pragmatics using genuine materials, contrary to the KFL instructors' reservations on the matter. As KFL instructors move beyond their comfort zone and

expand their notion of literacies, they will see that their students should be acknowledged as proficient language speakers in their native language. The goal should not be to turn a KFL student into a human translation application, equipped with vocabulary and grammar structure only. The goal should be (and is, according to the survey) to help a KFL student to be a competent and autonomous language user who is sensitive to culture and pragmatics. To achieve this goal, we should conduct KFL lessons that challenge students and encourage them to extend the analytical skills they learn in class to their everyday lives.

Appendix A: Respondent Demographics

Variable	Number of Responses (n)	Percentage
Gender (n=30)		
Male	9	30%
Female	21	70%
Age (n=30)		
20-29	4	13%
30-39	9	30%
40-49	12	40%
50-59	3	10%
60+	2	7%
Native Korean speaker (n=31)		
Yes	30	97%
No	1	3%
Korean proficiency for non native Korean (n=1)		
No knowledge of Korean	0	0%
Novice	0	0%
Intermediate	0	0%
Advanced	0	0%
Superior	1	100%
Highest degree (n=30)		
Master's degree	13	43%
Doctorate degree	16	53%
Other - Please explain	1	3%
Position held		
Professor	9	30%
Lecturer	11	37%
Instructor	8	27%
Graduate Assistant/ Teaching Assistant	3	10%
Department Administrator/ Language Program Director		
Program Coordinator	4	13%
Other - Please explain	2	7%
Years of teaching Korean		

(n=30)		
I don't teach Korean.	0	0%
Less than 6 months	0	0%
6 months- 2 years	3	10%
3-5 years	12	40%
6-10 years	4	13%
11-15 years	7	23%
16-20 years	0	0%
21-25 years	1	3%
25+ years	3	10%
Teaching Levels		
Elementary level language courses (ex. 101 and 102)	17	65%
Intermediate level language course (ex. 201 and 202)	15	58%
Advanced level language courses (ex. 300 or higher)	12	46%
None/ Other - Please explain	6	23%

Appendix B: Survey Questions for Beliefs and attitude towards pragmatics teaching and learning

Q1.1 Click NEXT to start the survey.

Thank you for taking a few minutes from your busy schedule to complete this survey. This survey is a part of my dissertation project. The purpose of this research is to provide a comprehensive picture of KFL program curricula and pragmatics teaching and learning. You can answer either in English or in Korean. Participation is completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time by exiting the browser. You can always come back and take rest of the survey whenever you can within a month. There are no foreseen benefits or risks to participation, but your responses will help inform the KFL and pragmatics instruction. Your responses are anonymous and will provide data of great value for my dissertation project. I hope that the results will be of interest to the academic community involved with teaching Korean as a Second/Foreign Language. Thank you in advance for your assistance. In exchange, I'd like to offer you a lesson plan for teaching culture. I addition, I am happy to offer you a copy of a brief report including the final survey results that inform KFL programs in the US and my article/dissertation. You will be asked to choose which document you would like to receive at the end of the survey. You will also be asked to provide your email address to participate in a follow-up interview (Skype or phone). If you have any questions, please email me at jryu@email.arizona.edu or call me at 520-784-9519 (C). An Institutional Review Board responsible for human subjects research at The University of Arizona reviewed this research project and found it to be acceptable, according to applicable state and federal regulations and University policies designed to protect the rights and welfare of participants in research. For questions, concerns, or complaints about the study you may contact Jieun Ryu at jryu@email.arizona.edu. For questions about your rights as a participant in this study or to discuss other study-related concerns or complaints with someone who is not part of the research team, you may contact the Human Subjects Protection Program at 520-626-6721 or on-line at <http://ocr.arizona.edu/hssp>. Thank you for your time again. By completing this survey, you agree to have your answers be used for research purposes. Click NEXT to start the survey.

Best,

Jieun Ryu

jryu@email.arizona.edu

Demographic Information

Q1.2 What is your gender?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Prefer not to answer (3)

Q1.3 What is your age range?

- 20-29 (1)
- 30-39 (2)

- 40-49 (3)
- 50-59 (4)
- 60+ (5)
- Prefer not to answer (6)

Q1.4 Are you a native speaker of Korean?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Are you a native speaker of Korean? Yes Is Not Selected

Q1.5 If you are not a native speaker of Korean, how do you describe your Korean proficiency?

- No knowledge of Korean (1)
- Novice (2)
- Intermediate (3)
- Advanced (4)
- Superior (5)

Q1.6 What is your highest degree earned?

- Master's degree (1)
- Doctorate degree (2)
- Other - Please explain (3) _____

Q1.7 What major is your most recent degree?

Q1.8 What is your current position? Please specify how many years total you have been in the position in the provided space (Check all that apply)

- Professor (Includes Assistant, Associate, and Full) (1) _____
- Lecturer (2) _____
- Instructor (3) _____
- Graduate Assistant/ Teaching Assistant (4) _____
- Department Administrator/ Language Program Director (5) _____
- Program Coordinator (6) _____
- Other - Please explain (7) _____

Q1.9 How many years total did you teach or have you been teaching Korean as a Second or Foreign Language (KS/FL)?

- I don't teach Korean. (1)
- Less than 6 months (2)
- 6 months ~ 2 years (3)
- 3 ~ 5 years (4)
- 6 ~ 10 years (5)
- 11 ~ 15 years (6)
- 16 ~ 20 years (7)
- 21 ~ 25 years (8)

25 + years (9)

Q1.10 What label best describes your institution?

- Community college (1)
- 4 year liberal arts college (2)
- 4 year public university (3)
- 4 year private university (4)
- Other - Please explain (5) _____

Q1.11 Where is Korean language instruction housed? (Own department, Part of department such as East Asian Study, etc.)

Q1.12 Does your institution offer major, minor, or certificates in Korean?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Does your institution offer major, minor, or certificates in Korean? Yes Is Selected

Q1.13 What major, minor, or certificates in Korean does your institution offer?

Click to write Choice 1 (1)

Click to write Choice 2 (2)

Click to write Choice 3 (3)

Click to write Choice 4 (4)

Click to write Choice 5 (5)

Q1.14 How many different levels of language classes does your institution offer? (Check all that apply)

- Elementary level language courses (ex. 101 and 102) (1)
- Intermediate level language course (ex. 201 and 202) (2)
- Advanced level language courses (ex. 300 or higher) (3)
- Other - Please explain (4) _____

Q1.15 What other Korean classes are offered? (Culture, Literature, etc.)

Q1.16 Which level do you teach currently? (Check all that apply)

- Elementary level language courses (ex. 101 and 102) (1)
- Intermediate level language course (ex. 201 and 202) (2)
- Advanced level language courses (ex. 300 or higher) (3)
- None/ Other - Please explain (4) _____

Q1.17 What is the approximate number of students taking Korean as a foreign language per term in your institution?

- 1-25 (1)
- 26-50 (2)
- 51-75 (3)
- 75-100 (4)
- 101-125 (5)
- 126-150 (6)
- More than 150 (7)
- I don't know. (8)

Q1.18 How many sections there are in your elementary level course (ex. 101 and 102)?

- 0 (1)
- 1 (2)
- 2 (3)
- 3 (4)
- 4 (5)
- 5+ (6)
- I don't know. (7)

Display This Question:

If What is the average number of students enrolled per section in your elementary courses (ex. 101 and 102)? Less than 10 Is Not Selected

Q1.19 What is the average number of students enrolled per section in your elementary courses (ex. 101 and 102)?

- Less than 10 (1)
- 10-20 (2)
- 21-30 (3)
- 31-40 (4)
- 41-50 (5)
- More than 50 (6)

Q1.20 How many sections there are in your intermediate level course (ex. 201 and 202)?

- 0 (1)
- 1 (2)
- 2 (3)
- 3 (4)
- 4 (5)
- 5+ (6)

Display This Question:

If How many sections there are in your intermediate level course (ex. 201 and 202)? 0 Is Not Selected

Q1.21 What is the average number of students enrolled per section in your intermediate courses (ex. 201 and 202)?

- Less than 10 (1)**
- 10-20 (2)**
- 21-30 (3)**
- 31-40 (4)**
- 41-50 (5)**
- More than 50 (6)**

Q1.22 How many sections there are in your advanced level course (ex. 300 and higher)?

- 0 (1)**
- 1 (2)**
- 2 (3)**
- 3 (4)**
- 4 (5)**
- 5+ (6)**

Display This Question:

If How many sections there are in your advanced level course (ex. 300 and higher)? 0 Is Not Selected

Q1.23 What is the average number of students enrolled per section in your advanced courses (ex. 300 and higher)?

- Less than 10 (1)**
- 10-20 (2)**
- 21-30 (3)**
- 31-40 (4)**
- 41-50 (5)**
- More than 50 (6)**

Program Characteristics

Q2.1 How would you describe the teaching approach used in your program? (Check all that apply)

- Grammar Translation (Students focus on translating texts and learning grammatical rules and vocabulary lists) (1)**
- Communicative Language Teaching (Students interact in real-life contexts) (2)**
- Task-based teaching (students use the language to complete the tasks) (3)**
- Literacy based approach (students learn and discuss how language is used to create meaning within the sociocultural contexts) (4)**
- Audio-Lingual Method (Students focus on memorization and drill sentences in the use of grammar.) (5)**
- Other - Please explain (6) _____**

Please mark whether your program never (N), rarely (R), sometimes (S), Often (O), or always (A) performs the following statements. Please specify in the box under your answer who is responsible for such as coordinator, instructors of each course, group of instructors etc. Curriculum: the content area covered in courses and course sequences, the requirements for students and the methods used to evaluate them Syllabus: a document

stating course's goals, objectives, requirements, evaluation method, and sequence of content area

Q2.3 My program provides a set curriculum to follow.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.4 My program provides syllabi for courses to follow.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.5 My program provides lesson plans to follow.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.6 My program has assigned textbooks for each class. Please specify the title of the textbook that you are using.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.7 My program allows alternative assessment methods such as portfolio or project for beginning language courses.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.8 My program allows alternative assessment methods such as portfolio or project for intermediate language courses.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____

Always (5) _____

Q2.9 My program allows alternative assessment methods such as portfolio or project for advanced language courses.

- Never (1) _____
 Rarely (2) _____
 Sometimes (3) _____
 Often (4) _____
 Always (5) _____

Q2.10 My program allows alternative assessment methods such as portfolio or project for for courses other than language courses such as culture courses

- Never (1) _____
 Rarely (2) _____
 Sometimes (3) _____
 Often (4) _____
 Always (5) _____

Q2.11 My program provides rubrics for assessments.

- Never (1) _____
 Rarely (2) _____
 Sometimes (3) _____
 Often (4) _____
 Always (5) _____

Q2.12 There are preferred or required teaching policies enforced by program. (e.g. Korean only policy). Please specify an example of a policy.

- Never (1) _____
 Rarely (2) _____
 Sometimes (3) _____
 Often (4) _____
 Always (5) _____

Q2.13 There are preferred or required teaching approaches (e.g. Communicative language teaching) enforced by program. Please specify which approach(es).

- Never (1) _____
 Rarely (2) _____
 Sometimes (3) _____
 Often (4) _____
 Always (5) _____

Q2.14 There is a limit on the maximum number of students per section. Please specify the maximum number.

- Never (1) _____
 Rarely (2) _____
 Sometimes (3) _____

- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.15 My program evaluates curriculum on a regular basis.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.16 My program updates curriculum, syllabi, lesson plan, textbook and/or exam rubric as needed.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.17 My program meets on a regular basis with program administrator/director/coordinator and instructors.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.18 My program offers professional development such as workshop.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q2.19 My program has placement test for new students.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Roles and Responsibilities (LPD/A/C)

Q3.1 Please mark whether you never (N), rarely (R), sometimes (S), Often (O), or always (A) performs the following statements as Language Program Administrator/ Director/ Coordinator. If the described responsibility is not your duty, please specify who is responsible such as instructors of each course.

Q3.2 I'm responsible for creating and/or supervising curriculum decisions for the program.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.3 I'm responsible for creating and/or supervising writing syllabi for language courses.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.4 I'm responsible for creating and/or supervising writing lesson plans for all language courses.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.5 I'm responsible for creating and/or supervising selecting the textbooks for language courses.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.6 I'm responsible for creating and/or supervising writing assessments and grading rubrics.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.7 I'm responsible for creating and/or supervising teaching policy decisions.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.8 I'm responsible for creating and/or supervising teaching approach decisions.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.9 I have regular meetings with instructors and/or TAs.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.10 I'm responsible for creating and/or supervising evaluation of curriculum, syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks and/or assessments and grading rubric and I make changes as needed.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.11 I follow proficiency rating or guide such as ACTFL standard when I create a curriculum.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.12 I'm responsible for placement tests for new students.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q3.13 What is the main focus of your current curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans? (e.g. developing communicative competence, reading, writing, speaking)

Q3.14 When were your current curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans chosen?

Q3.15 What has affected the most on choosing curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans for the program? (e.g. budget, teaching philosophy)

Q3.16 How is your program funded? (e.g. college, outside source, grants)

Q3.17 Is there any external organization that evaluates your programs' curricula, syllabi, lesson plans? If, yes, which organization?

Q3.18 What do you believe to be the most important duties of a language program administrator/ Director/ Coordinator?

Q3.19 How do you interact with any administrators, teachers and/or students?

Q3.20 What changes would you like to see in the program and its administration?

Q3.21 What are the biggest challenges you face? Select all that apply.

- A. Personnel issues (1)
- B. Curriculum (2)
- C. Marketing (3)
- D. Budgeting (4)
- E. Staff evaluation (5)
- F. Time management (6)
- G. Cooperation with university programs (7)
- H. Teacher training (8)
- I. Customized program development (9)
- J. Policy creation (10)
- K. Accreditation (11)
- L. Technology purchasing and implementation support (12)
- M. Fundraising (13)
- N. Study abroad program (14)
- O. Other - Please explain (15) _____

Roles and Responsibilities (Instructors)

Q4.1 Please mark whether you never (N), rarely (R), sometimes (S), Often (O), or always (A) performs the following statements as a teacher. If the described responsibility is not your duty, please specify who is responsible such as director or coordinator.

Q4.2 I participate in the process of curriculum decision making for the program.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q4.3 I'm responsible for writing syllabi for the course(s) I teach.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____

- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q4.4 I'm responsible for writing lesson plans for the course(s) I teach.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q4.5 I'm responsible for selecting the textbooks for the course(s) I teach.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q4.6 I'm responsible for writing exam rubrics for the course(s) I teach.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q4.7 I'm responsible for teaching policy decisions for the course(s) I teach.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q4.8 I'm responsible for teaching approach/technique decisions for the course(s) I teach.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q4.9 I have regular meetings with Language Program Administrator, Director and/or Coordinator.

- Never (1) _____
- Rarely (2) _____
- Sometimes (3) _____
- Often (4) _____
- Always (5) _____

Q4.10 What is the main focus of your current curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans? (e.g. developing communicative competence, reading, writing, speaking)

Q4.11 When were your current curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans chosen?

Q4.12 What has affected the most on choosing curricula, syllabi, or lesson plans for the program? (e.g. budget, teaching philosophy, pre-selected/designed syllabi, exams)

Q4.13 Does your program evaluate your programs' curricula, syllabi or lesson plans? If yes, what is evaluated and how often it is evaluated?

Q4.14 What do you believe to be the most important duties of a Korean language instructor?

Q4.15 How do you interact with any administrators, teachers and/or students?

Q4.16 What changes would you like to see in the program?

Q4.17 What are the biggest challenges you face as a teacher?

Q4.18 What do you think the biggest challenges for students of your program?

Pragmatics Instruction Attitudes (LPD/A/C & Instructors)

Q5.1 Pragmatics instruction not only covers what (grammar and vocabulary) but also when and where (contexts and interlocutors). Therefore, students develop the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context.

Q5.2 To what extent do you think knowledge of pragmatics is important for being a competent speaker of Korean?

- Not at all Important (1)**
- Somewhat Unimportant (2)**
- Neither Important nor Unimportant (3)**
- Somewhat Important (4)**
- Extremely Important (5)**

Q5.3 To what extent do you think should pragmatics be taught in class?

- Never (1)**
- Rarely (2)**
- Sometimes (3)**
- Most of the Time (4)**
- Always (5)**

Q5.4 What issues are there with pragmatics instruction in your teaching or program? (For example, lack of teaching time, lack of teaching materials, lack of teacher training, too much teaching materials etc.)

Q5.5 How satisfied are you with the state of pragmatics instruction in your teaching or program

- Dissatisfied (1)
- Somewhat Dissatisfied (2)
- Neutral (3)
- Somewhat Satisfied (4)
- Satisfied (5)
- Other - Please explain (6) _____

Q5.6 In your teaching or in your program, at which level is pragmatics instruction introduced first?

- Beginning - 1st semester (1)
- Beginning - 2nd semester (2)
- Intermediate - 3rd semester (3)
- Intermediate - 4th semester (4)
- Advanced (5)
- I don't know. (6)

If I don't know. Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block

Q5.7 How satisfied are you with introducing pragmatics instruction at that level?

- Very Dissatisfied (1)
- Dissatisfied (2)
- Somewhat Dissatisfied (3)
- Neutral (4)
- Somewhat Satisfied (5)
- Satisfied (6)
- Very Satisfied (7)

Q5.8 [Optional] Please explain your choice. Why are you Very dissatisfied/ Dissatisfied/ Somewhat dissatisfied/ Neutral/ Somewhat satisfied/ Satisfied/ Very satisfied?

Q5.9 In your teaching or in your program, how much time is devoted to pragmatics instruction? (For example, every class time, not often but whenever I find time etc.)

Q5.10 How satisfied are you with the amount of time devoted to pragmatics instruction?

- Very Dissatisfied (1)
- Dissatisfied (2)
- Somewhat Dissatisfied (3)
- Neutral (4)
- Somewhat Satisfied (5)
- Satisfied (6)
- Very Satisfied (7)

Q5.11 [Optional] Please explain your choice. Why are you Very dissatisfied/ Dissatisfied/ Somewhat dissatisfied/ Neutral/ Somewhat satisfied/ Satisfied/ Very satisfied?

Q5.12 In your teaching or in your program, how is pragmatics knowledge assessed?

Q5.13 How satisfied are you with how pragmatics knowledge is assessed?

- Very Dissatisfied (1)
- Dissatisfied (2)
- Somewhat Dissatisfied (3)
- Neutral (4)
- Somewhat Satisfied (5)
- Satisfied (6)
- Very Satisfied (7)

Q5.14 [Optional] Please explain your choice. Why are you Very dissatisfied/ Dissatisfied/ Somewhat dissatisfied/ Neutral/ Somewhat satisfied/ Satisfied/ Very satisfied?

Pragmatics Instruction Attitudes (Instructors)

Q6.1 What materials do you use to teach pragmatics? (Textbook, Worksheet, Outside materials such as video, etc.)

Q6.2 What are some challenges that you face in teaching that you face in teaching pragmatics?

Q6.3 How often do you use the following techniques to teach pragmatics?

	Never (1)	Rarely (2)	Sometimes (3)	Most of the Time (4)	Always (5)
a. Use explanations written in textbook and lecture (1)	<input type="radio"/>				
b. Dialogues from textbook (2)	<input type="radio"/>				
c. Role plays (3)	<input type="radio"/>				
d. Discourse completion tasks (4)	<input type="radio"/>				
e. Discussion of socially and culturally appropriate language and behavior (5)	<input type="radio"/>				
f. Video or other genuine materials (produced for the purpose)	<input type="radio"/>				

other than language teaching) demonstrating pragmatics (6)					
g. Interviewing native speakers (7)	<input type="radio"/>				
h. Analysis of genuine materials (8)	<input type="radio"/>				
i. Other – please explain (9)	<input type="radio"/>				

Compliments (10)									
------------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Q6.5 Please choose one of the items in previous question and briefly describe how you believe it should be introduced in your instruction.

Q6.6 I'd like to have

- A copy of lesson plan on culture (1)
- A short report of this survey result (2)
- A copy of this dissertation (3)

Q6.7 Are you available and willing to participate in a follow-up survey and interview where you will explain in further detail your responses to this survey? The interview will be conducted via Skype or phone depending on your preference. If yes, please provide your email address.

Appendix C: Demographics of Institutions

Variable	Number of Responses (n)	%
Type of institution (n=30)		
Community college	2	7%
4 year liberal arts college	0	0%
4 year public university	18	60%
4 year private university	7	23%
Other - Please explain	3	10%
Degree offered (n=26)		
Yes	14	54%
No	12	46%
Levels of KFL courses offered		
Elementary level language courses (ex. 101 and 102)	20	77%
Intermediate level language course (ex. 201 and 202)	18	69%
Advanced level language courses (ex. 300 or higher)	19	73%
Other - Please explain	6	23%
Number of students per term (n=26)		
1-25	3	12%
26-50	4	15%
51-75	4	15%
75-100	6	23%
101-125	5	19%
126-150	1	4%
More than 150	3	12%
I don't know	0	0%
Number of elementary level language courses section (n=26)		
0	1	4%
1	1	4%
2	12	46%
3	6	23%
4	3	12%
5+	2	8%
I don't know	1	4%
Average number of students in elementary		

courses per section (n=25)

Less than 10	0	0%
10-20	11	44%
21-30	10	40%
31-40	1	4%
41-50	1	4%
More than 50	2	8%

Number of intermediate level courses section (n=26)

0	2	8%
1	8	31%
2	12	46%
3	1	4%
4	1	4%
5+	2	8%

Average number of students in elementary courses per section (n=24)

Less than 10	4	17%
10-20	12	50%
21-30	6	25%
31-40	1	4%
41-50	0	0%
More than 50	1	4%

Number of advanced level courses section (n=23)

0	3	13%
1	14	61%
2	1	4%
3	2	9%
4	3	13%
5+	0	0%

Average number of students in advanced courses per section (n=20)

Less than 10	11	55%
10-20	5	25%
21-30	3	15%
31-40	0	0%
41-50	1	5%
More than 50	0	0%

Appendix D: Roles and Responsibilities of LPD/A/C

Variables	Number of Responses (n)	%	Mean
Curriculum decision making for the program (n=6)			4.67
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	1	17%	
Often	0	0%	
Always	5	83%	
Syllabi (n=6)			4.67
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	1	17%	
Often	0	0%	
Always	5	83%	
Lesson plans (n=6)			3.50
Never	1	17%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	2	33%	
Often	1	17%	
Always	2	33%	
Textbook (n=6)			4.67
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	0	0%	
Often	2	33%	
Always	4	67%	
Exam rubric (n=6)			4.17
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	2	33%	
Often	1	17%	
Always	3	50%	
Teaching policy decision (n=6)			4.33
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	0	0%	
Often	4	67%	
Always	2	33%	

Teaching approach/technique decision (n=6)			3.83
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	2	33%	
Often	3	50%	
Always	1	17%	
Regular meeting with instructors and/or TAs (n=6)			4.33
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	1	17%	
Often	2	33%	
Always	3	50%	
Evaluation and update of the abovementioned course documents (n=6)			4.17
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	2	33%	
Often	1	17%	
Always	3	50%	
Following proficiency rating (e.g. ACTFL) to create a curriculum (n=6)			3.67
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	2	33%	
Sometimes	1	17%	
Often	0	0%	
Always	3	50%	
Placement tests (n=6)			4.50
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	1	17%	
Often	1	17%	
Always	4	67%	

Appendix E: Roles and Responsibilities of Instructors

Variables	Number of Response (n)	%	Mean
Curriculum decision making for the program (n=19)			3.79
Never	3	16%	
Rarely	1	5%	
Sometimes	3	16%	
Often	2	11%	
Always	10	53%	
Syllabi (n=19)			4.63
Never	1	5%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	0	0%	
Often	3	16%	
Always	15	79%	
Lesson plans (n=19)			4.37
Never	2	11%	
Rarely	1	5%	
Sometimes	0	0%	
Often	1	5%	
Always	15	79%	
Textbook (n=19)			3.79
Never	4	21%	
Rarely	1	5%	
Sometimes	1	5%	
Often	2	11%	
Always	11	58%	
Exam rubric (n=19)			4.58
Never	1	5%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	1	5%	
Often	2	11%	
Always	15	79%	
Teaching policy decision (n=19)			4.26
Never	1	5%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	4	21%	
Often	2	11%	
Always	12	63%	
Teaching approach/technique decision (n=19)			4.42

Never	1	5%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	2	11%	
Often	3	16%	
Always	13	68%	
Regular meeting with administration (n=19)			3.58
Never	1	5%	
Rarely	2	11%	
Sometimes	6	32%	
Often	5	26%	
Always	5	26%	

**Appendix F: Beliefs and Attitude toward pragmatics and pragmatics instruction-
LPD/A/C**

Variables	Number of Response (n)	%	Mean
Importance of pragmatics for being a competent speaker (n=7)			4.86
Not at all Important	0	0%	
Somewhat Unimportant	0	0%	
Neither Important nor Unimportant	0	0%	
Somewhat Important	1	14%	
Extremely Important	6	86%	
Pragmatics instruction in class (n=7)			4.29
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	1	14%	
Most of the Time	3	43%	
Always	3	43%	
Current state of pragmatics instruction (n=7)			3.86
Dissatisfied	0	0%	
Somewhat Dissatisfied	0	0%	
Neutral	2	29%	
Somewhat Satisfied	4	57%	
Satisfied	1	14%	
First semester pragmatics is introduced (n=7)			1.57
Beginning - 1st semester	5	71%	
Beginning - 2nd semester	0	0%	
Intermediate - 3rd semester	2	29%	
Intermediate - 4th semester	0	0%	
Advanced	0	0%	
I don't know	0	0%	
How satisfied with introducing pragmatics instruction at that level (n=7)			4.86
Verv Dissatisfied	0	0%	
Dissatisfied	0	0%	
Somewhat Dissatisfied	0	0%	

Neutral	3	43%
Somewhat Satisfied	2	29%
Satisfied	2	29%
Very Satisfied	0	0%

How satisfied with the amount of pragmatics instruction time (n=6) 3.83

Very Dissatisfied	0	0%
Dissatisfied	2	33%
Somewhat Dissatisfied	0	0%
Neutral	2	33%
Somewhat Satisfied	1	17%
Satisfied	1	17%
Very Satisfied	0	0%

How satisfied with pragmatics assessment (n=6) 4.00

Very Dissatisfied	0	0%
Dissatisfied	1	17%
Somewhat Dissatisfied	2	33%
Neutral	1	17%
Somewhat Satisfied	0	0%
Satisfied	2	33%
Very Satisfied	0	0%

Appendix G: Beliefs and Attitude toward pragmatics and pragmatics instruction-

Instructors

Variables	Number of Response (n)	%	Mean
Importance of pragmatics for being a competent speaker (n=20)			4.75
Not at all Important	0	0%	
Somewhat Unimportant	0	0%	
Neither Important nor Unimportant	0	0%	
Somewhat Important	5	25%	
Extremely Important	15	75%	
Pragmatics instruction in class (n=20)			3.85
Never	0	0%	
Rarely	0	0%	
Sometimes	8	40%	
Most of the Time	7	35%	
Always	5	25%	
Current state of pragmatics instruction (n=19)			3.58
Dissatisfied	0	0%	
Somewhat Dissatisfied	2	10%	
Neutral	7	35%	
Somewhat Satisfied	7	30%	
Satisfied	3	20%	
First semester pragmatics is introduced (n=20)			1.65
Beginning - 1st semester	15	75%	
Beginning - 2nd semester	0	0%	
Intermediate - 3rd semester	4	20%	
Intermediate - 4th semester	0	0%	
Advanced	0	0%	
I don't know	1	5%	
How satisfied with introducing pragmatics instruction at that level (n=19)			4.74
Very Dissatisfied	0	0%	

Dissatisfied	0	0%
Somewhat Dissatisfied	2	11%
Neutral	6	32%
Somewhat Satisfied	7	37%
Satisfied	3	16%
Very Satisfied	1	5%

How satisfied with the amount of pragmatics instruction time (n=19) 3.74

Very Dissatisfied	1	5%
Dissatisfied	3	16%
Somewhat Dissatisfied	4	21%
Neutral	6	32%
Somewhat Satisfied	2	11%
Satisfied	3	16%
Very Satisfied	0	0%

How satisfied with pragmatics assessment (n=18) 4.17

Very Dissatisfied	0	0%
Dissatisfied	1	5%
Somewhat Dissatisfied	4	21%
Neutral	8	42%
Somewhat Satisfied	2	11%
Satisfied	2	11%
Very Satisfied	1	5%

Appendix H: Pragmatics Teaching Techniques

#	Question	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always	Total Responses	Mean
1	Use explanations written in textbook and lecture	0	1	10	4	4	19	3.58
2	Dialogues from textbook	0	1	3	7	7	18	4.11
3	Role plays	0	0	10	5	4	19	3.68
4	Discourse completion tasks	0	4	9	4	2	19	3.21
5	Discussion of socially and culturally appropriate language and behavior	0	2	7	5	5	19	3.68
6	Video or other genuine materials (produced for the purpose other than language teaching) demonstrating pragmatics	0	3	7	5	4	19	3.53
7	Interviewing native speakers	3	10	2	2	2	9	2.47
8	Analysis of genuine materials	2	7	4	3	3	19	2.89
9	Other - Please explain	0	1	0	1	1	3	3.67

Appendix I: Pragmatics instruction and attitudes toward current pragmatics

instruction status based on the respondents' attitudes toward pragmatics

Attitudes towards Pragmatics		To what extent do you think knowledge of pragmatics is important for being a competent speaker of Korean?						Mean Average	
		Administrator			Instructor			Adm.	Inst.
		Somewhat Important	Extremely Important	Total	Somewhat Important	Extremely Important	Total		
To what extent do you think you should pragmatics be taught in class?	Never	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	Rarely	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	Sometimes	0	1	1	4	3	7		
	Most of the Time	1	2	3	1	6	7		
	Always	0	3	3	0	6	6		
	Mean	4.00	4.33	7	3.20	4.20	20	4.29	3.85
	How satisfied are you with the state of pragmatics instruction in your teaching or program	Dissatisfied	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Somewhat Dissatisfied		0	0	0	1	1	2		
Neutral		0	2	2	3	4	7		
Somewhat Satisfied		0	4	4	0	7	7		
Satisfied		1	0	1	1	2	3		
Other - Please explain		0	0	0	0	1	1		
Mean		5.00	3.67	7	3.20	3.71	20	3.86	3.58
In your teaching or in your program, at which level is pragmatics instruction introduced first?	Beginning - 1st semester	0	5	5	4	11	15		
	Beginning - 2nd semester	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	Intermediate - 3rd semester	1	1	2	1	3	4		
	Intermediate - 4th semester	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	Advanced	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	I don't know.	0	0	0	0	1	1		
	Mean	3.00	1.33	7	1.40	1.73	20	1.57	1.65
How satisfied are you with introducing	Very Dissatisfied	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	Dissatisfied	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	Somewhat	0	0	0	1	1	2		

pragmatics instruction at that level?	Dissatisfied								
	Neutral	0	3	3	2	4	6		
	Somewhat Satisfied								
	Satisfied	0	2	2	1	7	8		
	Satisfied	1	1	2	1	1	2		
	Very Satisfied	0	0	0	0	1	1		
	Mean	6.00	4.67	7	4.40	4.79	19	4.86	4.74
In your teaching or in your program, how much time is devoted to pragmatics instruction? (Texts)	Not often	0	1	1	2	2	4		
	Half the time	0	1	1	0	1	1		
	Every class	0	0	0	2	2	4		
	Whenever applicable	1	2	3	2	6	8		
	Total	1	4	5	6	15	21		
How satisfied are you with the amount of time devoted to pragmatics instruction?	Very Dissatisfied	0	0	0	0	1	1		
	Dissatisfied	0	2	2	0	3	3		
	Somewhat Dissatisfied	0	0	0	2	2	4		
	Neutral	0	2	2	1	5	6		
	Somewhat Satisfied	0	1	1	1	1	2		
	Satisfied	1	0	1	1	1	2		
	Very Satisfied	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	Mean	6.00	3.40	6	4.20	3.38	18	3.83	3.74
In your teaching or in your program, how is pragmatics knowledge assessed? (Texts)	None	0	0	0	1	2	3		
	Rarely	0	0	0	0	1	1		
	Classroom observation	0	0	0	0	1	1		
	Exam	1	1	2	2	3	5		
	Presentation	0	1	1	1	3	4		
	Interview	0	2	2	1	4	5		
	Role-play	0	3	3	0	4	4		
	Total	1	7	8	5	18	23		
How satisfied are you with how pragmatics knowledge is assessed?	Very Dissatisfied	0	0	0	0	0	0		
	Dissatisfied	0	1	1	0	1	1		
	Somewhat Dissatisfied	0	2	2	1	3	4		
	Neutral	0	1	1	3	5	8		
	Somewhat Satisfied	0	0	0	0	2	2		
	Satisfied	0	0	0	0	2	2		

	Satisfied	1	1	2	1	1	2		
	Very Satisfied	0	0	0	0	1	1		
	Mean	6.00	3.60	6	4.20	4.15	18	4	4.17
What materials do you use to teach pragmatics? (Texts)	textbook	0	4	4	2	9	11		
	lecture	0	0	0	1	2	3		
	worksheet	0	2	2	2	4	6		
	video	1	3	4	4	9	13		
	authentic material	0	1	1	1	4	5		
	Students' Role-play	0	1	1	0	1	1		
	Total	1	11	12	10	29	39		

How often do you use the following techniques to teach pragmatics?

a. Use explanations written in textbook and lecture	Never	0	0	0	0	0	0			
	Rarely	0	0	0	0	1	1			
	Sometimes	1	3	4	4	6	10			
	Most of the Time	0	1	1	1	3	4			
	Always	0	1	1	0	4	4			
	Total	3.00	3.60	6	3.20	3.71	19	3.58		
		Never	0	0	0	0	0	0		
b. Dialogues from textbook	Rarely	0	0	0	1	0	1			
	Sometimes	0	1	1	1	2	3			
	Most of the Time	1	2	3	2	5	7			
	Always	0	1	1	1	6	7			
	Total	4.00	4.00	5	3.60	4.31	18	4.11		
		Never	0	0	0	0	0	0		
		Rarely	0	0	0	0	0	0		
c. Role plays	Sometimes	1	3	4	3	7	10			
	Most of the Time	0	1	1	1	4	5			
	Always	0	1	1	1	3	4			
	Total	3.00	3.60	6	3.60	3.71	19	3.68		
		Never	0	0	0	0	0	0		
		Rarely	0	2	2	0	4	4		
		Sometimes	0	2	2	3	6	9		
d. Discourse completion tasks	Most of the Time	1	0	1	2	2	4			
	Always	0	1	1	0	2	2			
	Total	4.00	3.00	6	3.40	3.14	19	3.21		
		Never	0	0	0	0	0	0		
		Rarely	0	0	0	1	1	2		
		Sometimes	0	1	1	2	5	7		
		Never	0	0	0	0	0	0		
e. Discussion of socially	Rarely	0	0	0	1	1	2			
	Sometimes	0	1	1	2	5	7			

Appendix J: Overview of Instructional Units

Unit	Cultural Topic	Target Speech Style	Grammar Points	Materials
1	Language use in SNS/facebook	Polite form Intimate form	The benefactive expression -어/아 주다; expressing obligation or necessity -어/아야 되다/하다; the sentence ending -(으)ㄴ 게요; the negative -지 못하다; negative command -지 마세요.	Facebook thread
2	Safe driving	Polite form Deferential style	Negative command -지 마; the clausal connective (reason) -기 때문	PSA1
3	Smartphone dependent life	Polite form Deferential style	Negation -지 않다; Experience/try -어/아 보다; can/cannot -ㄴ 수 있다/없다; the negative -지 못하다	Video essay
4	Gosure custom and samjae-ism	Polite form Deferential style Plain form	The progressive form -고 있다; the clausal connective (sequential or reason) -어서/아서; the adverbial form -게; Negation -지 않다; Particle 예; Noun modifying form -는/은	Video essay
5	Hyo	Polite form Deferential style Familiar style	The benefactive expression (humble) -어/아 드리다; Noun modifying form -ㄴ/는/은; Can/cannot -(으)ㄴ 수 있다/없다; Experience/try -어/아 보다; The benefactive expression -어/아 주다; Because it is N - N (이)라서; The clausal connective (reason) -기 때문	Video essay
6	Suicide prevention PSA	Polite form Deferential style Intimate form	Can/cannot -(으)ㄴ 수 있다/없다; the benefactive form -어/아 주다; Noun modifying form -는/은	PSA2

Appendix L: Post-instruction Questionnaire

Name:

Polite form (-어/아요), deferential style (-ㅁ/습니다) and casual form (-어/아) are parts of Korean speech style system.

1. How and from where do you learn Korean speech style? (For example, in class, textbook, watching Korean drama, from friends, from parents etc.)
2. Which resources are most useful for learning Korean speech styles?
3. Do you think that learning Korean speech style (polite form/deferential style/casual form) is important? Why? Or why not?
4. Could you tell me anything you know about the speech style of Korean (polite form/deferential style/ casual form)?

Appendix M: Post-instruction Survey

Name:

1. How would you describe the overall experience with the Speech style learning activities with authentic materials from Korea?

2. Do you think that the Speech style learning activities with authentic materials from Korea are helpful and/or useful to learn and practice:
 - 1) Usage of appropriate form (polite/ deferential style/ casual form) regarding interlocutors?

1	2	3	4	5
Not useful				Very useful

 - 2) Usage of grammar points from the textbook?

1	2	3	4	5
Not useful				Very useful

 - 3) Usage of vocabulary from the textbook?

1	2	3	4	5
Not useful				Very useful

3. What did you like most about the Speech style learning activities with authentic materials? What was your second favorite? Why?

4. What was your least favorite among the Speech style learning activities with authentic materials? What is your second choice? Why?

5. Would you like to take another class using authentic materials as a part of instruction? Why? Or why not?

6. Any suggestions/recommendations you would make to improve the experience?

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