

**Factors affecting the motivation of EFL instructors living in South Korea to learn  
Korean**

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**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of  
Philosophy**

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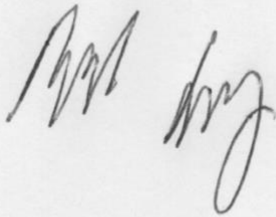


## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge, all sources of information previously published or written have been cited in this body of work. All assistance provided in the research and writing of this thesis has been acknowledged. I also declare that the work in this thesis has not been previously submitted to any other institution for, or as part of, a degree.

This study was granted approval by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Research) (Ref No. 5201100548D) and was conducted in accordance with the guidelines stipulated.

Nigel D. Gearing

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Nigel D. Gearing', is centered on a light gray rectangular background.

December, 2017

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## LIST OF ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS

This thesis is based on the following original publications (Papers I and II) and papers prepared for publication (Papers III, IV and V) which are referred to in the text as Chapters 2 to 6. Original publications are reproduced with permission of their copyright holders. Different referencing conventions and formatting are used in each such constituent paper to conform to the requirements of the journal (and in accordance with Macquarie University guidelines) and have not been reformatted according to APA guidelines.

I. Gearing, N., & Roger, P. (2017). "I'm never going to be part of it." Identity, investment and learning Korean. *Journal of Multilingual & Multicultural Development*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1080/01434632.2017.132390

II. Gearing, N., & Roger, P. (in press, accepted May, 2017). Factors affecting the motivation of an EFL instructor in Korean. to learn Korean. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*.

III. Gearing, N. & Roger, P. Where's the vision: Rescuing integrativeness to understand the L2 self-concepts of English-speaking EFL instructors living in South Korea.

IV. Gearing, N. The role of demotivation on EFL instructors living in South Korea to learn the L1 of their host nation.

V. Gearing, N. The 'confounding nature' of Korean – EFL instructors' relationship to the L1 of their host nation.

## LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS

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	Paper I	Paper II	Paper III	Paper IV	Paper V
Concept & design	NG, PR	NG, PR	NG, PR	NG	NG
Planning & implementation	NG, PR	NG, PR	NG, PR	NG	NG
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## ABSTRACT

Globalization has seen unprecedented numbers of native English speakers move to host nations to work ‘on location’ this century. Surprisingly, however, little L2 motivation research appears to have focused on those who have done so in North-East Asia, with none having examined the language-learning motivation of native English speakers living and working in South Korea. To help redress this significant gap in the literature, the research reported in this thesis draws on data from 14 in-depth semi-structured interviews with EFL instructors employed in South Korean university language education centres. The interview data is supplemented by optional diaries kept by some of the participants and a one-year longitudinal case study of one participant.

The thesis comprises five parts, each focusing on the experiences and perceptions of the participants through a different theoretical lens: (1) identity and investment (Norton, 2013); (2) the process model of motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) by way of a one-year longitudinal case study; (3) the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei, 2005) and the role of ‘rescued’ integrativeness (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) for learners of languages other than English; (4) demotivation; and (5) globalization (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2017). Overall, these studies found that participants were largely unmotivated to learn Korean due to the temporary nature of their employment contracts and working visas, the greater desire of Koreans to learn and use English and their perception that Korean proficiency was neither needed, nor expected of them. In some cases, their lack of motivation was expressed by way of a disdain for aspects of Korean culture and/or the language. Only two of the 14 participants demonstrated intrinsic motivation to learn Korean. One of these individuals pursued integration with her host nation through self-study and immersion in Korean-speaking communities of practice, while the other had sought to master Korean as the realization of a personal goal.

Taken together, these studies highlight that while globalization may have offered participants significant language learning opportunities, they tended not to pursue these opportunities in South Korea, or elsewhere. Largely in South Korea by default as temporary ‘aliens’ in the ascribed role of EFL instructor, many of them tended to continue a life of default by remaining on the periphery and attributing much of their demotivation to South Korean society. However, in so doing, it is argued that participants place themselves at great risk

given the dynamics of globalization and its potential negative impact on the future status of native-English speaking EFL instructors.

## **Chapter 1. Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction to the Study**

The original impetus for this thesis came from a simple observation that yielded unexpected results. Of the many EFL instructors I met in South Korea, a surprisingly large number of them shared certain traits, beliefs and experiences that seemed ‘out of step’ with what I would have anticipated from individuals who had been given such an opportunity to begin their globalization experience in South Korea. Personally, such gratitude was derived by way of redundancy in my home country of New Zealand and the subsequent fear of the potential difficulty in attaining further ESL-teaching related employment there. I admit feeling an enormous sense of anticipation about relocating to South Korea, particularly given that its first language was one I could not speak at all. Upon arrival, such fears were quickly replaced with a sense that this experience had the potential to be reinterpreted as one of opportunity. This resulted in differing goals competing for my attention. Firstly, I was deeply motivated to explore and enter as many communities of practice in this most interesting of nations that I could. Secondly, I wished to continue professionally developing myself within the field of EFL instruction and solidify my career.

Much of this thinking was reinforced by way of my initial interactions with ex-patriate individuals in South Korea. As a Buddhist, I was fortunate enough to connect with an international group that resided within a broader South Korean Buddhist organization. This English-speaking group comprised approximately 150 individuals of which approximately 35 were South Koreans with English-speaking ability. From listening to their experiences, which at that time I did not attribute to globalization, I came to the realization that my Korean sojourn could well provide me with a staging base from which to re-interpret my place in the world to and from which to seek new opportunities and experience.

Surprisingly, this interpretation appeared to be in stark contrast with the experiences I observed of so many peers that I initially encountered in South Korea. Many had lived there for very extended periods, often more than a decade and in some instances, more two decades. I viewed these English ‘professors’ as worthy of deep respect for their ability to live in what I had assumed would be a stressful, foreign environment for so long and had in the process carved out enviable career paths for themselves. However, one overriding aspect of their experiences continued to confound me. Very few of these individuals had demonstrated a sustained vision or commitment to learn the language of their host nation or to integrate with



it for instrumental benefit. Given that these individuals largely gave no indication of a desire to leave South Korea, my curiosity was further aroused by a sense that there appeared to be such an absence of intrinsic motivation to learn Korean language. This sense of unease was only intensified upon realization that their sentiments towards their host nation were, depending on what aspect of Korean life and culture was being discussed, indifferent at best, in some cases negative, and among a small minority, outwardly hostile.

Upon deeper reflection, however, I became increasingly empathetic to their plight as it became difficult to overlook the fact that these individuals occupied a role and status that was somewhat different to that which my initial assumption of them had led me to believe. Almost all these individuals were employed on one, or in a relatively small number of some cases, two-year renewable employment contracts and their associated temporary working visas. Although many were given the title of ‘professor’, their job descriptions more accurately reflected their roles as English conversation instructors. This more realistic picture enabled me to form the overall research questions (RQs) for the study. The research questions are:

RQ1: Why were native-English speaking EFL instructors who had lived in South Korea, some for many years, not proficient Korean speakers?

RQ2: In the globalized marketplace, why did the native-speaking EFL-instructors working in South Korea not appear intrinsically or instrumentally motivated to learn Korean?

These two questions form the scope, purpose, utility and most importantly, the necessity of the overall study. It would use various theoretical lenses in the L2 motivation literature to gain insight into the psychology and experiences of participants as L2 learners and users in a host nation with its own L1. At the core of motivation research is the attempt to understand “what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, to expand effort and persist in action” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 3). This needs to be placed in context.

This century has seen unprecedented surge in human mobility from English and non-English speaking nations (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017). This is largely in response to globalization, or the integration of national economies into one international flow of trade, capital and migration, however this inevitable development poses challenges for East Asian nations (Han, 2014, p. 225). There, a widespread perception is that English is the language of globalization and populations not proficient in its use will be excluded from the benefits of globalization. Such acceptance of this new-world order is increasingly typical in non-English-

speaking countries, where English is now viewed as the undisputed, indispensable lingua franca (Clyne & Sharifan, 2008, p.9). Therefore, globalization had the potential to provide an ever-increasing number of opportunities for native-English speaking EFL instructors to pursue in a growing number of such host nations. Why individuals did not appear to take advantage of this may provide insight into those of other similar cohorts, or even others working in the globalized marketplace in other host nations. Ushioda (2006, p. 149) addresses the need to examine “motivational issues pertaining to linguistic diversity, mobility and social integration” in response to “a rapidly changing and expanding Europe”. The changing dynamics of this landscape therefore requires analysis that moves “beyond the individual to embrace the interaction between the individual and social setting ... to focus critical attention on this social setting in facilitating or constraining the motivation of the individual L2 learner/user” (p. 158). Surprisingly, in the interim period in which globalization has only intensified, studies examining how learners directly affected by this process, beyond Europe, remain largely invisible from the literature and in filling this significant gap, this study will provide insight into the factors that affect the motivation of English-speaking EFL instructors in one host nation that may be relevant for those in others. This is significant as L2 motivation research very heavily focussed on the L2 learning experiences of global English learners (Boo, Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) employing theoretical paradigms that may not entirely reflect the L2 learning experiences of learners of languages other than English (LOTEs) (Dörnyei & Al Hoorie, 2017).

The overriding reason for undertaking this research, was, therefore, to reach some form of understanding as to why my South Korean experiences had ignited a sense of adventure within me which now beckoned me to replicate this elsewhere, or to significantly deepen my relationship with my current host nation. Such a desire was by way of a set of attitudes that reflect a certain positive way of viewing the wider world and the opportunities that it can offer. For L2 global English language speakers, such a world-view is referred to as international posture, of which key aspects include an “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to study or work overseas, readiness to interact with intercultural partners and ... a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures” (Yashima, 2000, p. 57). The pursuit of such a lifestyle, I believed could both challenge and make myself a more dynamic individual on a personal level. In addition, I believed I would also derive integrative and/or instrumental benefits in one, or multiple, additional host nations by adopting such a world view.

However, circumstances of my own making were about to change the course of my life. My acceptance into this research degree program in my fifth year in South Korea necessitated that I remain there to collect the data and to conduct the research. In an act of apparent hypocrisy, I justified my reason for not continuing to learn Korean beyond pre-intermediate level to a perceived need to fully devote myself to study in addition to working full-time. However, in so doing, I was simply emulating something I disliked in the overwhelming majority of my peers who similarly used some form of external rationalization to justify their lack of motivation towards learning Korean. In my mind, however, the point of difference was that I believed I had interpreted my initial globalization experiences by way of a growing understanding that in the globalized world individuals who did not upskill themselves, either by acquiring relevant second languages or by gaining skills this new marketplace required, would become marginalized.

This resulted in me beginning to view these individuals as either being unaware of, or in denial of this new reality. I was uncomfortable with what appeared to be their perception that their special place in South Korea was due to their status as both native-English speaking and teachers of the highly desirable global international lingua franca. More concerning, however, was my sense that this perceived entitlement was in response to an aspect of demand created by globalization which could well change in response to supply. While justifying their lack of motivation to continue studying or learning Korean to issues related to South Korean society, in so doing they may have inadvertently placed themselves in positions of disadvantage in an increasingly competitive, globalized marketplace. Specifically, I believed that in order for many of my peers to make themselves more secure in this new environment, learning Korean could potentially offer instrumental benefits within the field of EFL instruction in South Korea as bilingual speakers. Therefore, my core research questions could inform the answering of five specific questions directly related to factors affecting the motivation of participants in a globalized marketplace which may have relevance for similar cohorts in other small language host nations with their own L1s.

Firstly, why had so many of my peers, despite testimony to the contrary, appeared to have passively placed themselves on the periphery in South Korea in acceptance that they would reside there semi-permanently? Secondly, was this indicative of the strategy of denial EFL instructors employ to dismiss issues that potentially affect them (Aboshiha, 2013), in this case the need to face the distinct possibility that their long-held linguistic, cultural capital and professional identities were losing their value (Holliday, 2005). Thirdly, did these developments threaten their perceived comfort zones which had remained largely

unchallenged for many years resulting in them choosing to believe that they could forever remain immune to the forces of globalization which so many second and third language learners of English had been unable to ignore? Fourthly, and more specifically, were participants employing this strategy of denial to seal themselves from the need to acknowledge that the opportunities and challenges that globalization increasingly offered and posed were indicative of a changing landscape to which they had formulated no response? Finally, was their projection of unexpressed related fears manifested by way of outward frustration towards their host nation and its language?

In seeking the answers to the kinds of questions I pose above, this thesis utilizes the five theoretical lenses, outlined in the abstract, to establish which key factors most impact on the motivation of fourteen EFL instructors living in South Korea to learn Korean. From this, a clearer picture of the dynamics that comprise the relationship between EFL instructors in their host nation of South Korea and their hosts may emerge. I will now draw on the literature on globalization to place the participants in the larger picture that applies to both them and their hosts.

## **1.2 Globalization**

### **1.2.1 South Korea and globalization**

At the outset, it is important to note the impact of globalization on nations with smaller national languages. As Mufwene (2013, p. 31) point out: “Today’s world is claimed to be economically and culturally more globalized than ever before. ... which [has] prompted some experts to claim that the world has been homogenizing by convergence, at the expense of cultural diversity. ... the volumes of traffic and the directions in which they travel are not necessarily symmetrical. The players, or partners involved in the relevant world-wide networks of interconnectedness and interdependence do not hold equal economic powers; it is the more powerful who control which commodities (including languages) are transported more freely and in which directions”. The integral nature and therefore importance of English in this new world order can also not be underestimated. As Block (2013, p. 287) notes “... English is the prime mediator of the economic, political, cultural and social relations and flows that constitute globalization”. However, this rapid transformation that the world is undergoing due to globalization has led to the raising of “... concern about whether the new globalized economy is really a form of neo-colonialism, and one in which the ‘native speaker’ will have an unfair advantage ...” (Heller, 2013, p. 358). At its most extreme Mufwene (2013) posits the warning that “... the more widely ... ‘global English’ spreads, the more

likely it is to drive other languages to extinction” (p. 31). This has further researchers, including Heller (2013), to form the conclusion that “... essentially, we are dealing with an old familiar phenomenon (colonialism), dressed up and legitimized through new discourses. ... The idea that English, in particular, and also other languages which are potentially important to the world market ... are crucial to access to global markets has, of course led to competition over their production and distribution” (p. 358).

It is against this backdrop that South Korea finds itself – a relatively small resource-poor society that in order to continue to successfully compete on the world stage for its economic survival must embrace globalization. For citizens who reside there, the acquisition of English is therefore perceived as an integral component of a successful future. The belief that English acquisition equates to upward social and economic mobility is a long-held one in Korean society.

The genealogy of English in Korea represents the ideological construction of a language that has “... presented the Korean people with new hope from the very beginning” (Cho, 2017, p. 51). Since the arrival of English in Korea in 1882, five distinct phases in relation to domestic events have resulted in the construction of popular beliefs regarding English: (1) The arrival of English in Korea (1882-1909); (2) the Japanese colonisation of Korea (1910-1945); (3) independence and American control (1945-1960); (4) the Modernization of Korea (1961-1992) and (5) South Korea in the context of globalization (1993 - ) (p. 42). Viewed from the perspective of Koreans, these phases were interpreted, in turn, by commoners suffering from the injustice of the caste system “... to dream of climbing up the social ladder. For the King and country, it [English] was the language which to seek protection from the United States against imperial forces. For progressive elites, English was a tool to modernize and empower the country” (p. 51). In the globalized context, the perception that English is the language of opportunity remains. Using Bourdieu’s (1986) theory of capital, Cho (2017) therefore concludes that “... the genealogy of English in Korea illustrates how English has served as multiple forms of valued capital - cultural, economic, social and symbolic – in the local context, and has ... been feverishly pursued by upwardly mobile Koreans” (p. 43).

### **1.2.2 The demand for English in the globalized South Korean context**

This feverish pursuit of English in South Korea has only been exacerbated by neoliberalism which Piller and Cho (2013) describe as “... an economic doctrine that has undergirded the global expansion of advanced capitalism over the past three or four decades” (p. 24). Its

premise is largely that of nineteenth century laissez-faire capitalism based on the competitive equilibrium model of Adam Smith. As such, an unregulated market is assumed to benefit all individuals.

The South Korean adoption of neoliberalism was largely in response to the Asian financial crisis of 1997/98 when the International Monetary Fund imposed strict deregulatory and financial measures on South Korea resulting in “the elevation of competitiveness and competition to a core value of both individuals and the state” (p. 28). This led to English becoming a compulsory school subject for all primary school pupils in 1997 as it is also for all first-year university students. However, this elevation of English as an educational requirement for school and university students was not without consequences for those who were expected to acquire it. “While the imperative to compete is continuously exhorted as an individual responsibility, it is not the case that individuals can choose on which terrain they choose to compete” (p. 29).

The English fever or *yeongeoyoelpung*, which is largely a direct consequence of neoliberalism can be found at all levels of education. Parents enrol their infants in English-speaking only preschools which is supported by an immense shadow market disseminating specialist tuition at all levels and for all ages focussing on English acquisition and test preparation. “These structures of competition in learning for schools ... ensure a continuous privilege of English ... [and] marks the beginning of a process in which, at each step along the way, English is reinforced as privileged. For university applicants and job seekers, English is privileged because it is tested at each of these junctures. ... the outcomes of each test further entrench the inequalities between those for whom proficiency in English opens doors and those for whom lack of proficiency in English closes doors. The pressure to perform ... on tests of English, is ... immense” (Piller & Cho, 2013, pp. 29-30).

When placed in the context of the neoliberal employment marketplace, the ability to communicate in English is one of the most important ‘soft skills’ used to measure applicants’ employability by South Korean companies (Cho, 2017, p. 16). This has spurred the development of an entire English testing industry where, in South Korea, it is mandatory for white collar applicants to submit the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) (Park, 2011). Given the importance accorded TOEIC scores in the highly competitive South Korean employment market, candidates tend to respond by investing even greater amounts of time and money into their English language learning. Specifically, South Korean university students have tended to become self-managers of their English language learning given that in such a competitive employment market only those with the required

language skills will be eligible to enter (Abelmann, Kim & Park, 2009).

More broadly, the unprecedented levels of investment being made by South Koreans in English language learning (Park, 2009, 2010, 2011) has resulted in related class divisions emerging. The prioritization of investment in English has seen some South Koreans attending English camps, or even emigrating to be immersed in an English-speaking environment (Park, 2009). The rapid process of globalization in South Korea has even resulted in an increasingly large number of the middle class investing in educational migration, called *jogi juhak* (short term study abroad parents) (Park & Bae, 2009; Song, 2010,). Typically, *jogi juhak* is employed as a short-term strategy in which the mother and children live overseas and the father remains in South Korea to support them (also known as *gileogi gajok* or ‘wild goose family’). Citing Lee & Koo (2006), Park and Lo (2012) refer to this phenomenon as “the subordination of the family structure to investment in English”. Placing *gileogi gajok* in the South Korean context, Park and Lo (2012) make the point that “This form of educational migration is ... a direct response to the intense competition in Korean society that had defined the job market and the educational field since the 1990s” (p. 149). Interestingly, it appears that the South Korean interpretation of the need for English as integral to globalization can see other potentially relevant languages sidelined. In citing Park and Bae’s (2009) study of *jogi juhak* who wished their children to learn Mandarin in addition to English, Piller and Cho (2013) found “... the way English was heavily favoured as a gatekeeping mechanism in various educational and employment transitions, [meant that] they [South Koreans] had no choice but to concentrate on English learning over Mandarin learning” (p. 29).

Therefore, regardless of whether the motivation to invest in English attainment is made within South Korea, or beyond it, the overall intent is to achieve the same result. “English has become tied to individual aspirations to enhance one’s worth in a highly competitive society” (Cho, (2017, p. 19).

### **1.2.3 The native-English speaking EFL instructor’s place in the globalized South Korean context**

It is against this backdrop that the private South Korean English industry and state educational institutions recruit the required vast number of disseminators of global English. Those from certain, desirable, nations appear to have priority. Typically, these individuals inhabit the most inner of the three concentric circles in the model of Kachru (1992) comprising nations in which English is the native language of the majority (e.g. the UK, the U.S., Canada, Australia and New Zealand). Accordingly, these individuals are considered

high prestige because of their central accents over those deemed peripheral (e.g. Indian or Singaporean English) (Dong & Blommaert, 2009). According such prestige to so many individuals from outside South Korea, now deemed so essential in fulfilling the neoliberal agenda within it, can also raise the possibility that aspects of the age-old sense of group identity may then come under the threat of erosion, particularly given the pace and scale of the globalization process. At its most extreme, Edwards (2009, p. 40) poses the question: “If outsiders who have traditionally been considered as inferior, alien, or indeed, not fully human have come to achieve such obvious social dominance, what does this suggest to the ‘insiders’ about the validity of their traditional descriptions about their self-esteem, about the tenuous nature of their cultural community?”

Having outlined the nationalities of native-English speaking EFL instructors most likely to be employed in South Korea, I will now introduce the participants firstly by outlining the recruitment process for this study and secondly by presenting individual profiles of each participant.

### **1.3 Participants**

#### **1.3.1 Recruitment**

Once consent was granted to conduct this study from the Macquarie University Ethics Committee (see appendix 1 for details) and approved, the process of recruitment took place. Recruitment of participants was conducted through my professional network of EFL instructors in South Korea. The final participant group consisted of seven instructors from my own workplace and a further seven, each from a different South Korean university LEC. This process took place in the second half of 2011.

My decision to recruit half the participants from my workplace was pragmatically-driven and partially in response to an understanding that it is essential that the researcher establish a good rapport with participants if the objective of the research is for participants to disclose information about their lives (Murray, 2009, p. 50). Many years working in journalism had taught me that much time can be saved by having established some form of relationship with potential interviewees, over ‘going in cold’.

My workplace colleagues had, in some cases, been colleagues since 2008 and some degree of social relationship had been established with all these potential participants. Gaining their trust, and therefore confidence, I believed, would be easier and faster than attempting to recruit participants who had no prior knowledge of me or my aims. However, such participant selection suggests a strong danger of sample bias related to the “Matthew



effect” or the pattern of increasing advantage or disadvantage following initial advantage or disadvantage. The Christian term is derived from the Gospel according to Matthew: “For unto one that hath shall be given, and he shall have abundance, but for him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath” (XXV, p. 29, New Analytical). However, the selection of such participants was by way of homogenous sampling, where “the researcher selects participants from a particular subgroup who share some important experience relevant to our study programme ... this strategy allows us to conduct an in-depth analysis to identify common patterns in a group with similar characteristics” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 127). In addition, regarding studying one’s own organization or workplace, Creswell (2013, p. 151) cites Glesne and Peshkin (1992) who question research that examines “your own *backyard* – within our own institution or agency, or among friends or colleagues” (p. 21), which these authors “... suggest is ‘dangerous knowledge’ that is political and risky for an ‘inside’ investigator” (Creswell, 2013, p. 151). However, it can also be said that a working knowledge of how an institution operates from the inside can provide a researcher with a more in-depth understanding that can be taken into the data gathering process.

Recognising that the particular workplace in which I was employed may not have been ‘typical’ in all respects, a further seven participants, each working at a different LEC, were recruited. This was part of a strategy to employ multiple validation perspectives designed to ensure the account would be as accurate and insightful as possible as: “A hallmark of good qualitative research is the report of a multiple perspectives that range over the entire spectrum of perspectives” (Creswell, 2013, p. 151). Referred to as triangulation, the making “... use of multiple and different methods. ... involves corroborating evidence from different sources to shed light on a theme or perspective” (p. 251).

Recruitment of a further seven participants was therefore conducted by contacting peers in my professional network, of which four accepted my informal email invitation to partake in this study. The remaining three participants were recruited via social media with KOTESOL (the Korean Organization for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) by way of a generic message of invitation to take part in this thesis being sent to all eligible members on-line. This process resulted in the recruitment of the final three participants. At the same time, all fourteen EFL instructor colleagues at my workplace were invited to participate in this research, with the aim of recruiting seven of them. In addition to the seven participants already recruited, the first seven of the colleagues at my workplace to provide their written consent by signing the information and consent form (see appendix 2)

completed the process of recruitment. This form provided a rationale for the study and their participation in it, i.e. that if they accepted the invitation they would be participating in a one-hour, in-depth, semi-structured interview. Each participant's identity would remain anonymous. All participants who accepted taking part in this study were informed that their interviews would be of a face-to-face nature, audio recorded and transcribed. In terms of required ethical issues (Cohen, Manion & Morriison, 2000; Creswell, 2013; Johnson & Christensen, 2004), each participant was informed of the right to withdraw his, or her, participation at any time, without having to give a reason and with no consequence. The form also provided information on the study's ethical criteria approval, as required by Macquarie University. This was granted in August, 2011 (Ref No. 5201100548D) (see appendix 1).

### **1.3.2 Individual profiles**

Given the nature and constraints of academic journal article writing, it has not been possible to expand (in the individual papers presented in this thesis) beyond the most rudimentary factors that comprise participants' individual biographies. In chapters two, four, five and six, these are presented by way of a chart containing the same basic demographic information. The participants will now be introduced by way of individual profiles that offer slightly more in-depth information, while at the same time respecting their right to privacy. Two participants requested that their places of employment not be revealed by this study, and these details have not been included for any of the participants in order not to identify them. The information that is included relates to their country of origin, ethnicity, gender, age, qualifications, and work experience in South Korea, and is presented with the deliberate intent to preserve their anonymity. The order of the participants, below, corresponds with the order in which each of their individual in-depth interviews took place in November and December 2011.

1) Participant one ("John") is from South Africa, is a European male aged 26, has a Bachelor of Arts degree in Human Resource Management, and worked for one year at a *hagwon* (or private language academy) before being hired by a university language centre.

2) Participant two ("Michael") is from England, is a European male aged 28, with a Bachelor of Arts degree in English Literature. He worked for one and a half years at a *hagwon* before being hired by a university language centre.

3) Participant three (“Richard”) is from the United States, is a European male aged 49 with a Master of Arts degree in TESOL. He has spent the last fifteen years in South Korea, all of it in the same city, working as an elementary school teacher there in 1996 and 1997 before joining a university language centre.

4) Participant four (“Andy”) is from New Zealand, is a European male, aged 34 with a degree in hotel management. He moved to a South Korean city from New Zealand in 2008 and worked for two years in a *hagwon* there, before joining a university language centre

5) Participant five (“Barry”) is from the United States, is a European male aged 31, with a Bachelor of Arts degree in broadcasting. He moved to South Korea in July 2001 and worked for four years in a *hagwon* before working as a public-school teacher in elementary and middle schools for four years. He then joined a university language centre.

6) Participant six (“Patricia”) is from the United States. She is an African-American aged 29 with a Bachelor of Arts degree in anthropology, arriving in Seoul in December 2007. She completed a one-year contract at a *hagwon* before returning, as intended, to the United States. Unable to find employment she returned to South Korea and worked as a teacher at a *hagwon* outside Seoul, for one year. She then transferred to another branch of the same institute in Seoul, working there for three months before joining a university language centre.

7) Participant seven (“Sharon”) is from the United States. She is an African-American aged 32, with a Bachelor of Science degree in speech communication and a Master of Business Administration. She arrived in South Korea in August, 2001 and worked at a *hagwon* in a large regional city and then at a university there for one year before joining a university language centre

8) Participant eight (“Robert”) is from New Zealand, is a European male, aged 64, with a Master of Arts degree in Education. He joined a *hagwon* for children in Seoul in June 2000, working there for eight months before moving to a rural area where he taught English for three years, before working at a *hagwon* for fifteen months. He then moved back to New Zealand but relocated back to Seoul five weeks later to work at a *hagwon*. After 18 months, in March, 2007, he joined a university language centre in Seoul where he was still working.

9) Participant nine (“Angela”) is from the United States, is a European female aged 57. She has a Master of Arts degree in creative writing. She arrived in Korea in 1996 and worked in a rural area at a *hagwon* for two years. She then joined a language education centre for one year, before returning to the United States. She returned to the same language education centre in 2006, working there until she took up a position at another language education centre in Seoul in 2008.

10) Participant ten (“Duncan”) is from England and is a European male aged 39. He has a Bachelor of Arts degree in business studies and a Master of Arts degree in English language teaching. He completed four months of a one-year contract at a Seoul *hagwon* in 2000, before moving to the Czech Republic where he also taught English for one year, then moved to New Zealand, where he taught English for four years. He returned to South Korea in 2006, working at a language education centre for four and a half years before taking up a teaching position at a university department in Seoul in March 2011.

11) Participant eleven (“Paul”) is from Australia, is a European male aged 28. He has a Master of Arts degree in TESOL. He arrived in South Korea in 2007 and worked at a *hagwon* in a large regional city for nine months, before joining a university language centre.

12) Participant twelve (“James”) is from Canada, a European male aged 40. He has a Bachelor of Arts degree in English literature. He came to South Korea in 1995, working in a *hagwon* in a rural area for ten months, then relocating to Seoul in 1996 to work at a university and study Korean language, alternately, for three months, each over a period of two years. He returned to Canada in 1998. In 1999, he taught in a regional South Korean city before studying Korean in Seoul for six months. Since 2000 he has been employed as an EFL instructor at a university in Seoul.

13) Participant thirteen (“David”) is from Canada and is a European male aged 49. He has a Bachelor of Arts degree in psychology. He came to South Korea in 2001 and worked at a *hagwon* in a large regional city for fifteen months, followed by eight and a half years at a private high school. In 2011, he took up a position at a university in another large regional city.

14) Participant fourteen (“Vernon”) is from Canada, is a European male, aged 46. He has spent six years in Korea. His first job was at a *hagwon*, in a large regional city. He then worked for five years at a university in a rural area, where for four years he was contracted out to a local elementary school, before teaching English at a university language centre.

## **1.4 Approach to Methodology**

### **1.4.1 Data collection**

All interviews and the compilation of the resulting transcripts were conducted by myself. Identifying features were removed and the names of participants were replaced with pseudonyms to protect their identities. The primary method of data collection that would then be utilized in the data analysis of this research was interviews. Each participant took part in an individual in-depth interview and a one-year longitudinal case study was undertaken of one participant in this group. The secondary source of data was the (optional) situational diary keeping participants were requested to do for two weeks prior to each of their individual in-depth interviews. The overall methodological approach and the pragmatic limitations this study faced will now be discussed in detail.

### **1.4.2 Qualitative research**

Each constituent paper in Chapters 2 to 6 provides an account of the research methodology that was used in each case. However, due to the space constraints of writing articles for publication, an overview of the whole process, together with a discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of each aspect of the chosen methodological approach is now provided together with an overview of why this thesis is qualitative in nature.

"Briefly, quantitative research involves the collection of data that results in largely numerical data being analysed by statistical methods and typically comprises a larger number of participants than qualitative research" (Dörnyei, 2007). Qualitative research involves data collection methods that result in largely non-numerical analysis (p. 24). Therefore, where quantitative research may take a large enough sample to iron out idiosyncratic differences, qualitative research may comprise far fewer participants from who data is collected by a variety of different means than the ones commonly found in quantitative studies. The data that is offered from these methodological approaches is then analysed in-depth. The overriding difference in the two approaches to methodology is that “Qualitative research is fundamentally interpretive ... the research outcome is ultimately the product of the researcher’s subjective interpretation of the data. Several interpretations are possible for each

data set ... in the end the researcher will choose from them” (p. 38). In summary, a qualitative methodology which would comprise three constituent parts was employed for this narrative-based thesis: (1) one in-depth semi-structured interview of approximately one hour each; (2) optional diaries for participants to record their thoughts about their Korean language learning motivation and practice two weeks prior to their in-depth interview; and (3) a one-year longitudinal case study of one participant only.

### **1.4.3 Narrative inquiry**

So much of the work undertaken by narrative researchers is determined by the context of the research situation (Murray, 2009, p. 48). This informed the decision to make this study one of narrative inquiry involving the fourteen individuals who became my research participants. “At its heart, narrative inquiry is a story, or a collection of stories. Doing the narrative inquiry involves eliciting and documenting these narratives. ... A story can be research when it is interpreted in view of the literature in the field, and this process yields implications for practice, future research or theory building” (p. 46). For these reasons, narrative inquiry was the chosen method of inquiry. “Narrative inquiry is conducive to documenting the changing conditions of lives and the impact these new conditions can have of on all aspects of an individual’s life, including language learning” (p. 47). In narrative inquiry, the use of multiple methods of data collection is often employed (Barkhuizen, Benson & Chik, 2013). In the field of applied linguistics, methods of data collection include case studies and diary studies (Murray, 2009) both of which are form the basis of this study.

How this study evolved into being one of narrative inquiry shares parallels with Murray’s (2009) study of the motivation of Japanese people living in Japan to learn English. In common with Murray, I reviewed the relevant literature on motivation, identity, learning strategies, learner autonomy and strategies. This made it possible to compile a list of interview questions which could be categorized under the headings of personal background, motivation/goals, language levels, strategies and resources. For Murray (2009) “These questions pertained as to why it was important for learners to learn the language, how they went about it, what resources they used, and how successful they were in achieving this goal” (p. 49). This was the strategy I employed, however with the understanding (much of it from personal experience and observation of native-English speaking EFL instructors in South Korea) that given its context, other factors were also important in determining the level of motivation to learn Korean for participants in this study.

Largely in response to globalization, these factors included the temporary nature of

participants' working contracts, the role and place of participants in South Korean society, English 'fever', their host nation's resulting expectations of participants and their resulting motivation to learn Korean, and/or other goals in a globalized marketplace. Therefore, the resulting questions were specifically designed to elicit why participants were motivated to learn Korean and what factors most impacted on this from an individual *and* societal level. These would form the interview guide for the in-depth interview. When conducting interviews with the longitudinal case study participant, one to six opening or 'grand tour' questions were used to assist elicit her Korean-learning story which would then be "... expected to go through rather diverse phases" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 83). As such "During the interview, the researcher may ask an occasional question for clarification and may give reinforcement feedback as any good communication partner would to keep the interview moving, but interruption is kept to a minimum" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136).

My decision to select the interview as the primary tool of data collection was crucial for this thesis due to its direct link to thematic analysis. Thematic analysis provides a qualitative means to analyse narrative data by linking what is abstract to categories and concepts for their re-arrangement in support of theoretical arguments for use in identifying points of similarity and difference across narratives (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, pp. 80-81). This makes thematic analysis ideally suited to studies comprising multiple case study participants and multiple narratives (p. 78) with all fourteen participants in this study being such case studies, with one selected as a longitudinal extension. Where the number of participants is relatively small, as in the case of this study, two basic options for comparative thematic analysis are available to the researcher. The first of these options is to analyse each narrative individually, and when compared, view them as either contrasting or diverse cases, while the second option is to analyse them collectively and treat them as aspects of one collective case (p.79). For the purposes of this study, the first of these options was employed, initially by a process of coding and thematic analysis.

## **1.5 Instruments**

### **1.5.1 Interviews**

Having established which approach I would take to conducting this study, the choice of instruments used to gather the data will be introduced. Silverman (2005, p. 51) goes so far as to describe the interview as the gold standard of qualitative research. Interviews receive the most attention from qualitative researchers (Kim, 2009, p. 280). Much of this popularity is derived from the fact that interviewing allows researchers to "... establish a relationship with

people that enables us to share in their perception of the world” (Richards, 2003, p. 50).

“Interviewing, thus, may be most suitable to be used for accessing personal perspectives on language learning and teaching in situated contexts” (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 16). These contexts can include formal learning contexts, informal with mature and heritage learners, informal contexts with migrant and sojourn learners and formal context with pre- and in-service English teachers. For each of these reasons, I selected the interview as the primary source of data collection for this thesis

Dörnyei (2007) differentiates between three main types of interview: the structured interview, the semi-structured interview and the unstructured interview. The semi-structured interview is particularly appropriate to use in cases where the researcher has a good enough overview of the phenomenon in question and can develop a broad set of questions about this topic, in advance, however is keen not to use categories that may limit the depth and breadth of respondents’ answers (p. 135-136). It was therefore chosen as the most appropriate to be employed in the conducting of the in-depth interviews and, in combination with aspects of the unstructured interview, for the longitudinal case study.

#### **1.5.1.1 The semi-structured interview**

While the semi-structured interview may be seen as a compromise between structured and unstructured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136), it does, however, have distinct, pragmatic, advantages, for example, if the researcher does have a fair idea of what topics need to be covered and to, a large extent, what needs to be asked. For these reasons, the semi-structured interview was selected as the interview type for data collection. An interview schedule, where the focus remains on following questions, in order, appears appropriate, but tempered by the fact that the interviewer needs to balance the need for such consistency with sufficient flexibility to ask follow-up questions, probe some aspects in depth, and in some instances let the speaker lead (Richards, 2003). The use of general questions gives respondents more opportunity to explain what is important to them (Corbin & Morse, 2003). The interview guide, therefore, can be drawn on in whatever way and to whatever extent is appropriate and is best achieved by deciding what the interview is setting out to achieve, identifying the big questions, deciding on lines of inquiry that derive from this, writing a suitable warm-up question and analysing the interview guide from the participants’ point of view (Richards, 2003, pp. 69-70). For all these reasons, the semi-structured interview is the most commonly used format in language learning research (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 17) and was employed as the primary source of data collection in this study.



In addition to these points, the flexibility of the semi-structured interview is ideally suited to situations in which the interviewer has a clear understanding of the topics that need to be covered (and even an order) but is prepared to allow for the interview to develop in unexpected directions and is open to allowing the interview to open up to important new areas. This was the case for this study. The ideal interview in qualitative research is one where the interviewer will have covered all the intended topics and the interviewee will feel that he or she has participated in a conversation with a purpose and where the respondent does not feel that they are merely replying to questions (Burgess, 1984, p. 102). While the need to be careful in conducting selective collection of data is imperative, qualitative research is less systematic and standardized than quantitative research (Croker, 2009, p. 4). By its very nature, qualitative research is more involved with the collection of data and procedures which are open-ended with data analysis being primarily non-statistical (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24). As such, quantitative researchers, or positivists, tend to be characterized by their reference to a scientific paradigm and worldview in which an objective and independent interpretation of an external social reality can be researched empirically using standardized scientific methods (p. 9) in ways that qualitative researchers are not bound by.

This perceived freedom has important ramifications regarding the balance between objectivity and subjectivity which relate directly to the data collection and analysis employed in this thesis. From the neo-positivist viewpoint, interviewers may perceive themselves to be neutral (Alvesson, 2003). Therefore, asking neutral questions, often in a particular sequence, and working to minimise research bias by adopting an objective role, are all undertaken to gain understanding and meaning of how other people interpret their experience (Seidman, 2006, p. 9). This type of interviewer is generally expected to refrain from providing personal opinions and perspectives during the interview where self-disclosure is discouraged (Weiss, 1994, p. 79). This is because the researcher's subjectivities and beliefs may bias the data via personal opinions offered during the interview (Hammersley & Gomm, 2008). In addition, Dörnyei (2007, p. 141) makes the point that it is simply not enough for the interviewer to not express any personal bias because respondents will invariably feel influenced by social desirability bias, believing that certain responses would be met with disapproval. This is not because the interviewer has given any indication of this, but because certain responses may clash with social conventions, or norms.

While these points all have validity, Creswell (2013, p. 251) cites Merriam (1988) who makes the point that it is important for researchers to clarify any bias at the outset of the study so the reader understands the researcher's position and any possible biases or

assumptions that may impact on the study. Therefore, I will do this now. This researcher had either a working and/or acquaintance-based relationship with slightly more than half of participants in this study.

The issue of interviewer neutrality is one of debate in the qualitative literature with this researcher concurring with Fontana and Frey (2005) who make the point that the expectation of scientific neutrality in interviewing is a largely unrealistic concept. More specifically, the need to exercise interviewer restraint may be potentially undesirable as it may hinder the process of data gathering, as in the case of this study. As Corbin and Strauss (2008) point out: "... we can hear out critics saying bias - bias at the expense of using personal data. We are not suggesting that a researcher impose his or her ... experience on the data. Rather, we want to use our experiences to bring up other possibilities of meaning. Our experience may even offer a negative case, or something new to think about ..." (p. 80).

In summary, I was aware that as a peer and colleague of participants, how I conducted interviews with them had the potential to enhance or detract from the desired goal of attaining the most useful and accurate interpretation of their experiences. As Dörnyei (2007, p. 141) points out, an empathetic stance "is undoubtedly helpful in dealing with sensitive topics, and eliciting more honesty because the interviewer is an ally, but I am not quite sure how one is to handle an interview if one's personal stance does not fully coincide (or even clashes) with that of the interviewee. ... some delicate balancing act is needed between non-judgmental neutrality and empathetic understanding and approval". This was the position I took. Where empathy and understanding would elicit valuable insight by providing useful data for the latter reporting and interpretation of findings, I employed this strategy during the participants' interviews. In situations where participants expressed views that were not those shared by me, or those I had experienced, I allowed participants to express their viewpoints free from interruption or challenge. In this manner, my shared role and experiences with some participants was used in the most beneficial way during the interviewing process to elicit information only.

Overall, the major advantage of drawing on the interview in qualitative studies is that allows researchers to identify *systematic patterns* in an observed phenomenon (made more difficult when so much of motivation is subconscious). In July 2011, I conducted a pilot study. The intent of this was to refine the data collection and analysis methods and procedures (Murray, 2009, p. 49). The resulting twenty question interview questions which were asked of each participant respectively comprises the interview guide (see appendix 4). The in-depth interviews took place during November and December 2011.

### 1.5.2 The longitudinal case study

In-depth interviews enable a snapshot-like analysis of the target phenomenon at one point in time. In so doing, they allow researchers to establish relationships between variables and find out what participants think, their attitudes and emotional responses to questioning and can be used to compare various groups. The major advantage of *longitudinal* research is that it can add to insight gained from the data gained by way of such in-depth interviews by offering a bottom up understanding of how people move through time and craft the transition process to offer a close-up of the fabric of real lives (Neale & Flowerdew, 2003, p. 193). For this reason, a longitudinal element was employed in this thesis. Menard (2002, p. 2) defines longitudinal investigations as research in which: (a) data is collected from two or more distinct time periods; (b) the subjects or cases studied analysed are the same, or comparable, i.e. drawn from the same population; and (c) the analysis involves some comparison of data between periods. My longitudinal research case study comprises each of these three elements. Firstly, the case study participant took part in an in-depth interview in November 2011 whereas her interviews for her longitudinal study took place from May 2012 to June 2013. Secondly, she was one of the fourteen participants recruited for the larger study, and thus met the criteria for inclusion as part of this cohort. Thirdly, the interviews that comprise her case study were conducted for a year during which time she experienced many fluctuations in her second language learning motivation. This case study was designed to serve the two main purposes of longitudinal research that Dörnyei (2007) defines as “to *describe* patterns of change and to *explain* causal relationships” (p. 79).

Qualitative studies often employ aspects of longitudinal research. Such examples include situations in which informants are re-interviewed, or more generally through the researcher’s sustained engagement with his, or her, project (p. 86). When used in a study specifically related to second language motivation, the overriding advantage of the longitudinal case study is its appropriateness. “Language learning happens through and over time, therefore many, if not all topics about L2 learning that SLA researchers investigate can be most meaningfully interpreted only within a full longitudinal perspective” (Ortega & Iberri-Shea, 2005, p. 28). Despite the obvious advantages of longitudinal case studies, it would be an exaggeration to consider cross-sectional research inferior to longitudinal case studies as both forms of research are largely able to achieve the same result (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 89).

This is fortunate. As has been shown, the pragmatic reality is that researchers often do not have a great deal of choice over who will respond to calls for participants. However, in

acknowledging this potential obstacle to many studies, Duff (2006, p. 116) also criticises many case study authors for failing to mention how, or why, a particular case study participant was selected. This issue was addressed (see p. 16). The information and consent form (see appendix 3) she signed upon agreement to take part in this part of the study completed her process of recruitment.

That this individual was an acquaintance of the researcher raises issues regarding two of the eight issues related to the perceived weaknesses of case studies, particularly their validity, as outlined by Duff (2008). These issues relate to objectivity and ethical issues, particularly those concerning anonymity. The first of these issues regards the criticism that case study method often faces is that it lacks objectivity "... - that researchers may have preconceived notions or biases, or that they may identify too closely with their case participants and lose all perspective. ... Similarly, it could be argued that research participants (cases), when asked to provide ... accounts of their experiences or perceptions are themselves highly subjective ..." (Duff, 2008, p. 55). While admitting that claims of subjectivity may be true to an extent, "most qualitative researchers ... see it [subjectivity] as inevitable engagement with the world in which meanings are constructed (not just discovered) and in which the researcher is very much present" (p. 56). The second issue is that as case studies involve considerable detail and contextualization about the person, or event featured, it may become difficult to protect participants' identities, even with the use of pseudonyms. "As a result, researchers may sometimes change, or withhold information that might compromise the confidentiality of the case in order to honour agreements about participants' right to privacy" (p. 59).

Positivists could argue that to choose from a handpicked convenience sample of one is unwise as the case study then becomes not so much a sample of one, but a population of one. This makes the study descriptive and valid only for its subject (Dobson, Hardy, Heyes, Humphreys & Humphreys, 1981, p. 32-33) although generaliability is left to the reader. However, although admittedly by default in the case of this thesis, such a means of recruitment can be used precisely because the researcher wishes to understand the particular case in depth, not find out what is generally true of the particularity in a case (Merriam, 1998, p. 208).

Therefore, while not the original intent, the result was an intrinsic study. Such studies are those in which the researcher wants better understanding of a particular case as opposed to instrumental case studies where a particular case is examined to provide insight into an issue or to draw generalisations (Stake, 2000). In so doing, the supporting role played in an intrinsic

study facilitates understanding of other factors (Maxwell, 1992). The case is still examined in depth. "... even if the particulars of a study do not generalize, the main ideas and the process observed might. This is why the inclusion of even a single specially selected case can be illuminating" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 59). However, the relevance of this issue may be less important to the many qualitative researchers who consider generalizability largely a throwback to an earlier era with a widely-shared view in the literature that it is unimportant, unachievable, or both (Schofield, 1990, p. 202). Therefore, the selection of a single-case design may well be appropriate, or even justifiable, if the one being studied may prove to be critical or revelatory (Yin, 2003, p. 45). However, due to their unpredictability, Yin makes the point that single-case designs may "therefore require careful investigation of the case potential to minimise the chances of misrepresentation and to maximise the access needed to collect the necessary case study evidence" (p. 42).

Three further advantages of the single case study are presented by Duff (2008, pp. 43-45). Firstly, by concentrating on the behaviour of one individual, it is possible to achieve a thorough, or thick analysis. Such a suitably thick description of research participants and sites allows readers of case study reports to determine the generalizability of findings to their own situation, or other situations. The aim, therefore, is to understand and accurately represent people's experiences and the meaning they have constructed of them. Secondly, these in-depth studies may be more feasible for one person, and because case studies are often exploratory, they can reveal new perspectives, which can be very illuminating. Thirdly, an added strength of the case study is if an individual's behaviour, or background, appears to be atypical, but theoretically interesting, this factor would only emerge over time.

This last factor, however, can pose challenges. Determining a suitable length for the duration of a case study raises the accompanying issue, which as Thompson & Holland (2003, p. 21) ask, when is the appropriate time to stop gathering information? The issue of panel conditioning influenced my decision to limit the longitudinal case study to one year. (Panel conditioning is the effect of repeated contact with the researcher altering participants' responses. "They may ... lose their inhibition about the data collection format ... [or] having to focus on certain issues ... raises their awareness of, or sensitivity [to them] ...". Their responses may also reflect attempts to please the researcher who they are becoming more acquainted with (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 83)). The timeframe was also largely governed by the pragmatic realities outlined above. For two weeks prior to her in-depth interview, this participant kept a detailed solicited daily journal in which she recorded any activities she deemed relevant to her Korean language learning path and any reflections she had on it that

process. Together with her responses in her in-depth interview, this participant had provided a comprehensive account of linguistic and non-linguistic features she identified as important in her Korean language learning. I drew on these two sources to construct the interview guide for her longitudinal case study (see appendix 5). The interview guide is partially derived from the knowledge that in unstructured interviews no interview guide is required. As opposed to the structured interview, with its pre-prepared format "... the unstructured interview allows maximum flexibility to follow the interviewee in unpredictable directions, with only minimal interference from the research agenda" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 135). For this reason, the unstructured interview was used in preference to the semi-structured interview. However, as previously explained, the researcher usually has up to six opening 'grand tour' questions to elicit the participant's story (Dörnyei, 2007). I used this interview approach for the longitudinal case study as "It is easy to see that for an unstructured interview to be successful it is indispensable that the interviewer establishes very good rapport with the interviewee. ... This kind of interview is most appropriate when a study focuses on the deep meaning of a particular phenomena or when some personal historical account of how a particular phenomenon has developed is required" (p. 136).

The longitudinal case study participant was interviewed every three weeks and every second interview was audio-recorded and transcribed. This was to provide this individual the freedom to speak more candidly and in so doing avoided the need for further diary keeping, which would have been an additional imposition that could have potentially negatively impacted on her willingness to participate. Interviews were conducted from May 2012 to June 2013.

### **1.5.3 Situational dairies**

Finally, qualitative research functions best when it involves the studied use of a variety of inter-connected, empirical methods, understanding that each practice makes the world visible in a different way (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 4). Norton (2000), for example, employed a longitudinal approach to studying changes in her participants' social identity over time and their struggles to achieve to access second language communities of practice utilising this interpretive practice, in addition to interviews and participant observation, to make her study more robust. As qualitative research involves the study people in their natural contexts, with as little obstruction as possible - diary studies can satisfy this requirement to a large extent. "Diary data, by definition, is an insider account" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 157).

For these reasons, I made the decision that situational dairies would provide an ideal

complement to the one-hour in-depth interviews. I asked all participants to keep a daily journal for two weeks prior to their interview. Participation as a whole was entirely voluntary, therefore should any participant not wish to compile such a diary, their invitation to be interviewed for this study was still extended to them. In terms of diary keeping, participants were asked to record any thoughts that came up relating to their experiences of motivation regarding the learning and use of Korean and to write them down. Participants were offered the opportunity to bring their journals to their in-depth interviews where the ideas recorded in them could be expanded upon in the form of stimulated recall (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Stimulated recall is “a means by which a researcher, in an effort to explore a learner’s thought processes or strategies, can prompt the learner to recall and report thoughts that he or she had while performing a task or participating in an event” (p. 78), in this case using the diary as the means of recollection during the in-depth interview.

In research terms, diary studies usually refer to solicited diaries only, from accounts produced specifically at the researcher’s request (Bell, 1999, p. 266). These differ from personal diaries, which while spontaneous, may contain data that is not relevant and may raise issues of validity and ethics. Solicited diaries offer a more appropriate and therefore controlled way to attempt to capture autobiographical aspects of participants’ lives that are being sought in their own terms by allowing researchers to unobtrusively tap into their lives in a way that may otherwise be inaccessible (Gibson, 1995) and for this specific reason were selected as the second methodological data collection tool in addition to interviewing. The major strengths of the solicited diary in language learning research is that each participating language learner keeps an intensive journal in which introspective and retrospective thoughts and observations can be made by the diarists themselves (McKay, 2009, p. 228). Participants, therefore, become co-researchers in the process eliciting their own thoughts and feelings, rather than all elicitation emulating from the researcher. Given the emphasis that interviewing is given in this study, they may provide a useful safeguard against possible researcher dominance or bias, however unintended. This was my aim. Of equal importance, diaries offer a means for participants to offer researchers factors and insights that they may have otherwise been unaware of and may have therefore potentially overlooked (p. 230). Finally, diary entries may reduce the real possibility of inaccuracies that stem from participants not remembering events in interviews being recorded at a later date. If participants are writing about an event that took place on the same day, their level of recall would be far superior to trying to recall the same event as a more distant event in an interview (van Eerde, Holman & Totterdell, 2005).

However, several weaknesses about diary entries need to be noted and these informed the decision to make this methodological tool one optional, supportive aspect of the larger study. Most importantly, while they provide an autonomous means by which participants can reflect on their experiences, free from outside prompts, they are purely subjective. The interpretations and perceptions in them is entirely self-derived, leading McKay (2009) to question the degree to which the individuals concerned are suitably able to analyse the processes of their own language learning (p. 229). While it is contestable that the opposite may also apply, it is also true that most diary studies to date have typically comprised a small number of participants comprising linguists, experienced teachers or language teachers in training, rather than typical learners. In terms of participant make-up, this study is in many ways also typical of previous diary studies as participants were language teachers in addition to being language learners although its focus was on their experiences as language learners rather than as teachers.

In pragmatic terms of management, the successful execution of diary studies relies on participants being literate, willing and comfortable writing them (Gibson, 1995). Additionally, writing a daily diary, even on solicited themes only, may be very demanding for participants who have other professional, parenting and personal commitments to fulfil. A further shortcoming of diary entries is that they are vulnerable to honest forgetfulness, or lack of motivation which may well increase with time (Bolger, Davies & Rafaeli, 2003). For these reasons, I made the decision to ask participants to record (if they were happy to do so) their thoughts on issues that affected their Korean language learning motivation for a period of two weeks only, prior to their in-depth interviews. Six participants chose to do this and five offered to give their dairies to the interviewer on completion of the interview from which additional data was gathered for inclusion in this study.

### 1.6 Implementation of research design and pragmatic limitations

My rationale for adopting this methodological design approach was informed by two significant external limitations that could be imposed on a study in which half of the participants resided in locations that would require extensive travel to conduct data collection. In addition, the overwhelming majority of potential participants were employed on temporary one-year contracts. In South Korea, EFL instructors' contracts run from either February or August, for twelve months. While these are in many instances renewed, personal observation led me to conclude that once the necessary quota of participants had been recruited, it would be imperative to complete all data collection within one semester. While Corbin and Strauss



(2008) make the important point that a researcher cannot be expected know all the questions to ask at the beginning of a study, with the only way to gather more data being to go back to the field to gather more of it (p. 216), the potential for participants to either relocate within South Korea, or overseas, within a relatively short time period necessitated that I conduct my data gathering quickly and efficiently.

In addition, given the work, family and extra-curricular commitments of most prospective participants, it would also be problematic to expect participants to partake in extended exercises as part of data collection, particularly as for all participants outside my workplace any face-to face contact would have to take place at the weekend. Therefore, the need to minimise the level of intrusion was paramount and accordingly the decision was made to limit the face-to-face contact to a meeting comprising a one-hour in-depth interview. On the request of two participants and in response to favourable feedback from the remainder of participants, each recruit was sent the interview questions by email in advance. This would give participants time to reflect, in advance, on the answers. In addition, this approach had the potential to make the interview less intimidating and more empowering for participants. They could become more actively involved, to some extent at least, as co-constructors in the process. This would enable participants to articulate their own thoughts and even feedback, positive or negative, about questions they did not necessarily feel were relevant to them. or that they did not know how to answer. It could potentially save time in the interview as some participants indicated that they had no prior interview experience of this sort. I made the decision to supplement the in-depth interview with the option for participants to record their thoughts and feelings regarding the motivation to learn or practice Korean in a situational diary. To request those who chose to do this for the arguably short period of two weeks prior was based on the rationale that to ask participants to do this for any longer period could be interpreted as a commitment that would be too difficult for many to fulfil and therefore had the potential to contribute to attrition

In its favour, one of the distinct advantages of residing in the same location as seven of the participants was the ease with which it was possible to access them. However, for the remaining seven participants, this was not the case and any physical meeting would require up to half a day of travel (or in a few cases even more) to reach them. I therefore arranged to meet them in the major centre closest to their place of residence. Additionally, I would have to organize a suitably quiet venue for the meeting to take place in. Six of these seven participants requested that their interviews take place in two of the largest cities in South Korea. In addition to expressed concerns by affected participants about missing appointment

times due to probable delays in traffic, these participants also voiced concerns about the lack of privacy and quiet in their sometimes shared, small apartments which would make such venues unsuitable for audio recording. Therefore, in five of these instances, and after discussions via email, I organised accommodation in a hotel as near as possible to participants' homes for three non-consecutive weekends and they travelled the short distance to this venue for the interview either by subway, train or taxi. For participant fourteen, this necessitated three hours of travel to the interview due to the remoteness of his living circumstances. These actions were largely undertaken to minimise both the travel time for each participant and to address their issues with lack of privacy. In the case of participant ten, I travelled to his home as with two pre-school children it was impractical for him to leave his apartment. Without appropriate preparation and sensitivity to the needs of the participants, the task I was asking of them could have put added pressure on their free time and therefore potentially placed this study in a vulnerable position in terms of attrition at the outset. I reimbursed all participants' costs and hosted small groups of participants for a meal on conclusion of their interview if they were able to do so.

The knowledge that it would be unrealistic to request participants who did not reside in the same geographic location as myself, or who had significant commitments in addition to their employment, informed my additional decision to recruit only one participant for a one-year longitudinal case study only, over a preferable multiple cohort. In recruiting this participant, it was essential for the study that this individual would remain in South Korea for one year, had made the commitment to undertake formal Korean learning and was prepared to commit to fulfilling the requirement of three-weekly interviews, with each alternative interview being audio-recorded and transcribed. While the literature on qualitative research refers to the selection of participants, Murray (2009, p. 50) makes the point that "in my case it is more apt to say that I 'found' people willing to participate in the study". This was my experience also. Recruitment of the case study participant was a process that took two semesters with the sole possible recruit indicating that she would commit to an on-line programme of self-study to learn Korean.

Given these obstacles and delays, data collection by way of quantitative questionnaires that could simply be sent to participants would have enabled the side-lining of many of the pragmatic issues that this thesis faced and therefore, from the practical aspect, would have been preferable. However, given that the long and often difficult process of acquiring a second language is almost always accompanied by the inevitable ebbs and flows that are one of the prime characteristics of motivation (Garcia, 1999, p. 231), the ideal

methodological approach for this thesis would have been longitudinal case studies of each of the 14 participants' Korean-language motivation. Unfortunately, due to the constraints outlined above, this would have been impractical, in addition to posing significant recruitment issues. Nevertheless, it remained important that the data gathering process provided more than a moment in time, fixed-response approach to record participants' experiences which would then be analysed to produce findings. As previously alluded to, narrative inquiry emerged as the most appropriate and practical means to gather data and interpret the findings that were contained within it.

## **1.7 Coding and thematic analysis**

### **1.7.1 Coding**

To classify data by relevant themes and categories, it must first be coded. "Coding means to label or giving names to passages within the text which express a particular idea or refer to an event" (Murray, 2009, p. 51). The participants' activities and perceptions recorded in the data are coded (Saldaña, 2013, p. 17). When conducting the process of coding, the transcribed data is broken up into manageable pieces which are given names, or tags, enabling the researcher to then group them together, regroup them and then classify them (Murray, 2009, p. 52). For novice researchers, holistic coding is an appropriate way to code data from a variety of sources, particularly when a general idea of how to group together general ideas and what to investigate is known and lays the preparatory groundwork for more detailed, subsequent coding of data (Saldaña, 2013, p. 142). For these reasons, I selected holistic coding as the primary form of coding used in this study.

Manual coding gives the researcher more control in organizing qualitative data when compared with electronic coding (p. 26) and was therefore also selected. Following the practice suggested by Saldaña (2013, p. 17), the transcribed data was presented in double-spaced format, with one third of the right-hand side of the page being left for the writing of notes and codes. Pre-coding was then conducted by highlighting words and phrases of text which could be 'chunked' according emergent concepts. As it is preferable to initially code the data of participant one only, this strategy was employed. The rationale for doing so is derived from the fact that in coding the second participants' data, issues may arise that cause a reassessment of the coding of the first set of data which may in turn may affect the recoding of the first participants' recoding and the subsequent coding of the remaining participants (p. 22). As such, coding is a cyclical process, with virtually all researcher-developed coding schemes evolving as the analysis progresses (p. 37). To compare data for similarities and

differences, initial coding was employed.

Saldaña (2013 p. 65) makes the point that in terms of coding compatibility, researchers need to ensure that the data forms chosen (in this study, interview transcripts and diaries) lend themselves to the chosen coding methods of which several do. Structural coding is particularly appropriate for studies of multiple participants employing semi-structured data-gathering protocols. Saldaña notes Namey, Guest, Thairu and Johnson's (2008, p. 141) point that in structural coding, question-based codes such as labelling and indexing tools allow ease of access to relevant data (p. 84) which may facilitate the identification of large segments of text into broad topics which are then suitable for in-depth analysis across topics (MacQueen, McLellan-Lemal, Bartholow & Milstein, 2008, p. 125). In this process of open coding, data is broken apart and concepts are delineated into blocks of raw data, while concurrently being qualified in terms of their properties and dimensions (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 195). The rationale for employing open coding in this study is that, in contrast with data-driven coding, it enables the researcher to start with a total absence of codes (Gibbs, 2007). While it is unrealistic to assume that any researcher would have no pre-conceptions about what the data would reveal, the major advantage of open coding is its encouragement to keep an open mind (p. 45). For this reason, open coding was employed.

In addition, more specific forms of coding of this study were additionally utilized due to their appropriateness. Firstly, in process coding, gerunds (words ending in '-ing') are coded. Saldaña (2013, p. 96) cites Corbin and Strauss (2008, p. 102) who note the appropriateness of this form of coding for studies in which participants may search for "ongoing action/interaction/emotion taken in response to situations, or a goal or handling a problem" Given the central tenant of this study was to reflect upon the actions of those seeking to acquire a second language, or not, this form of coding was therefore particularly appropriate. Secondly, emotion coding allows for the recording of participants' worldviews and life conditions (Saldaña, 2013, p. 106). In much the same way, values coding is "particularly appropriate ... [to qualitative studies] exploring cultural values, identity, intrapersonal and interpersonal participant experiences and actions in case studies ... (p. 111). Finally, given the nature of participants' differing responses to attempts to learn Korean either informally, or formally, evaluation coding was employed. Saldaña, (2013, p. 119) draws on Patton (2002, p. 10) who defines programme evaluation as "the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics, and outcomes of programme effectiveness and/or inform decisions about future programming".

Drawing on aspects of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2005, 2006), the three-step coding

process of open, axial and selective coding was utilized (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). This largely because of its perceived wide use and practical application (Gibbs, 2007, p. 49). The grounded coding that led to the adoption of the theoretical lenses of the five constituent papers was an essential step in their formation, however was not able to be included in each individual paper due to the space requirements of writing articles for publication. Therefore, this process, as it was employed in this study, is outlined below in table 1.

As has been seen, in the first stage, open coding, data was read reflectively to identify which categories were relevant (p. 50). As coding progresses, the opportunity to organize and reorganize emergent codes into major categories and sub-categories becomes possible (Saldaña, 2013, p. 25). For First Stage Open Coding, while there is no strict number to adhere to, Saldaña (2013) recommends that the final number of major themes or categories should be kept to a minimum to keep the analysis coherent (p. 24). This advice was followed as strictly as possible, without compromising the inclusion any perceived essential category. The number of participants to which each sub-category is listed noted, with the first listed sub-category code entry being recorded by most participants and then decreasing to the least before the next category heading is listed.

*Table 1: First stage open coding*

<b>First Stage Open Coding</b>		
<b>Category heading</b>	<b>Sub-category headings</b>	<b>Participants who sub-category applies to (1 = participant 1)</b>
<b>Communication - need in daily life</b>	Survival in daily life	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
	Survival need – do need	1 2 3 4 6 7 10 11 13 14
	Survival - don't need	1 3 4 6 8 9 10 11 13 14
	Communication with students	1 4 5 7 8 11 12 13 14
	Getting around	1 2 3 4 7 10 13
	Usefulness in job (or not)	8 9 10 12 13
	Not to speak Korean to students/Korea staff	1 4 8 10 13

	Survival - don't want to need	9
<b>Relationship (with individuals)</b>	Friendship with Koreans	2 7 9 11 12 13 14
	Partner more motivated to learn English	3 5 8 10 12 13
	With Korean family	3 4 5 7 10 13
	Total immersion experience e.g. church/only Korean speakers	7 8 9 10 11
	Support from partner (or not)	4 5 8 13
	Koreans prefer dealing with Korean speaking partner	1 3 5 13
	Dependence on/ Support (from Korean speakers)	10 13 14
	Rely on Korean partner	4 10
	With Korean roommate/friend	7 10
	If with Korean (but not)	9 10
	Rely on western partner who can speak Korean	14
	Koreans prefer dealing with Korean speaking roommate	7
<b>Relationship (with Korea)</b>	With Korean society	1 7 10
	Uncertainty about time in South Korea	1 6 8 10 12 13
	Contractual obligation (Job)	8 9 10 11
	Certainty about time in Korea	7
<b>Goals</b>	As an issue	2 7 8 9 11 12 13 14
	Personality and goals	1 2 3 4 6 8 9 10 12 13 14
	Short-term goals	1 2 3 4 6 9 10 13 14
	Long-term/future goals	1 2 3 4 5 6 8 9 10 11 13 14
	Priority ranking of goals	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 13 14

	Finances/saving money	1 2 3 6 9 10 12 13
	Ethical goals	2
<b>Reasons for wanting to learn Korean</b>	Employment	2 3 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
	Benefits	3
	Independence	7
	Respect	7
	Pleasure/hobby/interest	5 7 10 11 12 13
	Incentive/reward	4 6 7 8 10 13
	Dating	5 9 13
	Fulfilment	1 6 2 13
	Expectation /pressure from westerners and Koreans to speak Korean	4 8 13
	Opportunity	14
	Fluency	14
	Translation	7
	Korean Proficiency Test	4 7
	As a result of learning Korean - Thought processes (in Korean by westerner)	7
	As a result of learning Korean - Ability to speak English (decreasing)	7
	Paranoia	6

<b>Obstacles to expectation of success</b>	Importance of learning Korean language (or not)	8 9 10 11 12 13 14
	Different language structure	2 3 5 6 7 10 13
	Koreans not expecting a westerner to be using Korean Language	2 3 5 6 7 12 13 14
	Lack of opportunities to use Korean	10 12 13
	Not being part of Korean society (marriage/family/access Korean culture websites/friendship etc.)	10 12 13
	Cultural mores of Koreans	5 9 13
	Importance of learning Korean when compared to other L2s	1 8 13
	One year contracts (as barrier to learning Korean)	10 13
	Dialects/accents	7 14
	Lack of attraction/connection to Korean language/culture	5 9 13
	Narrow group of target language speakers	1 5
	Dislike of sound of Korean	9
	Being able to read but not understand what you are reading	12
	Other westerners negative feedback re pointlessness of learning Korean	14



<b>Participants' perceptions of Korean speakers</b>	Experiences	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 12 13 14
	Expectations	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 9 10 12 13 14
	Accommodation	3 4 5 6 7 8 10 11 12 13 14
	Attitudes	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 9 10 12 13 14
	Obstacles/pronunciation in daily life	2 3 4 5 6 7 9 11 12 13 14
	To want to communicate in English only	8 9 10 11 12 13 14
	To speak Korean (perfectly)	4 6 7 10 12 13
	To the use of Korean language	4 6 7 9 10 13
	Tolerance of ambiguity	3 4 6 7 9 10
	Learning/teaching style	10 12 13 14
	Self-confidence	4 6 7 13
<b>Issues affecting self-efficacy</b>	Expectation of success/failure	1 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
	Obligation	1 5 6 7 9 10 11 12 13 14
	Enjoyment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 10 11 12 14
	Time	2 3 6 7 8 9 10 12 13 14
	Commitment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 10 12 13
	Choice	1 5 6 7 9 10 11 12
	Self-discipline/determination	2 3 6 7 12 13 14
	Disinterest	8 9 10 13 14

	Excitement/ adventure	1 2 5 6 7 10
	Interest	9 10 12 14
	Ebbs and flows of motivation to learn	3 6 7 8 14
	Disincentive	3 8 9 10 13
	Continuity in learning	3 4 5 12
	Problem solving/study	7 10 13
	Relaxation versus burden/chore	1 5 13
	Challenge	2 6 7
	Confidence	6
	Shame/guilt	10 12
	Burden	7 9
	Defeat/give up	14
	Effort	14
	Testing	7
	Passion	1
<b>L2 language learning beliefs</b>	Self-concept and language	1 2 3 4 5 6 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
	Prior experiences with learning/ using languages	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14

	Reason for learning another language	5 7 10 11 12 13 14
	Reason for not learning another language	7 8 9 10 11 13 14
	Age – as de-motivator to learn Korean	1 3 4 5 8 9
	Age – benefits of maturity	6 9 12 14
	Age – need to have teacher of similar age/gender as limiting factor	1 3 4
	Age – benefits of youth	8
	Ability to conquer learning a foreign language	3 6 9 12 14
	Environment (conducive to learning a language)	4 9 12 13
	Disability/hearing impairment	8
<b>Learning - Systematic</b>	Formal learning approach	1 2 3 6 10 12 13
	Resources/ textbooks	1 2 4 6 7 9 10 12 13
	Issues with teacher/teaching style	8 10 12 13 14
	Level of students in Korean class (too broad)	2 5 6 7 14
	Time issues (of classes)	2 6 10 12
	Cost (of classes)	2 6 12
	Total immersion course	10
	Difficulty finding teacher	4
	Testing	7
	Age as barrier to learning in classroom environment	8
<b>Learning - Unsystematic</b>	Informal learning approach	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 13 14



- |   |
|---|
| 4) Reasons for wanting to learn Korean<br>5) Obstacles to expectation of success<br>6) Participants' perceptions of Korean speakers<br>7) Issues affecting self-efficacy<br>8) L2 language learning beliefs<br>9) Learning - formal<br>- informal |
|---|

*Table 2: First stage resulting category codes*

In the second stage, axial coding, categories are refined, developed and related to each other, or interconnected and in the third stage, selective coding, the 'core', or central category is selected to which all the other categories are identified by and related to (Gibbs, 2007, p. 50). Or, as Saldaña (2013) notes: "The analytic goals are to winnow down the number of themes to explore in a report, and to develop an over-arching theme from the data corpus, or an integrative theme that weaves the various themes into a coherent narrative" (p. 176). Linking the resulting five themes of context, casual conditions, strategies, consequences and intervening conditions were to the core category of beliefs completed the coding process. This is represented diagrammatically in figure one in chapter two on page 53.

### **1.8 Outline of the thesis**

This thesis is presented in the 'thesis by publication' format which has been approved by the Macquarie University Higher Degree Research Office and provides an alternative to the traditional thesis presentation. This thesis comprises seven chapters, five of which are articles that have either been published in, accepted for such publication, or will be submitted to peer-reviewed academic journals (Chapters Two to Six). Each article that has been published, or will be submitted to such a journal is included with the formatting style required by that particular journal. This applies to the already-published article (Chapter Two) and accepted article (Chapter Three). While each paper has been written as a stand-alone piece of work for publication independently of the others, the theme of each paper is aligned with the overall research aims which are outlined in the introduction. Therefore, each article chapter is linked by a short bridging section. These explain how each paper links to the previous paper and how it is related to the research questions. The introductory chapter sets the scene of the overall thesis, introduces the participants and explains the rationale for the chosen methodology. Chapters two to six present results of this study. Chapters two examines the

degree to which participants responded to any perceived need to identity with and therefore invest in Korean. Chapter three then explores issues that arose in response and are examined longitudinally in the form of a single case study. Following this, chapter four investigates whether the concept of integrativeness is relevant in scenarios in which participants do have a defined L2 and L2 community to integrate with and the degree to which participants respond by way of an L2 vision. This is then followed by chapter five, by a study of the factors and events that demotivated participants in terms of their motivation to learn Korean. Finally, in chapter six, participants' experiences are examined in terms of their place in a world which has radically transformed itself due to globalization and is set to continue to do so. It outlines the potential challenges that individuals that this study represents may well be faced in the imminent future. As each constituent article chapter has its own literature review in relation to the different, relevant aspects of the appropriate theoretical lens, a comprehensive literature review is not presented at the outset to avoid repetition. Chapter seven is the conclusion which provides a synthesis of the findings of this thesis.

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## **Chapter 2. “I’m never going to be part of it”: Identity, Investment and Learning Korean**

### **2.1 Abstract**

This study investigated the willingness of 14 English-speaking EFL instructors living and working in South Korea to invest in practices connected with learning and using the Korean language. A model of investment for the ‘new world order’ (Darvin and Norton 2015) was used as a theoretical lens through which to analyze the interview data to explore how attempts to negotiate membership into local communities of practice affected participants’ investment in Korean, as well as the ways in which participants interpreted and reacted to perceived inequities of power between themselves and these communities of practice. This study found that the ways in which participants perceived that they were positioned as native English speakers tended to work against sustained investment in Korean language learning, as potential returns in terms of valued forms of capital seemed very limited. For the vast majority of participants entry into local communities of practice did not occur, but where a sense of belonging was evident, investment in the language was seen as a key to enabling deeper levels of engagement.

**Keywords:** identity; investment; communities of practice; power; motivation; language learning

### **2.2 Introduction**

For an adult, learning a second language (L2) while living in a host nation is a process that requires sustained effort over time. The majority of studies that have examined language learning from this perspective have focused on learners of English; however, in a globalized world, people from English-speaking nations increasingly travel for work to nations where English is not the language of daily life. For some, the initial motivating force for relocation may be the ability to gain employment, and language teaching opportunities in particular keep many English-speaking travelers employed when overseas. Blommaert (2010) makes the point that greater employment and entrepreneurial opportunities await speakers of the international lingua franca who are in possession of transferable skills and have the motivation to take advantage of this new landscape. For such participants, the globalization experience could well be epitomized by a willingness to travel abroad for study and work, and

a readiness to interact with local cultures, to understand international affairs and exhibit a non-ethnocentric attitude, which Yashima (2000, 57) refers to as ‘international posture’.

The South Korean experience of ‘English fever’ (Park 2009, 20) is ‘probably unparalleled elsewhere’ (Song 2012, 14). However, no research has examined how globalization and its resulting increased inequities in relationships of power have impacted on the motivation of expatriate English language instructors learn the Korean language, and to invest in the language and literacy practices of the broader community in which they are living. This qualitative study fills this gap in the literature by focusing on the three elements that comprise the model of investment for the new world order: ideology, capital and identity (Darvin and Norton 2015).

## **2.3 Theoretical Framework and Literature Review**

### ***2.3.1 Historical impetus for a theory of identity and investment***

In summarizing her research into adult immigrant women learning English in Canada in the 1990s (see Norton-Pierce 1995, Norton 1997, 2001), Norton (2013, 6) makes the point that even with high levels of motivation, satisfactory L2 acquisition was not evident. This made her question pervading second language acquisition motivation theory which conceived of the language learner as an individual with a unified, coherent identity (157). Norton-Pierce (1995, 12) posited that a comprehensive theory of social identity had neither adequately integrated the language learner and the multiple contexts in which these sometimes marginalized learners were attempting to learn the L2, nor explored how socially constructed inequitable relations of power limit opportunities for second language learners to practice the target language (2013, 159), factors that impact on motivation. Identity in this context is viewed as a ‘lived experience’ by Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott and Brown (2013, 19) who note that in post-structuralism, identities are seen as socially constructed and constrained, individual, dynamic, multiple and complex. They add that second language research on identity should target how learning a language changes a person, noting that while skills and knowledge acquisition are important, they are starting point of identity development in second language learning, not the end goal.

To complement the psychological construct of motivation in SLA, Norton developed the sociological construct of *investment*, which signals the complex relationship that exists between a language learner’s identity and their language-learning motivation, arguing that



even a highly-motivated language learner may have little investment in his or her target language community or the practices in a given language classroom. Therefore, every experience in which an L2 learner attempts to use the target language is an act of negotiation and construction of identity. The construct of investment draws on Bourdieu (1977) to show that learners ‘invest’ in a target language in the belief they will acquire symbolic resources, including language, education and friendship. Material resources, including money and assets, will increase cultural capital and therefore social power.

Norton (2013, 6) differentiates clearly between investment, which should be viewed sociologically (as it attempts to connect a learner’s desire and commitment to learn a language with identity formation) and motivation, which is largely psychological in its construction (Dörnyei 2001, Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011). Norton sees an integral relationship between language learning identity and commitment to learning an L2. If learners invest in learning another language, they will be hoping, and even expecting, a solid return on their investment – one that will allow them access to ‘hitherto unattainable resources’ (Norton 2013, 50) in the form of social and economic benefits to improve identities that can be claimed in a particular desired community of the target language speakers (Norton 2014, 69). Without motivation, there would be no attempt made to invest in learning an L2. In this sense, motivation is therefore the impetus behind behavior (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). “The word motivation derives from the Latin verb *movere* meaning ‘to move’”. Motivation is the catalyst or response to situations requiring action to achieve a desired result. It explains “What moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, to expend effort and persist in action” (3). Motivation, therefore, can be seen as a necessary, but not sufficient, pre-condition for investment to occur. An individual may be motivated to learn a language but still reluctant to invest in particular language or literacy practices. Without any form of motivation, however, a willingness to invest and engage will almost certainly be absent.

### ***2.3.2 The struggle for participation***

To validate her findings, Norton (2013) draws on the work of Bremer, Broader, Roberts, Simonot and Vasseur (1993) who point out that understanding is an active skill which is ‘co-constructed by learners and target language speakers’ (153). Consequently, language learning benefits if both parties participate in negotiation of meaning. Becoming a member of a community, therefore, requires opportunities for practice. These can be constrained or

facilitated by the social arrangements of that community (Lave and Wenger 1991, 100-101). In addition, audibility, or having the correct accent, social and cultural capital may legitimize ‘being heard’ (Block 2009, 49). Block goes on to make the point that other non-linguistic features, including the hosts’ perceptions of an individual, such as accent, dress, expressions, semiotic and other forms of behaviors, even what constitutes beauty by local standards, may also act as barriers to inclusion. Benson et al. (2013, 40) point out that race or gender may act as barriers to inclusion and may see L2 learners relegated to outsider status

Finally, if the context is welcoming, the expectant participant will gain entry through participation on the periphery to a community of practice. The term community of practice describes “a set of relations among persons, activity, and the world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98). “It is this shared practice that differentiates the community of practice from other communities. A community of practice consists of members that share more than simply an interest; a community of practice shares expertise, competence learning, activities, discussions, information, tools, stories, experienced and a knowledge base. ... it also creates, organizes, revises and passes on knowledge among members of the members of the community” (Seaman, 2008, 270-271). Block (2009) adds that if an individual is not ‘deemed legitimate’, he or she may also choose non-participation as a form of resistance, which may originate internally or from a perceived external interpretation (31). In the classroom, resistance may be caused by racist, sexist, homophobic, or elitist practices, or from a void between what a learner might presume to be ‘good teaching’ practice and what the teacher deems appropriate (Norton 2014, 70). The rules defining what is considered acceptable language use, therefore, need to be understood in wider terms of inequitable relationships of power between s (Norton 2013, 55); however, in an increasingly globalized world defining who the s with the power are, and what factors affect the relationship, may be increasingly complex.

### ***2.3.3 A new model of identity of investment for a changing world***

Since Norton first reported the findings of immigrant women’s experiences in Canada, globalization has transformed the language landscape, ushering in a more ‘fluid’ neo-liberal, free-market environment, accompanied by the increasing demand to learn English – the international lingua franca – in order to use it to participate the in the globalized community. In response to the demands of this new world order, in part spurred by increased mobility,

Darvin and Norton (2015) updated Norton's original model of identity and investment to incorporate this new landscape, which has become increasingly deterritorialized and unbounded and where patterns of control are becoming increasingly invisible. This model situates investment at the intersection of identity, ideology and capital. Darvin and Norton (2015, 41) add that the individualization of labor and shifts in the global balances of economic power have increased inequities of power and led to changes in the value accorded to particular languages, thereby transforming language ideologies which shape policy and influence the dynamics of multilingual encounters. Such a model can be applied to tackle questions relating to *why* second language learners can be ambivalent about both learning and using their L2 with the target language community. Ambivalence here is the tension between feeling 'a part' of something and 'feeling apart' (Block 2009, 26) and an 'attempt to resolve' the underlying conflicts (2009, 27), given that L2 learners must be able to communicate to learn. However, learners may find that participation is not open to them until they have learnt how to communicate in the target language

Native English speakers have at times interpreted this new globalized landscape as a form of entitlement, which is in turn reflected in attitudes of linguistic complacency (Crystal, 2003, 150). However, there is a gap in the literature on studies investigating what factors determine why and how native English speakers may seek to invest in the language practices of communities in which they find themselves, and expanding aspects of their identity in the process.

#### **2.3.4 Research questions**

How and why this may take place in a globalized landscape is what this study sought to address by asking the following questions:

- 1) To what degree were participants invested in Korean language learning and language use practices, and why?
- 2) How did attempts to negotiate membership into communities of practice affect participants' investment in Korean?
- 3) How did participants interpret and react to perceived inequities of power between themselves and communities of practice in their host nation?

## 2.4 Methodology

### 2.4.1 Participants

Participants were recruited from several university language centres in South Korea. All participants regarded themselves as first language speakers of English, and were employed as English language instructors. Table 3 outlines each participant's details, including their ethnicity, gender, age, qualifications, and the amount of work experience in South Korea.

<i>Participant (psedonym)</i>	<i>Ethnicity</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Qualifications (Highest degree obtained)</i>	<i>Number of years of work experience in South Korea</i>
John	South Africa	26	BA (Human Resource Management)	2
James	England	28	BA (English Literature)	2
Richard	United States	49	MA in TESOL	15
Andy	New Zealand	34	Bachelor of Hospitality Management	4
Barry	United States	34	BA (Broadcasting)	10
Patricia	United States	29	BA (Anthropology)	4
Sharon	United States	32	MBA	10
Robert	New Zealand	64	MA (Education)	11
Angela	United States	57	MA (Creative Writing)	9
Duncan	England	39	MA (English Language Teaching)	6
Paul	Australia	28	MA in TESOL	5
James	Canada	40	BA (English Literature)	11
David	Canada	49	BA (Psychology)	10
Vernon	Canada	46	BA (Computer Science)	6

*Table 3: Participant details*

### **2.4.2 Procedures**

This study is part of a larger qualitative investigation which draws on narrative data from in-depth semi-structured interviews with fourteen participants. This particular study examines the themes to emerge from these interviews through the lens of identity and investment theory (Darvin and Norton 2015).

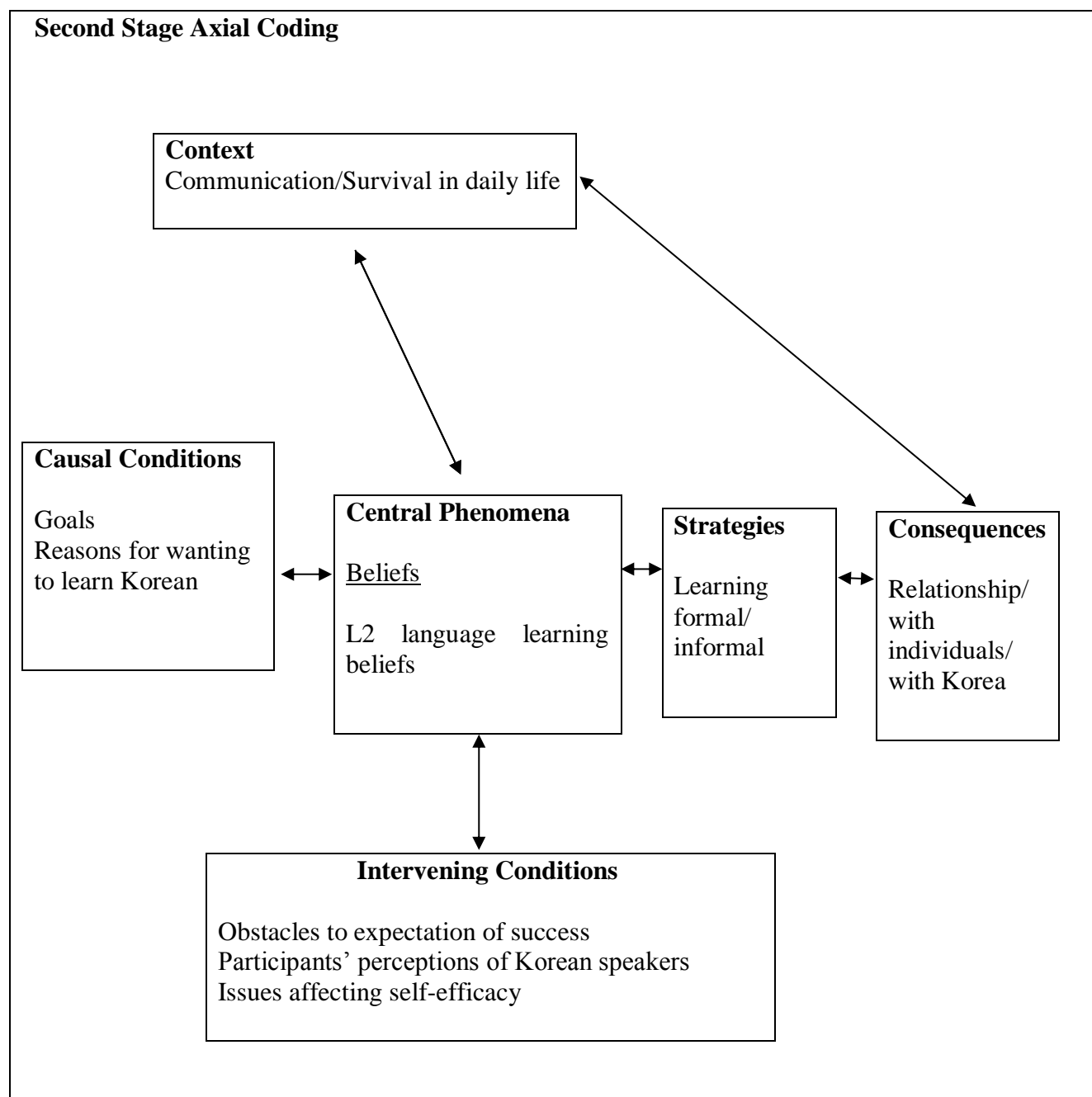
Typically, the qualitative interview is designed to elicit descriptions of the lived world of the interviewee to obtain an interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena (Kvale 1996, 5-6). Dörnyei (2007, 136) makes the point that in cases when the researcher had a good enough overview of the phenomenon to be analyzed, the semi-structured interview would be ideal. Because the first author had lived in Korea for almost seven years at the time of the interviews, he had a shared profile with the participants, being of English-speaking background, living in Korea, and working at a university English-language centre. The second author had worked as a language teacher in Japan, and also had years of experience as an academic in applied linguistics engaging with language teachers working in many parts of the world. Years of anecdotal evidence, based on observation, listening and questioning thus informed the framing of the interview questions (available upon request from the first author). At the same time, interviews were conducted while being aware of the need to give them as much space as they required to expand upon these without the interviewer having pre-supposed participants' thinking and therefore answers.

The semi-structured, in-depth interviews were all of a face-to face nature and took place at a venue of each participant's choice. A rigid question order was not imposed, and different questions evoked different levels of response from interviewees, depending upon their individual experiences. Each interview was audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

### **2.4.3 Analysis**

As noted above, Darvin and Norton's (2015) model of investment formed the theoretical lens through which the data was examined for the purposes of this paper. Before applying this theory, line-by-line coding of the interview data was undertaken, enabling the researchers to gain insight into the implicit and explicit struggles of participants. From further coding it was possible to extract sub-category headings, which were grouped then re-grouped under broad

category headings. These categories were grouped together thematically into nine initial ‘meaning units’ (Ratner, 2002). A flow chart (Figure 1) depicts the final stage of the process, in which the nine meaning units were placed under five major headings.



*Figure 1: Second stage axial coding of participant interview data*

One of the most commonly used approaches to coding is grounded theory (Gibbs, 2007). “Its central focus is on inductively generating new ideas or hypotheses from the data as opposed to testing theories beforehand. Insofar as these new theories ‘arise’ out of the data and are supported by the data, they are said to be grounded” (49). In the final stages of the analysis,

the new ideas that have been generated can be related to existing theory. Strauss and Corbin (1990) divide coding into three stages when attempting to achieve a grounded analysis. These include open coding, where the text is read to identify relevant categories, axial coding where categories are refined and linked, and selective coding. This is where the ‘core’ or central category, that ties all others together into a narrative, is identified and linked to all the others.

Aspects of grounded theory were used in the analysis to identify a single theme that united the themes of participants from their coded interviews. In the second stage of this process, axial coding was employed to explore the relationships and connections between the categories and the selection of codes that represent and highlight the core issues or themes in the data are drawn (Gibbs, 2007, 147). The concepts of ideology, identity and capital (from Darwin and Norton, 2015) were ‘mapped onto’ the coding grid by identifying which of these three categories most related to the categories that emerged from the coding process. The central theme encompasses all three themes of ideology, identity and capital as do the emergent themes of context and causal conditions. Identity and investment correlates to intervening conditions, with investment correlating with strategies and identity with consequences. The biggest challenge in this process was establishing one central phenomenon that would encompass participants’ motivational psychological beliefs regarding language learning in general, i.e. the challenges of learning a language, and in terms of learning an L2 in addition to the sociological aspect of investing in a Korean identity when placed in a globalized context, i.e. how useful this would be. This made placement of the nine first-stage axial coding categories into the five second-stage categories plus central phenomenon, problematic. ‘Obstacles to expectation of success’ and ‘issues affecting self-efficacy’, for example, could arguably be seen as motivational/ psychological constructs if regarded generically, or sociological constructs regarding participants’ Korean experiences of negotiating contested sites of unequal power relations. This necessitated the central phenomenon being suitably generic and the final five category headings incorporating linked to the broader constructs of both ‘motivation’ and ‘investment’.

## **2.5 Findings and Discussion**

The model of investment set out by Darwin and Norton (2015) and comprising the elements of ideology, capital and identity, provides the theoretical focus for the analysis of findings,

which revealed – with two notable exceptions – a lack of ability on the part of participants to negotiate peripheral communities of practice in the face of perceived inequitable relations of power.

### ***2.5.1 Ideology***

Ideologies privilege and marginalize people, ideas and relationships by enforcing dominant ways of thought. The most common essentialist view of culture is that ‘cultures’ contain “mutually exclusive types of behaviour” (Holliday, 2005, 17). This becomes problematic when people’s behavior is defined and constrained by the culture in which they live, with agency being transferred from the individual to the culture itself (18) to the point where the ‘unproblematic self’ is pitted against the ‘culturally problematic other’. In a globalized world, this has powerful implications for issues relating to structure and agency where reproduction of the dominant culture is sustained through coercion and consent, while simultaneously empowering the notion of investment with greater agency and capacity for resistance (Darvin and Norton 2015, 44).

#### ***2.5.1.1 Lack of accommodation in contested sites of struggle***

A perceived lack of accommodation by Koreans that they encountered in daily life was the single-most referred to theme that arose in the interviews with participants. In such contested sites, Blommaert (2005, 205-206) differentiates between self-determined or ‘inhabited’ identity that is ‘ascribed’ by another party. Edwards (2009) notes that the very validity of the superiority of the traditional ‘insider’ group and the ‘tenuous nature’ of its cultural continuity can be threatened from the outside, particularly if members of the latter could be considered to have social dominance (40). Globalization, therefore, with its cultural leveling, may act as a very real threat to acceptance and strengthen nationalistic local bonds (178).

Many of the participants appeared to feel that members of the local community were either unable or unwilling to accommodate participants’ non-standard patterns of Korean pronunciation. Even one of the most proficient Korean speakers, James, noted he was frequently not understood when speaking the language, something he attributed to his ‘strange pronunciation’. Another participant, Barry, attributed this phenomenon to ‘people choosing not to understand’. His impression was that, at times, ‘people don’t realize you are speaking Korean,’ while at other times a parochial attitude to accents was at play: ‘... Koreans make fun



of each other for their poor Korean, more so than English speakers ...'. Referring to his own experience, he commented:

..... people tell me I speak this kind of *Hangul* from this area ... [name of region] Korean tends to be very similar to Seoul Korean, even though people in Seoul will never admit that, and will pretend ... to not understand people, although there's nothing different. They have ... prejudice, in their minds: "I can't understand these people". Rather than listening and saying: "Oh, they're saying exactly the same thing"... it's a ... a speech prejudice

Another participant, John, added: '... if you don't say it one hundred per cent correctly, you would not be understood', although he attributed this to a lack of exposure and experience with foreigner speaking Koreans, rather than to an unwillingness to accommodate. In a similar vein, Richard noted that the comparatively short history of foreigners coming to work in Korea often meant that some Koreans have 'never actually heard ... an English-speaking person trying to speak Korean' and therefore '...anything, in pronunciation, no matter what ... how small it is, could actually throw them off very quickly'.

As noted above, some participants believed (rightly or wrongly) that this lack of accommodation was seemingly sometimes done with intent, where a parochial ideology with respect to ways of speaking (including accent) is evident. Block (2009, 49) makes the point that 'audibility' (which includes having the right accent) combined with the appropriate social and cultural capital are both required for acceptance into a community of practice. This supports research by Lave and Wenger (1991), who found that by viewing the relationship between learning and the situation it took place anthropologically, success, or otherwise, of the language learner became the central theme. Through a process they describe as *legitimate peripheral participation*, participants aiming to enter a community of practice attempt to interact with established members to become increasingly experienced in the practices of that community. However, this is 'always problematic' as becoming a full member of a community of practice entails access to a wide range of ongoing activities, members, information, resources and 'opportunities for participation' (Lave and Wenger 1991, 100-101). As Norton (2013, 121) observes, even achieving access can be a struggle.

### *2.5.1.2 Culture as a contested site*

Many participants (although not all) participants focused on perceived negative aspects of Korean culture. Barry, for example, was representative of participants who expressed no real interest in local popular culture, citing a dislike of Korean television, pop music and the majority of recent Korean films. Angela saw a direct link between a lack of affinity with the local culture and her resistance to learning Korean, pointing out that: ‘...the culture seems ... different from my own and I’m attracted more to European culture’. Her experiences had led her to believe that there was ‘this lack of connection ... between that thinking ... and what I’m thinking ... on some level ... I have felt that they don’t want to really connect very closely ...’. This lack of affinity was another factor that appeared to limit some participants’ willingness to invest in language learning, as using the language to engage more deeply with the culture was not attractive to them. This was an area in which participants were at liberty to exercise agency to resist investment, which some chose to do.

### *2.5.2 Capital*

Darvin and Norton (2015, 44) use Bourdieu’s (1986) understanding of capital equaling power, which extends from the material to the cultural and social. Material capital refers to economic wealth and income. Cultural capital is knowledge and educational credentials, while social capital is accorded to connections to networks of power. If capital is deemed ‘legitimate’ it is referred to as symbolic capital and itself becomes ‘fluid’ making investment in it pertinent to a study of the new world order in which contexts are transnational. Ideological structures determine each form of capital, which are constantly negotiated and their conversion (if possible) is always a site of struggle as what may be valued on one context may not be in another.

This was a central issue for participants, who questioned the returns (in the form of capital accumulation) that would come with investment in the Korean language. Blommaert (2010) makes the point that greater employment and entrepreneurial opportunities await speakers of the international lingua franca who are in possession of transferable skills and have the motivation to take advantage of this new landscape. However, the majority of participants had travelled to Korea for what they initially believed would be one-year, contractual, employment in a designated role. Given that there was no guarantee of any permanent relationship with Korea and perceptions that Korean had little transferable capital value

outside the country, the majority of participants expressed a reluctance to invest in language learning practices.

#### *2.5.2.1 Competing goals*

For most participants, learning Korean was not a goal that they associated with the accumulation of valued forms of capital, particularly when examined alongside other goals connected to their present and future lives. In this respect, Andy's attitude to investment was related to his role as a husband and father, and decisions about time devoted to learning Korean had to be seen in the context of the material capital associated with other endeavours:

... if work needed me, or if doing a Master's would earn more money for the family, then that would take priority over learning Korean, because I'm not earning any money learning Korean

A view shared by Paul, Duncan and Angela was that gaining higher qualifications would be a better investment, as relevant qualifications would improve their resumes by making them more attractive to a greater number of potential employers within Korea. Should they decide to leave Korea, these qualifications would also be transferable and improve employment prospects in other parts of the world. Only Andy and Vernon saw potential tangible benefits of Korean language learning if they were to leave Korea, with both expressing a desire to open businesses associated with hospitality/tourism and homestay/education targeting the Korean market upon return to their home countries.

#### *2.5.2.2 Relationship with Korea*

All participants in the majority group (i.e. with the exception of Sharon and James) noted the temporary nature of their relationship with Korea. No participant went to Korea intending to establish a better, permanent lifestyle there, at least initially. This had a significant bearing on their willingness, or not, to invest in acquiring symbolic capital in the form of Korean language skills. Benson et al. (2013, 40) make the point that in a globalized world, migration no longer need imply permanent relocation, a point echoed by Duncan who was constantly aware that: '... next year we may be away ... why put in the effort to learn a language when we might not need it by the time we have mastered enough to use it?'. Participants in this majority group often linked their limited willingness to invest in Korean language learning with the limited time that they would spend in the country, which corresponds to the

poststructuralist notion of how people understand their possibilities for the future (Norton 1997, 410) and directly supports the idea that learners' future aims will have a significant impact on their level of investment (Ryan and Irie 2014). Interestingly, the security of her tenured position helped facilitate Sharon's decision in the mid-1990s to stay in Korea permanently due to the financial downturn in the United States and for James, the fact that he had been able to gain a career and a position at a reputable university contributed to a sense of permanence that was less evident for other participants.

John was typical of those who had not made a long-term commitment to Korea.

I can't use Korean outside Korea ... I started learning after six months ... then stopped after ... one year ... because I don't know how long I want to be here ... I am over that stage of wanting to meet new people

He justified his reluctance to invest in Korean with the comment: '... my focus would just be on saving money. It would not be on communication. I would ... stay isolated'.

#### *2.5.2.3 The workplace as a site of struggle*

Many participants observed that they were not required to, and were sometimes even discouraged from, using Korean in their workplaces. While this could reinforce (where it exists already) a sense of linguistic complacency among native English speakers, it also sends a message that any cultural capital in the form of Korean language proficiency would not necessarily translate into something that was valued by employers in the Korean context – arguably the participants' most important and invisibly contested site of struggle. This is perhaps evidence of the more fluid free-market environment to which Darwin and Norton (2015) refer, characterized by individualization of labor, increasing inequities of power and leading to changes in the value accorded languages (41). In some newly-industrialized nations, such trends can transform language ideologies and the dynamics of multilingual communication to the point where policy enforces the 'outsider' as a threat (Edwards, 2009, 40) and ensures the promotion of 'Global English', which will enhance the economic and cultural capital of insiders.

This impacted on Paul, for example, who placed learning Korean 'pretty low' on his list of goals, making the point: '...unless you have a purpose, you don't really study the language'. Duncan expanded on this theme, noting that it is 'not a job requirement' to know Korean, and

while admitting he had not made a commitment to learning Korean, he made the comparison with Japan where: ‘... teachers were expected to participate in faculty matters, such as course design, whereas in Korea: ‘... you are a native speaker ...’. Others, including Robert, felt that for some of their students, speaking in English was a way of showing ‘respect’ and that they wanted their teachers to help them improve their English skills (and did not expect them to learn Korean). The positioning of participants in their workplace is largely due to the power accorded English, which exerts a much stronger ethno-linguistic vitality than Korean on a global scale. This assured these native English speakers of positions of power and prestige that contrast sharply with those of the immigrants to Canada whom Norton studied, but at the same time worked to undermine the kind of ‘purpose’ for studying the local language to which Paul referred.

While cultural chauvinism dates back to colonialism to describe ‘reciprocal’ narrative interpretations of non-Western cultures (Sarangi 1995, 11), in modern times the situation has arguably been reversed by those same cultures to disempower those deemed to represent cultural and linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 2009, 152) from gaining access beyond the peripheral to become members of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger 1991, 122). Reflecting what he perceived as the sentiments of employers, Duncan said: ‘We need native speakers ... fill that need ... for us. But you are going to do the program how we tell you. We don’t ... want ... that back and forth.’ He continued, ‘because they [employers] have done that, a lot of teachers ... don’t feel they need to learn Korean, so they don’t get to understand ... Korean culture ...’ If such perceptions are true, it suggests that at least some teachers accept the roles ascribed to them, which in turn provides little drive to invest in the local language.

### **2.5.3 Identity**

Darvin and Norton (2015, 45) seek to expand on Norton’s (2013, 164) definition of identity as multiple, contradictory and a site of continually changing struggle to further categorize identity as a struggle of habitus and desire defined by competing ideologies. Hemmi (2014, 77) defines identity as the way in which individuals position themselves in society, relative to others, and their association with others through interactions, whereas habitus configures individuals as knowing their ‘rightful’ place in society and predisposes them to behave in ways that correspond with prevailing ideologies. Desire also compels individuals to act and exercise their agency by investing in a goal they wish to achieve.

In a postmodern world, individuals can be expected to have multiple identities (Hemmi 2014, 66). Identity is temporal in that it is related to or limited by time and because it is socially constructed, complex and non-linear (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron 2008, 31). From the perspective of sociocultural theory (see Vygotsky 1978, 1986), cultural beliefs and interactions with other people influence an individual's perceptions and development (Hemmi 2014, 77), with Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000, 155) seeing language learning as invariably a struggle for participation in 'another culture'. Because identity development is ongoing and evolving, identity, learning, knowing and social membership of peripheral communities of practice are intertwined (Lave and Wenger 1991, 53). Apprentice learners know there is a field for the mature practice of what they are attempting to master and while this may entail intrinsic rewards, the deeper value of participation lies in the *becoming* part of that community (110-112).

A sense of becoming part of communities in their host nation was not part of the lived experience of a number of participants, including Andy, Patricia, Robert, Angela, Duncan and David. Rather, their stories conveyed a sense of 'feeling apart' (Block 2009, 27), arguing that they had been recruited to work in a field that helped to reinforce their status as outsiders, pigeon-holed into a role dictated by their work and enforced by a belief that Korean society was hierarchical and conservative with a group-oriented psychology as an obstacle to building relationships. David, for instance, commented on the importance placed on traditional friendship structures based around school and army experiences, and found this to be limiting in terms of forming solid relationships with Koreans outside his work environment. Vernon pointed out that as an 'older fellow' he was expected to 'hang out' with males of a similar age, something he found limiting as they tended to work long hours and were only available at the end of the day when they were tired.

When they did interact with local Korean speakers, participants pointed to a number of factors that meant these interactions generally took place in English. Some noted that Korean colleagues sought to practice their English when communicating with them outside work, which Duncan commented 'did not give you the opportunity to use your Korean'. Patricia spoke of her Korean friends not being able to understand her Korean despite 'trying so hard' and encouraging her to revert back to English, which they could more easily follow. Robert's Korean partner was learning English and was at times more interested in 'keeping up her English than teaching me Korean'.

### *2.5.3.1 Survival versus engagement*

All participants reported that they initially had some level of interest in learning Korean, but quickly realized that it was possible to live on a day-to-day basis with little or no Korean ability and by relying on the English-speaking ability of Korean professionals or service providers. Interestingly, even participants such as Paul and Duncan, who did not live in major cities, also noted that it was possible to survive without Korean.

Perhaps surprisingly, those participants with Korean-speaking partners (John, Richard, Andy, Barry, Paul and David) did not report a strong need to be able to speak the language. Andy made the point that ‘... there’s no reward in learning Korean ... so when other priorities take over ... it is the first thing I drop’, adding: ‘... I’ve learnt enough to get by ... my wife doesn’t seem to care and I can get by fine in daily life... as it is’. Participants in this group had found that because their Korean partners were able to perform daily life duties so much more quickly, their level of Korean had not progressed, or in Barry’s case, had ‘gone down, because I don’t have to do those things’. Richard made the additional point that Koreans ‘will automatically look towards my wife’. His perception was that ‘they don’t want to put forth any effort ... in trying to understand what the foreigner is trying to say’. Richard summed up the sentiments of a number of participants who commented on the fact that they lived in English-speaking ‘cocoons’:

It all comes down to one factor ... exposure to the language ... I live in an insulated community ... I can go all week ... I can go all month without speaking the language, whatsoever, and get along quite comfortably ... I want to be able to communicate with regular Koreans ... but because I don’t get enough exposure to the language and I’m able to survive without it, I don’t learn it

Non-participation as resistance (Block, 2009) whether subconsciously, or by default, or a combination of both, appeared to result, with some participants functioning almost entirely in English-speaking ‘cocoons.’ With the exception of Sharon, James and (to varying degrees) those in relationships with Koreans, all other participants felt they belonged in this category, believing that theirs was an ascribed role.

### *2.5.3.2 Formal learning experiences*

Participants comprised two groups on learning Korean, the larger group not having committed to any formal program. Those who had committed to formally learning Korean, at some point, included Michael, Patricia, Duncan and James, who was the sole participant to continue with formal classes. Reasons cited for discontinuing their Korean studies included the broad range of students in one level, an emphasis on formal (rather than conversational) Korean, and the pace and difficulty of the classes being ‘overwhelming’ and ‘traditional’. James and Duncan were both highly critical of the strongly teacher-centered and non-communicative approach. James, in particular, strongly disapproved of the Korean language course he studied at a university, citing the use of ‘... grammar translation, slightly modified ...’ at the expense of ‘genuine communication’. He made the point that many students were asleep during the class and that the resources did not relate to ‘contemporary’ Korean culture. James later enrolled at another university to study Korean, but was still critical of the latter choice, albeit to a lesser degree. Duncan ceased taking formal classes altogether after approximately one semester, his main objection being to the ‘lack of consolidation’ and opportunities for communicative practice in favour of ‘... trying to rush through ...’. Norton (2014, 70) makes the point that the construct of investment provides a wider perspective for language teachers to question their practices, including asking such questions as ‘Are the students invested in the language practices of my classroom?’ She points out that while a student may have high motivation, if the language practices of the classroom dissatisfy the learners, they ‘may resist participation’. Alternatively, a void between what is deemed good teaching practice by the students and what the teacher views as ‘good teaching’ may be the issue.

### *2.5.3.3 L2 Korean as an element of a multifaceted identity*

Of all participants, Sharon and James were the only individuals to have invested in learning Korean to the point of being able to communicate effectively. In James’ case, the initial desire to invest in learning the L1 of his potential host nation was generic, rather than specific to Korea. He commented: ‘I thought I would learn the language in that time ... go to another country and learn another language and so on’. However, over time, James’ initial motivation saw him make a stronger commitment to Korea. With no prior teaching experience, he particularly noted the enjoyment and fulfillment that teaching there gave him. He admitted that his arrival in 1995, immediately prior to the boom in English language teaching in Korea, was an event he never anticipated and pure coincidence. As he gained experience as an EFL



instructor he was able to take advantage of the boom and secure employment at a prestigious university and now sees Korea 'as home', where his unchanged goal was '... to learn Korean. I'm here to learn, and then I can beat this stupid language ... it's a personal thing ... there's not a good ... external reason'.

However, he was not confident that his investment in Korean would help him integrate into the society. Recounting an experience of deciding which language to introduce himself to the entirely Korean-speaking department at the university where he worked, he reflected: 'I'm never going to be part of it. I'm always going to be the foreign guy, sitting over there'.

James' motivation to learn Korean being 'ninety nine per cent internal' was reflected in his use of it, saying:

I signed my contract, for my house, in Korean. I talk to the bank people ... in Korean ... went to Asiana ... to get my ticket ... I didn't even know if she could speak English ... I just spoke Korean ... even though I am not part of mainstream Korean, society ..... that's very fulfilling ...

James' reason for learning Korean appeared to be less driven by a desire to enter Korean communities of practice and more by the desire to have proficiency in the language of his current host nation, which had become 'home' over any desire to gain an L2 identity of the corresponding culture, saying: '... I thought, culturally I'd get into it... but I didn't ... and I'm still not into it ... culturally. There are aspects of Korea that I like, aspects that I don't like'.

Arguably Sharon was the only participant to with a level of motivation sufficient to incorporate her second language into her identity to enter communities of practice. Ability to participate and to express identity is influenced by the power hierarchies and discourse within those communities (Lave and Wenger 1991, 122). The structure of the Korean language itself reflects what Blommaert (2010, 38) refers to as 'orders of indexicality', where styles and registers are measured by a value system that reflects the norm in that sociocultural context, as experienced by Sharon:

Korean is not ... it's not an easy language ... as far as the different levels of respect are concerned ... in this situation, you have to say this ... you have to use this verb, in this way ... the honorific form ... is ridiculously hard

Edwards (2009, 55) makes the point that even ‘outsiders’, who have become fluent on a practical level, may find themselves still closed off from selected deeper forms of communication in the same way a ‘closed’ belief system, be it religious or political, builds on in-group solidarity (188). While ‘making good ... Korean friends’ was something that Sharon had been able to do, she admitted: ‘there is only so much we can discuss’. However, her relationship with her Korean-speaking roommate of five years, showed that even in situations of a non-hierarchical nature, she was still denied access to deeper forms of communication: ‘Our whole existence is in Korean. So, that’s really helped me. But ... when we fought ... she would always win, because she can dominate the conversation’.

A self-described independent person, Sharon belonged to a Korean-speaking church and had a strong desire to understand the services.

Everything is spoken, in Korean. I have a translator, now ... a kid ... he has heard these sermons before, so it is easy for him ... but, if there is something different ... he can’t translate it correctly ... people forget that I don’t speak Korean as my first language ... I’m still learning ... taking tests ... it’s doubly hard for me ... I’m trying to keep up ... I don’t want to be locked, in a room, with a translator

Her description of her participation in this community of practice suggested that the church tried very hard to include her, even with limited resources to do so. The fact that she was isolated in a room with someone to interpret for her might look like exclusion to an outsider, but was in fact an inclusive act. While Sharon recognised this, she was clearly aspiring to deeper levels of engagement with the church, and saw ongoing investment in the Korean language as the key to achieving this. Her willingness to invest extended beyond this particular community of practice however, as another comment illustrates:

It’s respectful to live in this society and be able to communicate ... it shows understanding ... there’s so much importance placed on English ... not everyone needs to study English

## **2.6 Conclusion**

The study sought to address the following questions: (1) To what degree were participants invested in Korean language learning and language use practices, and why? (2) How did

attempts to negotiate membership into communities of practice affect participants' investment in Korean? (3) How did participants interpret and react to perceived inequities of power between themselves and communities of practice in their host nation?

In summary, the symbolic capital associated with the participants' native-English speaking status in the Korean context assured them of a level of economic and social security, while at the same time working as a disadvantage in terms of learning Korean. Perceived ideologies and power structures, together with the temporary nature of most participants' relationship with their host nation tended to limit the potential for rewards derived from investment in the language in the form of an L2 identity element or associated symbolic and material capital. In most cases, participants appeared to accept the roles that were ascribed to them, and did not persist with attempts to engage with local communities of practice through sustained investment in Korean language learning practices. James and Sharon were the two exceptional cases, with James finding an investment in the language fulfilling for intrinsic reasons, and Sharon finding Korean the key to enabling the deeper engagement that she desired with individuals and communities.

Given that structure and agency, operating across space and time, may 'accord, or refuse the right to speak' (Darvin and Norton 2015, 36), participants' perceptions of the latter may have some justification. The resulting frustration, to some extent, mirrors that of Murray (2010, 164), who said: 'I knew I was a foreigner. I never tried to assimilate. I just wanted to communicate', noting that it is through language that people let others 'know who we are and how we want to be perceived' (167). The circular paradox that L2 learners must have opportunities to learn, which can only occur if participation is allowed (Norton 2013), is reinforced. However valid the obstacles are to participants, the fact remains that an inability to connect with the target culture can 'seriously damage one's ability to climb beyond the foothills' of a foreign language (Nunan 2010, 183).

This study is the first to examine how issues of ideology, capital and identity impact on the willingness of English-speaking EFL instructors to invest in Korean language learning and use practices in a globalized setting. However, it is important to note its limitations.

Participants are employed in one branch of one industry. The first author, who conducted the interviews, was a native speaker of English and a colleague who therefore shared a profile with participants. While this arguably created an empathetic and conducive atmosphere, it may have influenced the interviews and interviewees themselves. Further studies would

benefit from analysis of a wider cohort's experience (in terms of employment), from differing (including comparative) cultural perspectives, and to be conducted by a researcher with no shared experience with participants in order to either validate this study's findings (Dörnyei 2007, 51) or show it as an example of negative evidence (Gibbs 2007, 141).

This study has implications for the way in which we view limited investment on the part of native English-speaking individuals who live and work in various countries around the world. While a lack of perceived need or a complacent attitude may be part of the picture, other factors also play a role. These include the ways in which proficiency in the local language is valued (or not) as a legitimate form of capital in the host society, and the difficulties negotiating entry to local communities. This study has also shown that a willingness to invest in local language practices appears to evolve with time for some individuals, but not for others. The degree to which this relates to individual life experiences or to deeper issues of individual identity is a question that further research could profitably explore.

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## **Interlude**

Chapter two examined participants' motivation to learn Korean and their experiences of attempting to use it in daily life. By using the theoretical lens of identity and investment (Norton, 2013) it was possible to place participants' perceptions in the wider context of their inter-relationship with their host nation and their interpretations of how that society viewed their attempts to gain a Korean identity and their perceptions of the effects of that on any such investment. Having discussed the factors that may have impacted on the motivation of participants from the more macro perspective, chapter three takes a more micro perspective. Its specific focus is on one participant only. Through the adoption of a longitudinal perspective, this chapter tracks her progress as she begins to self-study Korean by way of an on-line course. The theoretical lens adopted for this chapter was that of the process model of motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). By analysing the inevitable ebbs and flows that accompany second language acquisition, over time, any obstacles and factors that may have demotivated, or even amotivated her, could be examined from the perspective of a suitably deep analysis which the longitudinal case study can provide (Duff, 2008).



## **Chapter 3. Ebbs and Flows: A longitudinal study of an English language instructor's motivation to learn Korean**

### **3.1 Abstract**

Native English-speaking language teachers who live and work in various parts of the world often express a desire to learn the language of their host country. Without sustained levels of motivation, however, their desires are unlikely to be realized. This paper reports the findings of a longitudinal case study of an American English language instructor working at a South Korean university. It examines the factors that impacted on her motivation to learn Korean and explores the ebbs and flows that characterized her motivation over a one-year period. Findings revealed that while the participant did express a desire to learn Korean and formulated learning goals, the action necessary to achieve these goals did not occur. This paper draws on the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009) and the Process Model of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) to provide a dual theoretical perspective on the findings.

**Keywords:** Korean language, motivation, second language learning, identity, L2 self

### **3.2 Introduction**

With the current role of English as a global lingua franca, many native speakers find employment as language teachers (with or without specific training) in parts of the world where the demand for English is high. While moving to a new country often necessitates learning the local language or languages, English speakers (particularly when re-locating to urban centres) can sometimes secure well-paid employment as language instructors and can rely on assistance from members of the host society who are able to communicate in English. As Crystal (2003) notes, the lingua franca status of English can lead in some cases to a complacent and even dismissive stance towards other languages. Where a language teacher does take the decision to learn the language of the host nation, this generally entails a combination of structured language learning (e.g. classroom-based learning, private language lessons, or self-study programs) as well as opportunities for unstructured practice (e.g. “out of class” learning). Observation of both aspects from a full longitudinal perspective (Ortega &

Iberri-Shea, 2005) facilitates an understanding of the causes and effects of the inevitable fluctuations in language learning motivation.

This study was conducted in South Korea and was part of a larger qualitative research project focusing on native English-speaking expatriates living and working as university English language instructors there. Approximately 30,000 native English speakers work as English language teachers in South Korea (Habid, 2014), typically on contracts in elementary, middle and high schools, private language institutes (known as *hagwon*) and universities. Despite some individuals remaining in South Korea for many years, no research appears to have examined the factors that influence their motivation – or in some cases lack of motivation – to learn the language of their host country.

In order to fill this gap in the existing research, one learner of Korean, who had stated a desire to commit to formal learning and had been learning Korean on an *ad hoc* basis for the previous four and a half years since her arrival there, was selected as a participant in a longitudinal case study. The first author conducted a series of 13 interviews for this study over a period of one year.

### **3.3 Theoretical Framework and Literature Review**

Gardner and Lambert's (1959) research on motivation in second language acquisition (SLA) has influenced most subsequent research in the field. Their Socio-educational model (1972) remained the dominant model in SLA motivational research for more than two decades. Their early work, conducted in Canada, proposed that social and cultural factors impact on an L2 learner's experience, suggesting two "orientations" as significant determiners of language learning motivation. Integrative orientation reflected "a willingness or desire to be like representative members of the other language community and to become associated, at least vicariously, with that other community" (p. 14). Instrumental orientation attempted to explain the practical motivational factors for learning another language, such as increased educational or employment opportunities. Motivation (as distinct from the term orientation) was seen as the effort and persistence required to realize one's L2 learning goals (1972).

Over time, the concept of integrativeness became increasingly criticized due to its focus on contact and identification with members of one specific L2 group. Particularly in the case of learners of English, the growing dominance of English as an international language renders less relevant the notion of "integrating" with a clearly defined community of speakers (Ushioda, 2013). Boo, Dörnyei, and Ryan (2015) found that the almost exclusive concern with the learning of English leads to an unintended lack of attention being paid to forms of

language learning other than the learning of English in primarily monolingual settings. The few empirical studies that do analyse the motivation of English speakers to learn other languages are predominantly Euro-centric (see Berardi-Wiltshire, 2009; Ferrari, 2013; Lanvers, 2012, 2013), and Pickett (2010) found that most adults learning European foreign languages do so for intrinsic reasons.

The L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005) involves a re-conceptualization of the notion of “integrativeness” from a self-perspective, and is made up of three different aspects. The first is the Ideal L2 Self, which details the “second language” aspect of an individual’s imagined ideal self. If well-developed and nurtured, the Ideal L2 Self can be a strong motivating force for a person to master an L2, and reduce the gap between one’s present self and the ‘vision’ that the ideal self represents. The second element is the Ought-to L2 Self, which is (in effect) a “feared” possible future self, and embodies the qualities or abilities that one requires to avoid possible negative outcomes. The third component, the L2 Learning Experience, concerns motives that are specific to a particular language learning context and environment. Ushioda (2011) sums up that a basic assumption of Dörnyei’s system is that if proficiency in the target language is part of an individual’s ideal or ought-to self, this will motivate the learner due to the psychological desire to diminish the gap between the current and future selves.

Dörnyei (2005) himself argued that further research was necessary to establish the compatibility of the L2 Motivational Self System with the process-oriented approach, developed several years earlier. The Process Model of Motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) conceptualizes motivation as a series of three stages through which a learner moves, enabling motivation to be researched as a “dynamic factor” that displays “continual fluctuation” rather than as a “static attribute” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 83). The *pre-actional stage* signifies that motivation needs to be “generated” and a goal will be identified that the individual will pursue. In the *actional stage*, motivation needs to be actively “maintained and protected” (p. 84). This stage involves sustained activities directed at learning the L2, where distractions and other potential barriers may negatively impact the task, resulting in demotivation. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 138) define a demotivated learner as “someone who was once motivated but has lost his or her commitment/interest for some reason.”

The *post-actional stage* is the learner’s retrospective review of the learning experience. Importantly, it is at the post-actional stage that learners look back on the actions that they have undertaken, and form “causal attributions” to explain to themselves the reasons for the success – or lack of success – in achieving their goals. Dörnyei (2005) notes that the

“L2 learning experience” dimension of the Motivational Self-System relates to motives associated with the actional stage of the Process Model, while the ideal and ought-to selves come into play in the pre-actional stage where goals are formulated. However, he suggests that it remains to be specified precisely how the ideal and ought-to selves “relate to motivational processing occurring during the actional and post-actional phases of the motivation process” (p.107).

Ushioda (2011) highlighted the value of studying motivation in a way that is contextually grounded and qualitative, arguing that second language learners need to be understood as “real people” located in particular cultural and historical contexts, necessitating a “person-in-context” focus to capture this non-linear, complex and dynamic relationship (Ushioda, 2009, p. 218). Identity and self theories should inform motivation theories (e.g. Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) resulting in the need to integrate concepts such as “personal, social, and peer-related goals, relationships and values” in contexts beyond the classroom, to include negotiation and social participation in co-constructed processes (Ushioda, 2011, p. 229).

While there is a small number of studies examining learners of languages other than English (e.g. Xie, 2014, and Cai & Zhu, 2012, who focus on learners of Chinese) there appears to be no such research situated in the Korean context, focusing on learners of Korean. In the mid-1980s South Korea emerged from its status as a reclusive military dictatorship, where its citizens were denied the right to travel outside its borders, to take its place in the world community as a democracy. Since then, South Korea has become a highly successful economic state, where a significant minority of non-native speakers (and non-speakers) of Korean now live long-term. The lack of research on this demographic group, particularly given the increased pace of globalisation over the last decade, would appear to be a gap in the literature.

From the earliest work of Gardner and Lambert (1972), the study of L2 motivation has been dominated by surveys of students learning in foreign language classrooms. Dörnyei (2005) concedes that the temporal perspective of the lengthy process of second language learning, including motivational phases, has often gone “unnoticed” in L2 research; however, such aspects are beginning to receive attention (see Campbell & Storch, 2011; Gao, Wang, & Zhou, 2014; Oshima & Harvey, 2017). Relatively few of these studies focus on language learning outside the classroom, although Casanave (2012), Kinginger (2004), and Murray and Kojima (2007) are notable exceptions. Casanave’s (2012) eight-year study of her own “dabbling” with Japanese while teaching English in Japan is unique in its duration. In order

to explore her fluctuating investment efforts, Casanave devised the term “ecology of effort” (p. 647) to capture a “contextually rich” longitudinal tale (p. 645). The present study aims to contribute to these hitherto under-researched aspects of second language learning through a longitudinal exploration of the Korean learning motivation of an English language teacher living and working in South Korea.

### **3.4 Research Questions**

- 1) How does this native-English speaking university English language instructor residing in Korea evaluate (a) her own motivation to learn Korean, and (b) her Korean language learning achievements over time (i.e. the post-actional/reflective stage of the process-oriented model of Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998)?
- 2) What factors emerged as important in initiating and sustaining Korean language learning motivation for this individual (i.e. the pre-actional and actional stages of the process-oriented model of Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998)?
- 3) What factors emerged as important barriers or demotivators (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) with regard to learning Korean for this particular individual?

### **3.5 Method**

#### **3.5.1 Participant**

This longitudinal case study is part of a larger study in which 14 university English language instructors working at university language education centres in South Korea were interviewed to explore the factors affecting their motivation to learn Korean. Following approval from the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee, the first author (who was at the time employed as a university language instructor in Korea) approached English language teachers from his professional network verbally about the study, and followed up with an e-mail invitation to participate. One of the 14 participants, who indicated an intention to commence studying Korean through a commercially-available online language course, agreed to participate in a one-year longitudinal case study to examine motivation as a dynamic process. It is this participant whose learning journey is the focus of this paper.

The participant was a 29-year-old female from the United States with a Bachelor of Arts degree in anthropology. She had arrived in South Korea in 2007, originally for one year, as a “means to an end” (Initial in-depth interview) in order to repay student loans and save. Contacts helped her secure her position at a university language centre in 2010 on one-year renewable contracts, for a maximum of six years (unless she gained a Master’s degree in the

interim in which case this cap would be removed). While this gave her a period of relative job security in Korea, she did not intend to make English teaching her career in the longer term. After unsuccessful attempts to acquire French, Spanish and Japanese in the United States, her goal to master Korean was to ‘finally fulfil the goal of being able to speak one language on top of English’ (Initial in-depth interview), and her early self-study attempts to learn the Korean writing system (*hangul*) were successful. To protect her anonymity, the participant is referred to as “Patricia”. She had studied Korean informally by way of self-study on and off for her entire time in Korea, and when the series of interviews commenced she was about to embark on a Rosetta Stone on-line self-study course at beginner level.

### **3.5.2 Methodological Approach**

Barkhuizen (2016) refers to the ‘narrative turn’ in applied linguistics research in recent years, where ‘researchers have begun to understand the importance of paying attention to how language teachers and learners use stories to make sense of their experience’ (p. 28). He points out that the stories told by individuals can facilitate an understanding of how they see themselves and their activities in the context of the wider world. Norton (2013) also highlights the value of narrative methodology in exploring aspects of identity in language learning. This was a key element in the methodology employed in the present study. A longitudinal time frame was also important, given the dynamic nature of motivation in language learning and the role of ecological factors, which are psychological and emotional influences related to the immediate environment in which language learning occurs (see Casanave, 2012). Norton (2013) stresses that researchers must adopt a transparent approach when sharing their findings; one dimension of this transparency relates to the identity of the researcher with respect to participants, with researchers’ own experiences and knowledge adding to the study, rather than detracting from ‘objectivity’ (2013, p. 13). In the present study, the first author (who conducted the interviews over a one-year period) was also a first language (L1) English speaker living in Korea and was engaged in the same line of work as the participant. As a lecturer in applied linguistics, the second author had worked for more than 15 years with L1 English speaking teachers living abroad and had himself taught English in Japan. His role was to supervise the overall direction of the study and assist with data analysis and write-up, but he did not have any direct contact with the participant.

Norton-Peirce (1995) worked with five participants for a year in order to analyse to what extent their language learning experiences changed, using observation, diary keeping interviews and questionnaires that resulted in five highly-informative longitudinal case

studies (see Norton-Peirce, 1995; Norton, 1997). In research specifically related to motivation, identity and the L2 self, White and Ding (2009) used a single case study to complement a nine-month examination of 23 experienced teachers new to e-language teaching. Their chosen participant exhibited a “clear personal vision of her ideal teacher self” (p. 340).

An intended element of the present study was observation of Patricia’s classroom language learning experiences. As she subsequently decided not to embark upon any form of classroom learning, a longitudinal case study using semi-structured interviews was undertaken. This methodology is appropriate where the researcher has a sufficient overview of the phenomena in question to be able to develop broad questions in advance, but does not want to be limited to ready-made response categories that may limit the breadth and depth of the respondents’ stories (Richards, 2009, p.187).

### **3.5.3 Instruments and procedures**

Over a two-week period prior to the initial interview, Patricia kept a detailed daily journal in which she logged any activities that she deemed relevant to Korean language learning, as well as her reflections on the process. Together with the information provided in the initial interview, these diary entries foreshadowed a range of linguistic and non-linguistic factors that she identified as relevant to her Korean language learning endeavours. This in turn facilitated the development of an interview guide (see Appendix 4) with the participant acting (in effect) as co-constructor in the process (Bremer, Broeder, Roberts, Simonot & Vasseur, 1993). Fifteen interviews with Patricia were conducted at intervals of approximately three weeks for a period of 13 months, commencing in May 2012. Audio-recordings were made of the interviews on every second occasion (i.e. every six weeks). Every other interview was unrecorded and gave the participant more freedom to speak candidly, thereby avoiding the need for her to keep further diaries (which would have been an imposition given the length of this study and Patricia’s other commitments). In the case of both the recorded and unrecorded interviews, the interviewer made written notes following the session.

The interview guide was also informed by the literature on language learning motivation, learning strategies and learner autonomy. Questions centred around personal background, motivation and goals, the importance of learning and using the language, how this was gone about, the level of commitment of the participant, resources and strategies used, obstacles encountered and how these were interpreted, dealt with and overcome, or if not, why not.

### 3.5.4 Data analysis

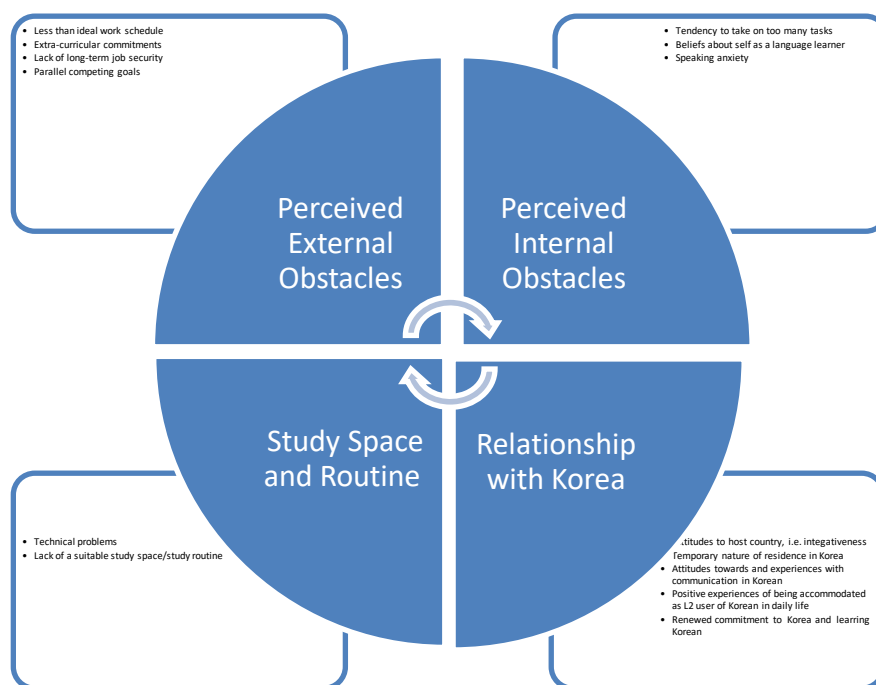
The transcribed qualitative data collected through interviews were analysed by the first author using a recursive process to code the data segments relating to aspects of the participant's language learning motivation. After each interview, the interviewer made notes of major points to follow up on in the next interview in terms of questioning and probing. Each interview was transcribed and coded before the next interview was done, and comparison with previous interview data was also undertaken. This allowed a thematic picture to emerge gradually over the period of data collection, as well as facilitating reflection on Patricia's responses and questions for the next interview. The process therefore drew on procedures associated with a constant comparative approach to data analysis. While such an approach is part of grounded theory, it is also used outside the grounded theory paradigm (see Fram, 2013) as is this case in this study, where the findings are examined through the lens of existing theoretical frameworks. The second author reviewed the complete data set, and both authors then conferred on the final configuration of themes.

The findings are presented and discussed below in light of the relevant literature, including the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009), demotivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, pp. 137-157), identity and investment (Norton, 2013) and ecology of motivation (Casanave, 2012).

### 3.6 Findings

Analysis of the interview data revealed four broad, interlinked themes relating to motivation, which are presented in Figure 1. Patricia often referred to a range of *external obstacles* that would interfere with achieving her ideal L2 self, while acknowledging that other obstacles were of a more *internal* nature. Another theme was a lack of a suitable *study space and routine*. At a deeper level, her *relationship with Korea*, and her (at times) ambivalent feelings towards her host nation and corresponding willingness to invest in the country and the language emerged as an important factor underpinning her fluctuating levels of motivation. Parallels with the study of Casanave (2012) are apparent, with day-to-day events influencing her feelings about her host nation, and in turn her motivation to engage in language learning. Illustrative quotes from the data are used to elaborate on these core themes below. The longitudinal nature of this case study makes it possible to map Patricia's intentions, goals, actions and reflections onto the three stages (pre-actional, actional and post-actional) of the Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) Process Model of Motivation and explore how this relates back to the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009).





*Figure 2: Major themes emerging from the series of interviews with Patricia*

### 3.6.1 Perceived External Obstacles

A recurring obstacle for Patricia was her inability to devote sufficient time and energy to Korean due to her work schedule, the volume of work that she had taken on, and limitations, such as where she was able to engage in her studies. From one standpoint, these obstacles could be seen to embody an element of “self-handicapping”, or the manufacturing of obstructions in order to complicate tasks (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 114). From a slightly different perspective, however, they can be seen as an array of contextual/environmental factors that impacted upon her Korean language learning motivation on a day-to-day basis.

I work a split shift. So, I work in the mornings. Some days I work in the afternoons and in the evenings. So, when I’m at work I’m, just, focused on work and printing out copies, and organizing classes and my Rosetta Stone is, only, set up on my work computer, so I have to do it here in the office but, I tend to be pretty busy with other stuff, in the office (Interview, 5/20/2012).

By the third interview, Patricia was focusing on the issue of work being the biggest obstacle impacting upon what Casanave (2012, p. 645) refers to as “ecology of effort” to study and attempt to use the language. This was a theme would come up in almost every successive interview.

So, it's just a lot of office work and all of that work is keeping me from finding the time, and motivation, to study because when I finally get a moment, when I'm not working, then I'm either laying [sic] down, or I'm going to bed early (Interview, 7/7/2012).

By interview five, Patricia was linking not becoming a competent Korean user to a lack of time spent studying and using the language, again citing work commitments as the primary reason. However, she also noted that English instructors were encouraged to only use English in the classroom and Korean staff were all (to some degree) conversant in English. This suggests that an additional factor in her lack of motivation to learn Korean was that her current situation enabled her to exist in an almost entirely English-speaking environment. I would say it's gone very badly. Because I have not studied. And I haven't had many occasions, where I've had to use Korean. So, I feel like I've forgotten a lot. I never speak to anyone in Korean. Or I haven't had the need to speak to anyone in Korean over the last six weeks. And the reason is just that I was working all summer. So . . . I would just work and then come home and then that was it (Interview, 9/7/2012).

Patricia revealed that she had volunteered to work right through the summer vacation, when teaching staff typically had the option not to work. As a result, she did not devote any time to studying Korean. The existence of a competing goal (an interest in yoga and desire to travel to India to pursue this interest) also became apparent.

I was . . . focusing on saving money for India which I will be leaving for . . . in about six weeks. . . . it was me working . . . hard and not . . . allowing time for anything else. So that's why work took over any free time. . . . and if I could be studying Korean I was sleeping, because I was so worn out from all the working (Interview, 11/15/2012).

In almost every interview in the first ten months, Patricia spoke of her plan to leave Korea in the near future, but also expressed a desire to leave the country with some knowledge of it.

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In almost every interview in the first ten months, Patricia spoke of her plan to leave Korea in the near future, but also expressed a desire to leave the country with some knowledge of the language. While there was evidence of pre-actional motivation in the form of stated intentions and goals, actions related to language learning tended not to follow, and post-actional retrospection focused on external obstacles that had prevented these actions. In interview thirteen, a new development arose: Patricia had decided to remain in Korea for one more year, largely due to a fear of returning to the United States where she would be far more vulnerable economically. When asked if work commitments were impacting negatively on her motivation, her response was “no” (Interview, 4/21/2013). She explained that (for the first time) she had not been asked to teach “split shifts” or evening TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) classes, which she described as “very boring” and “difficult to teach”. This had been another factor in her decision to remain in Korea for another year.

By the final interview, even with a renewed passion to commit to studying Korean, and a reasonable work schedule, Patricia once again identified lack of time due to work commitments as a major obstacle.

Self study is . . . for this month not happening because it's grading time. So, this is the last three weeks of the semester. . . . I am not doing anything except grades. After I leave here I am going back downstairs and doing grading (Interview, 6/13/2013).

### **3.6.2 Perceived Internal Obstacles**

Patricia's language learning diary, which she kept for two weeks prior to the series of interviews, provides insights into a number of internal factors. At this stage, she was studying on her own from various books and was preparing for a placement test for a Korean language course in which she was intending to enrol. Comparing herself with a friend who had "picked up" Korean well without studying from books, she commented:

I wish I had that skill. Studying languages are very difficult for me. I have a terrible memory for vocabulary and I get very nervous trying to speak to people I don't know well (Diary entry, Day 5).

Patricia thus did not see herself as someone who learned new languages easily, and experienced anxiety in situations where her s were unfamiliar.

I have been told that I write in Korean very well. However, I still worry a lot about my speaking skills. I know they are very weak. (Diary entry, Day 3).

Despite her assessment of her speaking skills, being able to demonstrate what she could do was evidently important to her. For this reason, preparing for the placement test (which she hoped would place her in a class above the beginner level) also seemed to generate anxiety, to the extent that she felt unable to study the day before the test.

Another internal obstacle that Patricia identified was (in her words) "... this tendency to put more onto my plate than I need to" (Interview, 7/7/2012). A self-described "workaholic", much of Patricia's inability to say 'no' to extra work was to alleviate boredom or for financial gain. Even when she had (like many of her colleagues)

decided to take the month of August as a vacation, she later changed her mind and decided to keep working. She reflected on her thinking patterns that led to this decision: Instead of me embracing having a month off, my mind immediately goes to: ‘Ah, if I am going to have all this free time, on my hands, then what am I going to do’? (Interview, 7/7/2012).

Despite the fact that signing up for additional work took time away from activities such as Korean study, Patricia’s reflections in a later interview led her to conclude that her lack of progress with Korean study beyond the planning and goal setting (pre-actional) stage was more internally based.

Because I have been here that long and not put that much energy into studying Korean. And it would kind of come and go . . . take a class for a while here and there then stop for a while then study for a while. . . . I don’t . . . think it is all of the hectic pace of this particular year. . . . certainly doesn’t help, but it isn’t a major factor (Interview, 12/23/2012).

In summary, tiredness (particularly after a busy day at work), as well as anxiety in speaking situations and a tendency to take on too many tasks were all internal factors that Patricia noted as hindering her progress towards her language learning goals.

### **3.6.3 Study Space and Routine**

From the perspective of Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) model, it appears that Patricia did (at the pre-actional stage) attempt to ‘generate’ a goal which she would pursue. At the outset, she spoke of a willingness to commit to an online self-study program as it would be cheaper than attending formal classes, and she may possibly have more control over her study. However, there was little evidence of the required ‘maintenance and protection’ of the actional stage (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 84) where the sustained activities of studying an L2 inevitably come with distractions that must be overcome. Patricia never studied regularly, or committed enough time to the course. Technical problems interfered with her ability to use her online Korean language course and to find a suitable study space. The need to come in to her office to study impacted negatively on her willingness to stick to a study plan: “The schedule ruined my life. I was always just at work” (Interview, 9/7/2012).

Prior to the final interview, Patricia made the decision to remain in Korea for an additional year, deferring the departure that she had planned by an additional year. This extended stay prompted her to re-assess her language learning goals:

I'm doing this. I'm going to learn Korean this year. Going to do it perfectly. Not so strict on myself to learn it, but ideally I would like to be at a point where I could speak Korean much better than I do now. And, I'm willing to put the work into it, but not so much that, oh, I have to spend x amount of hours a week, studying Korean. Like, I'm not going to study hard (Interview, 6/13/2013).

Her qualified commitment to invest a limited amount of time in language learning was in sharp contrast to participants in Norton-Peirce's (1995) study of immigrants to Canada. While Norton-Peirce's participants clearly *needed* their second language in order to make a life in their new country, Patricia had found that she was able to manage comfortably in most settings using her first language, a luxury that is less often possible for speakers of languages other than English. In addition, a recurring theme in the interviews with Patricia was her temporary relationship with Korea; indeed, permanent immigration was not an option, as it was for Norton-Peirce's participants. These factors perhaps help to explain why, even at the points where she expressed positive pre-actional "choice motivation", she remained reluctant to commit to a firm self-study timetable. The influence of Patricia's relationship with Korea is further explored in detail below.

#### **3.6.4 Relationship with Korea**

While expressing a desire to be able to communicate and be understood by Koreans in her life, including friends who originally worked in the office at her workplace and more latterly through her yoga practice and in the wider Korean community, Patricia's mixed experiences using Korean in daily life encounters were apparent from the first interview. Some of these experiences were clearly positive:

My only goal is to be more comfortable being able to communicate, with people, in Korean, so I feel, like, in that sense, it's working, very well (Interview, 5/20/2012).

I've found that people seem a bit more surprised and shocked that I am speaking to them in Korean. And, they ask me something, or they talk to me, in Korean, I can

listen well, so I know what they are saying. I can answer them. And, they are . . . really, impressed (Interview, 7/7/2012).

However, she also reported feelings of frustration (and even annoyance) when people did not appear to understand her.

I know I'm saying it right. I say it over, and over, again. No matter how many ways I say it, nobody can understand me. A Korean person says it: 'Oh'. I still get very annoyed with that (Interview, 5/20/2012).

Near the end of the interview series, Patricia indicated that she had become more willing to abandon the conversation altogether in cases where her spoken Korean was not understood, consistent with her view that the reasons for the miscommunication were largely outside her control.

Even in the first interview, Patricia noted that she had no real need to speak in Korean with her friends in daily life.

I have . . . given up . . . speaking Korean, with my friends. The only times I need to use it are in those awkward situations, where . . . I am the only one who could say something and even then it is not like I am speaking Korean very well. So, the occasions for me to need to speak Korean have . . . dropped . . . that demotivates me. My friends can speak English (Interview, 5/20/2012).

This observation is consistent with the emphasis placed on English language learning for school-age and university students, underpinned by an insatiable desire to acquire this language of opportunity, known locally as "English fever". Patricia's limited desire to match her friends' efforts to learn and use English with her own efforts to learn and use Korean was often tempered by the temporary nature of her engagement with Korea.

Patricia also spoke of her daily "getting things done" experiences in Korea, where (in many cases) a knowledge of Korean was not necessary in order to survive.

I was at the bank, earlier, this week . . . sending . . . my overtime pay to my US bank account and I, barely, spoke, to the woman . . . I . . . gave her my old . . . transfer papers,

and said: 'Same as last time'. And . . . she, just, did her thing . . . : 'name, sign'  
(Interview, 9/7/2012).

At other times, she found it possible to survive by using Korean to a point, but then relied upon a person with some ability in English to come to her assistance. One such situation left her with the sense that her Korean speaking skills had deteriorated through lack of use:

Today, I forgot my key card. So, I had to call the . . . office, and somebody can, remotely, unlock the door. . . . I was trying to say to them, in Korean . . . And I couldn't do it. . . . eventually, they put another person on the phone, that could, kind of, speak English. And, I got there . . . I was . . . wow, I have, really gotten bad with my speaking skills (Interview, 9/7/2012).

The gradual weakening of Patricia's motivation to learn Korean highlights the status of global English as a demotivating factor in the learning of languages other than English by native English speakers (see Crystal, 2003; Ushioda, 2013).

When I first got to Korea . . . the first couple of months . . . it was like: 'OK. I am going to learn Korean'. Every year, just, kind of, dropped off . . . you find that you can get by without it and if you can't . . . you, just, do without it. . . . And, if they, just, don't understand, at all . . . it's like 'OK. Never mind.' I give up and try again, tomorrow, or, or with another person (Interview, 9/7/2012).

Several weeks later, however, Patricia reported a rejuvenated motivation to learn some Korean in the time that she had left in the country.

They [my Korean friends] all speak in English. I am more motivated to study Korean. I am trying to get them to help me more by speaking, to me, in Korean. . . . they appreciate that I am trying to learn their language, more (Interview, 11/15/2012).

Overall, Patricia appeared to display (in the interview data) little in the way of a clearly developed sense of an Ideal L2 Self. However, in interview seven she indicated a desire to leave Korea with some language skills and an awareness that this would be her last chance to learn the language. She wished to engage with Korean speakers whom she might meet in the



future, even if there was no instrumental need to do so. She also felt (on occasion) a little guilty at not being able to speak more Korean with friends, suggesting a gap between her present and ideal self, which appeared to fuel, albeit intermittently, her motivation. In the final interview, she was once again enthusiastically embracing another year in Korea, having decided to postpone her planned departure. This triggered (as noted above) a new pre-actional motivation for Korean, but without a broader integrative dimension: “I’m here for another year. . . . there’s one more chance but, in terms of cultural things . . . I’m not that interested” (Interview, 4/21/2013)

### **3.7 Discussion**

Four main themes emerged from Patricia’s accounts of her Korean language learning journey: perceived external obstacles, perceived internal obstacles, study space and routine, and her relationship with Korea. The L2 Motivational Self System facilitates interpretation of how these themes fit together. This assists in understanding why Patricia’s Korean language-learning journey did not appear to move beyond the pre-actional stage of the Process-Oriented Model of L2 Motivation, where intentions are formulated. Although an actional stage was largely absent, the year-long series of interviews created (in effect) a post-actional stage, as Patricia engaged in detailed motivational retrospection.

#### **3.7.1 The Ideal L2 Self and Communities of Practice**

Like Casanave (2012), Patricia found herself living as an American English speaker in a foreign country, where she had travelled to secure employment rather than to learn a language. Both shared “dabbling” by way of non-intensive engagement with their new language where “other life activities take priority” providing suitable temptation to “avoid language study altogether” (Casanave, 2012, p. 644). However, Casanave’s main activities in Japan were related to professional development (e.g. teaching, writing, publishing and presenting at conferences), with the intent to return eventually to the United States. In contrast, Patricia was aware that her contracts would expire within six years, and was clear that pursuing a career related to language teaching English after leaving South Korea was not part of her long-term strategy. She also did not see Korean language proficiency as a skill that would be of practical benefit once she left the country.

Throughout the year over which the interviews took place, Patricia intermittently expressed a desire to leave Korea with some grasp of the language (evidence of a nascent Ideal L2 Self) as well as sharing the fact that she felt a little badly about not being able to

speak more Korean with her friends (an Ought-to Self). Dörnyei (2005) notes that the Ideal L2 Self needs to be primed and nurtured if it is to flourish, and it is clear that Patricia's Ideal L2 Self did not develop to a level where it could sustain her motivation in the face of the many non-linguistic, or ecological, factors that emerged in her accounts of her Korean language learning journey. A person-in-context relational view of motivation may help illuminate how language learners' current experiences and self-states may have facilitated or constrained their engagement with their future possible selves (Ushioda, 2009).

Obstacles notwithstanding, an individual with a more clearly visualised Ideal L2 Self would probably have more fully explored other L2 acquisition options, in addition to (or in place of) self-study, given the 'on location' nature of such a globalisation experience. Attempting to enter peripheral L2 communities of practice can be a long and difficult process for learners (Lave and Wenger, 1991), and in this context it is interesting to note that Patricia's Korean communities of practice comprised friends. The fact that she made little use of this resource as a language learning opportunity was attributed to her Korean friends' desire and ability to converse in English, and her temporary status in South Korea (Interview, 3/4/2013). It is possible that the Koreans in Patricia's communities of practice saw their friendship with Patricia as a "scarce" opportunity to experiment with their own Ideal L2 Selves (Gao, 2013) in English.

In daily life, Patricia often attributed not being understood in Korean to a limitation of her Korean (Interview, 12/23/2012), and these experiences of not being understood appear to have negatively impacted her motivation. Ushioda (2001) highlights the need for learners to internalize goals and values and restore a positive motivational disposition in spite of negative experiences by way of "indulging in an enjoyable L2 activity" (1998, p. 86). Arguably, with sufficient motivation and acceptance that L2 acquisition would be a non-linear process, partially enabled by environmental affordances (Churchill, 2008), Patricia's Korean communities of practice could have provided this experience.

### **3.7.2 Patterns of Attribution**

An important element of the post-actional phase of the motivation process (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) is the formation of causal attributions, to which we allude in the paragraph above. Attributing negative L2 outcomes to temporary, solvable shortcomings, including a lack of effort or opportunity to spend time in the L2 environment (Dörnyei, 2005) augers well for future motivation if learners believe that they have the capacity to bring about change. Patricia identified work commitments and technical issues as impediments to her study

routine, and appeared to regard these as falling largely outside her control. Linked to this was the need to study after hours in her work office as the self-study program was incompatible with her home computer. Sourcing an alternative self-study language course that she could use at home or on a portable device would have been a way of circumventing the undesirability of the after-hours office as a study setting, but this was not an option that Patricia chose to pursue. From an ecological perspective, environmental factors (a temporary status in Korea, employment connected with English, and the option of interacting with Korean friends in English) meant that the need for Korean language learning failed to reach the threshold necessary to drive the actional stage of motivation.

### **3.7.3 Demotivation**

In Patricia's case, the limited degree to which she engaged with an Ideal L2 self appears to have been associated with the inter-related issues of demotivation and environmental factors.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) note that the relatively few empirical studies in L2 demotivation consistently report demotivation occurring in students after the initial novelty of L2 acquisition wanes and increasing cognitive, linguistic and curricular demands and social pressures set in. Much of the research reported in the small but growing literature on demotivation (see, for instance, Farmand & Rokni, 2014; Kikuchi, 2015; Meshkat & Hassani, 2012; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Trang & Baldauf, 2007) has focused on learners of English as a foreign language in classroom contexts. While potential demotivators relating to the teacher, learning materials or curriculum are less relevant to learners like Patricia, more internally based factors such as the lack of a clear reason for learning the language certainly resonate with Patricia's situation. Interestingly, Trang and Baldauf (2007) found that it was these intrinsic factors that had the largest effect on remotivation, which suggests that removing perceived external obstacles may not be sufficient to re-kindle sustained language learning motivation.

### **3.8 Conclusion**

Self and identity goals and possible engagement in globalisation processes are grounded in local contexts and practices, including supportive social networks, to sustain L2 motivation (Ushioda, 2013, p. 10). For L2 learners in general, gaining access to each can be problematic (Norton, 2013). For non-native English speakers, the acquisition of English is often essential for their survival in nations they have immigrated to. However, for native-English speaking EFL instructors, working in a host nation where it is possible to survive there without

acquiring that nation's L1, this may well negatively impact on the L2 motivation of these individuals. On the one hand, the status and power accorded English can reduce individuals' motivation to learn other languages (Ushioda, 2013), and this factor largely explains the 'dismissive', though misguided, perspective of some native English speaking teachers (Aboshiha, 2013). At the same time, however, Ushioda (2013) cautions that the continued rise of global English could diminish their long-held linguistic and cultural capital, and professional identities. While Patricia's perspectives towards Korean could not be described as dismissive, anecdotal observations and reports of attitudes of this kind among English speakers living in Korea – and the range of different levels of engagement with the language of the host country – provided the initial impetus for the larger study of which this longitudinal investigation is a part.

Applying aspects of the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009) and the Process Model of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) help explain how perceived external obstacles together with the participant's relationship with the host nation often served to undermine her motivation, preventing intentions being translated into language-learning actions. As this study illustrates, a range of environmental and contextual factors not immediately connected with language and communication can play an important role in fluctuating motivation levels, highlighting the value of paying attention to the ecological dimension to the study of motivation.

This study presents an in-depth exploration of the language learning motivation of an English-speaking learner of Korean living and working in the South Korean context. However, it is important to note its limitations. It has recorded the experiences and reflections of one participant, and cannot of course claim to provide a representative picture of all language learners with a similar demographic profile. Future studies would benefit from inclusion of a range of participants, including those who do have a clearly developed Ideal L2 self-concept at the outset, as well as those who do not. Studies of English language instructors living and working abroad who undertake their own language studies in a variety of contexts (either inside or outside the language classroom, or both) will allow a fuller exploration of their actional and post-actional stages of motivation. Limitations notwithstanding, individual readers will be able to identify where issues that have arisen in this paper may apply to themselves or to other language learners with whom they share a community of practice.

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## **Interlude**

Chapter three took a micro perspective view to analyse the language-learning experience of one participant who had signalled an intent to commit to learn Korean. Theoretically, by adopting the perspective of the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005), it was possible to examine how her motivation was impacted on by both internal and external demotivating and amotivating challenges and how these were rationalized, acted or not acted upon. Chapter four broadens the scope of such analysis to the entire group of participants by way of the vision of the ideal L2 self and that of integrativeness (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). These two theoretical approaches were applied to analyse the degrees of participants' motivation to learn Korean were expressed both from an internalized and individual perspective and externally in terms of their attitudes towards their host society.

Much of the literature has attended to the need for integrativeness to be re-interpreted to be more in-keeping with the perception of English as the global lingua franca (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). This response from the literature is therefore applicable for studies of learners of global English operating in a globalized world. However, participants are potential second language users of a host nation's L1 with a definite second language community to integrate with. Integrativeness, viewed from this perspective, or from an internal self and identity perspective are both ways to examine the same phenomenon and are the subject of the chapter which follows (Chapter 4).

## **Chapter 4. Where's the vision? Rescuing integrativeness to understand the L2 self-concepts of English-speaking EFL instructors living in South Korea.**

### **4.1 Abstract**

In addressing second language (L2) learners' motivation historically, the traditional Gardnerian concept of integrativeness was readily applicable in a world where L2 communities were more readily identifiable and therefore possible to integrate with. However, the dominance of global English has rendered this construct less relevant for the ever-increasing numbers of L2-English learners for whom there is now no obvious specific, geographically-defined L2 community to integrate with. Rather, through their acquisition of global English, globalization links them to the international mainstream. This transformation of the L2 acquisition landscape has seen integrativeness reinterpreted to become a concept more aligned with an individual's self-identification over an external reference point. However, the understandable surge of studies of L2 motivation focussing on global English that reflects this transformation, has led to an unintended lack of studies examining the situation in reverse. The demand for English teachers worldwide has led to large numbers of first-language English speakers finding work as English teachers outside their own countries, but their motivation to learn the languages of their host nations remains unexplored. Therefore, issues related to integrativeness, in either the traditional interpretation of an openness towards a particular L2 and its community, or in its reinterpreted form in which the language learner's internal identification processes are cemented in the individual's local culture, while the other in their place in the broader, global culture comprise this study. Based on the in-depth interviews and optional diaries of a cohort of 14 English as Foreign Language (EFL) instructors at university language centres in South Korea, it is revealed that the dominance of global English plays a significant role in the degree to which members of this cohort displayed sufficient future-L2 self-motivation as Korean speakers in order to integrate with their host nation community or for broader intrinsic reasons. The findings have implications for research on similar cohorts operating in a globalized marketplace.

**Keywords:** Integrativeness, global English, self-concept, ideal L2 self, vision, international posture, host nation

## **4.2 Introduction and theoretical review of the literature**

The second language (L2) motivational landscape is a vastly different terrain to that of forty-five years ago when Gardner and Lambert (1972) asserted that a willingness to identify with members of another target language group tended to be a strong driver of motivation. This reflected a view at the time that the motivation to learn an L2 could be explained by a concept known as integrativeness. Dörnyei (2005, p. 68) makes the point that “integrativeness, ... subsumes integrative orientation [comprising] interest in foreign languages and attitudes towards the L2 community”. An earlier definition of integrativeness highlighted the “individual’s willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups” (Gardner & MacIntyre 1993, p. 159). The changes that had taken place in the 21 years between publications of these two definitions saw the reference group being expanded to the plural, however the rise to dominance of global English had totally transformed the L2 motivation landscape in the same period. The research community responded in significant ways which are outlined below. These were in no small part due to researchers’ understanding that they must identify which aspect of L2 motivation theory, or theories, are the most suitable, based on the relevant research context, target populations and outcome variables (McEwon, Noels & Chaffee, 2014, p. 36). For the purposes of this study, the most significant is the L2 motivational system

### **4.2.1 The ideal L2 self to explain the ‘integrativeness enigma’**

The L2 motivational self-system was proposed by Dörnyei (2005) as a way to synthesize three broad patterns revealed in recent comprises motivational models (see Noels, 2003; Ushioda, 2001) and has similarities with Gardner’s original theoretical model. The L2 motivational self-system comprises three aspects: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to self and the L2 learning experience. Firstly, the ideal L2 self represents the attributes an L2 learner would like to possess and “is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 105). Secondly, the ought-to L2 self refers to “the attributes that one believes one *ought* to possess (i.e. various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) in order to *avoid* possible negative outcomes” (pp. 105-106). The ought-to L2 self is therefore associated with more extrinsic types of instrumental motivation or the pragmatic reasons for learning an L2. Both of these aspects of this system serve as powerful motivating forces in reducing the gap between the current and future self of an L2 learner. The third aspect, the L2 learning experience, was incorporated

into the broader L2 motivation self- system. While (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 104) points out that the ideal L2 self-perspective “does not contradict the traditional conceptualizations of L2 motivation, it represents a broader frame of reference with increased capacity for explanatory power: Integrativeness as the ideal L2 self can be used to explain the motivational set-up in diverse contexts even if they offer little or no contact with L2 speakers. ... and it would be also be suitable for the study of the motivational basis of language globalization, whereby international languages, and World English in particular, are rapidly losing their national cultural base and are becoming associated with a global culture. ...”. In other words, in the decades since Gardner and Lambert (1972) first developed the concept of integrativeness, the L2 motivational landscape has changed to such a degree that a ‘reinterpretation’ of the concept was required for it to be able to retain its relevance in a globalized world. As a response: “The ideal L2 perspective ... can explain the ‘integrativeness enigma’” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 104).

#### **4.2.2 A response and the reaction**

In reaction to the unprecedented surge of global English speakers on his construct, Gardner himself updated his socio-educational model (2001, p. 5) to emphasise the expressed genuine interest of individuals in L2 acquisition to become closer to the other language community for group membership. The previous version of this model represented a broad schematic outline of how motivation is related to other characteristics of language achievement (see Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, p. 8). In that model, motivation was placed in a system comprising four aspects of language acquisition. These included antecedent factors (such as biological or experiential, gender or learning history), individual difference variables, language acquisition and learning outcomes (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 75). However, in updating his 1993 model, Gardner (2001) appeared to only reinforce researchers’ criticisms that while the ‘other’ had been re-broadened, it *still* pertained to group membership, not language acquisition. Put bluntly, the traditional Canadian construct had rendered itself largely irrelevant in the face of globalization and particularly learners of English in it (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 79).

#### **4.2.3 The untenability of integrativeness and world English contexts**

In the interim period, researchers had begun to directly question the relevance of integrativeness in foreign language settings where learners have no direct contact with speakers and was a key finding of Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh (2006). Researchers also became critical of the perceived lack of relevance of integrativeness for learners of global

English with specific target L2 communities to integrate with (Yashima, 2000; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009b) and the under-theorized nature of integrativeness (Ushioda, 2007). More broadly, researchers began to justifiably claim that integrativeness was therefore untenable for L2 learners of English in world English contexts (Pavlenko, 2002; Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006).

These lines of thinking resulted in two significant trends. Firstly, by 2015, integrativeness had been relegated from being one of the most researched and discussed concepts in the study of L2 motivation in 2005, to one of the least (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, pp. 77-78). Secondly, during the same period, a number of studies confirmed the motivational properties of the motivational self-system, particularly the positive aspects of the ideal L2 self and ought-to selves on language learning. Many of these studies are discussed in Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009a) (e.g. Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kim, 2009; Lamb, 2009; Segalowitz, Gatbonton & Tromimovich, 2009; Taguchi Magid & Papi, 2009; White & Ding, 2009).

Interestingly, only one study of L2 identity and motivation in the French Foreign Legion (Lyons, 2009), is not focussed on learning English. This is despite the unprecedented movement in the 21<sup>st</sup> century of increasingly large numbers of native-English speakers to host nations where the L1 is a smaller language (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 3). Regardless, from 2005 to 2014, 72.67% of published studies on L2 motivation continued to reflect the dominant focus on English as the target language. The result was an unintended lack of attention being paid to the learning of other languages in primarily monolingual settings (Boo, Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 151).

#### **4.2.4 Integrativeness reinterpreted as an internal self-identification process**

While this response to globalization by the research community may appear to reflect an underestimation of the expansion of globalization and its importance, another response from the same community was both a pragmatic and dynamic response to globalization. As a reaction to the changing L2 landscape, the research community reinterpreted integrativeness itself to be less aligned to actual *integration* into an L2 community (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002, p. 453). Rather, integrativeness was deemed more related to a basic *identification process* lying within the individual's *self-concept* (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, p. 3.). The rationale for this reconceptualization was driven by the broadening of the external reference group from one specific geographical or ethnolinguistic group to a non-specific global community of English language users in which its members' internal representation of themselves is as *de facto* members of that global community (Ushioda, 2006, p. 150). "Identification with this vision of oneself in the future may provide the motivational basis for learning the L2 rather

than identification with (or integrativeness towards) a particular group of target language speakers” (p. 150). “... this theoretical shift of focus to the internal domain of self and identity ... marks the most radical rethinking of the integrative concept” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, p. 3.). The intent was to encompass the much broader form of identification and self concept being exhibited by L2 learners and users of the undisputed international lingua franca over *external* motives, as revealed in many empirical studies (see Lamb, 2004; McClelland, 2000), and a conclusion of Csizér and Dörnyei (2005). This resulted in the reframing of the relationship between L2 speakers of global English and their partial virtual, or metaphorical, identification with the sociocultural loading of the international lingua franca manifested in a “non-parochial, cosmopolitan, world-citizen identity” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 79). To accommodate this cohort, a new concept, international posture, reflected the aspirations of L2 global English speakers to gain deeper access to a pan identity, by referring to an openness towards other cultures, “a willingness to go overseas to study and work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners and... a non-ethnocentric attitude towards different cultures” (Yashima, 2000, p. 57). However, while the concept of international posture is nearly always applied to learners of English, there is nothing in the definition to say that it should be, nor that it might not apply to English L1 speakers learning another language. From this perspective, it becomes difficult to delineate international posture from new integrativeness.

#### **4.2.5 Integrativeness and the L1 English speaker as L2 learner**

While it appears undeniable that for L2 global English learners, the traditional form of integrativeness may well have rendered itself redundant, for L1 English speakers as L2 learners living in host nations, the opposite is true. And both the Gardnerian and reinterpreted forms remain relevant for two reasons. Firstly, this no longer insignificant group represents the ‘flip side’ of both interpretations – a sizeable and growing group more seemingly able to take advantage of all international posture potentially offers when compared with those whom the concept was conceived for. For a specific sub-set of this cohort, relocation to such host nations has been with the expressed intent to disseminate the very international lingua franca that precipitated the reinterpretation of integrativeness in the first place. Secondly, as opposed to L2 speakers of global English, these individuals *do* reside in host societies with borders that do have definite L2 communities and cultures to integrate with. The degree to which this takes place is largely due to the impact of globalization. In small relatively homogenous societies with few natural resources, such as South Korea, globalization is indispensable to the nation’s survival. Therefore, while the broader identification process of an individual’s future

self vision Ushioda (2006, p. 150) refers to may form the basis for learning a second language for South Koreans attempting to become de facto members of the global English-speaking community, quite the reverse applies to those native English speakers who reside for many years in the host nation with its own national language and community to integrate with.

#### **4.2.6 A place for integrativeness**

For L1 English speakers in such situations, there exists a strong a *prima facie* case for the reignition of the more traditional concept of integrativeness to examine the degree of their L2 motivation in response to largely external factors. In its reinterpreted form, and in common with L2 speakers of global English, its application becomes more related to their internally based self concepts and outward to a globalized employment marketplace given participants' readily transferable employment skill sets. Therefore, integrativeness, viewed traditionally or in a reinterpreted form, provides a unique window into understanding which factors most impact on their decision to 'integrate with' their host society and which act as obstacles to it. Given this, it therefore appears remarkable so little in the literature has sought to investigate the 'flip side' of integrativeness – cohorts living the globalization experience 'in reverse', whose very livelihoods depend upon their ability to function in societies with defined boundaries and smaller L1s. Finally, that this study attempts to ascertain the relevance of such issues from the perspective of one specific cohort in one location, South Korea, is not coincidental. This was the location where the author grappled, both internally and externally, and observed others doing likewise, with the same dilemma - whether there was enough tangible benefit to warrant attempting to integrate there, or not.

Having explained *why* it was necessary for the concept of integrativeness to be reinterpreted in order to remain relevant in a globalized world, the issues of *how* integrativeness came to be reconfigured as part of a realignment of an identity and self-based research approach will be turned to. Following this, the challenges of using aspects of this self-concept in studies of those for whom the broader sociocultural context may well inform their decisions regarding their motivation to integrate with a host nation with its own national language will then be discussed.

## **4.2.7 Integrativeness' evolution to the ideal L2 self**

### **4.2.7.1 Gardnerian roots**

To understand how integrativeness evolved from its traditional roots to its reinterpreted version, and how both constructs are relevant to studies of L1 speakers of English as L2 learners 'on location', it is necessary to retrace its evolution. In 1959 Robert Gardner and his associates began examining the motivational disposition of entire L2 communities towards each other in Canada (see Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). The resulting social psychological period dominated until the early 1990s, when Crookes and Schmidt (1991) challenged the research agenda to realign itself with mainstream educational psychology. Largely due to its strong macro-level focus, the previous social psychological approach had placed little attention on the individual learner, or the micro-context of the L2 classroom, with more pragmatically-inclined scholars turning towards other approaches (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 77).

### **4.2.7.2 Significant shifts**

The most significant of such shifts was the move away from the macroperspective of L2 motivation research, which was characterized by a broad focus on entire communities which was that used by proponents of the social psychological approach. The cognitive-situated period, which dominated in the 1990s, was "a more fine-tuned and situated analysis of motivation as it operates in actual learning situations (such as language classrooms), characterized by a microperspective" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 74).

One of the major developments that took place during this phase of motivation research was that of the L2 motivational self-system. This system came into being largely due to the results of Dörnyei's three waves of data collection in 1993, 1999 and 2004 of longitudinal surveys of over 13,000 Hungarian teenagers (see Dörnyei et al., 2006) and their seeming incompatibility with the traditional concept of integrativeness. These authors measured attitudinal/motivational dimensions, including instrumentality, direct contact with L2 speakers (i.e. the attitude of participants to travelling to their country and meeting L2 speakers), cultural interest (or the appreciation of the L2 culture depicted in the media), vitality of the L2 community (or the perception to participants of the importance of the L2 communities of their host country), milieu (or the importance accorded foreign languages), and linguistic self-confidence (or an absence of anxiety regarding the learning of an L2). Dörnyei's studies found three variables consistently stood out across the languages and data points: (1) integrativeness; (2) instrumentality and (3) attitudes towards L2



speakers/community. Integrativeness was found to play a key role in L2 motivation, mediating the effects of all the other attitudinal/motivational variables on two measures, language choice and intended effort to study the L2 (Dörnyei 2009, pp. 26-27). Such findings suggested that integrativeness played a principal role in determining the extent of a learner's overall motivational disposition by way of instrumentality and attitudes towards L2 speakers/community in an environment where there was little to integrate with and was associated with two highly divergent variables, 'faceless pragmatic incentives' and personal attitudes towards the L2 community. This dilemma is reflected upon by Dörnyei (2010, p. 78) who makes the point that the findings of Dörnyei et al. (2006) had, at that time, made little theoretical sense.

Applying the resulting L2 motivation self-system to the findings of Dörnyei et al., (2006), the first suggests that an individual's attitudes towards speakers of the L2, are directly related to the ideal language self-image and the second, an individual's self-image, would naturally be one characterized by professional success, logically linking them to the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 26). This closely correlates to self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987, 1996), which posits that an individual's motivation is concerned with matching of the self-concept with the self-guide. Ideal self-guides have a *promotion* focus, whereas ought self-guides have a *prevention* focus associated with failing to live up to various responsibilities, or obligations (Higgins, 1998). While seemingly different, future self-guides and integrativeness both stem from the psychological approach to the study of action and identity and identification are central to both paradigms (Dörnyei, 2009, pp. 29-30).

#### **4.2.8 Future self-guides**

It is important to note that this self-concept requires a frame of reference. Without a future-self-guide, an individual's self-concept cannot realistically be activated into sustained action. However, learners differ greatly on their ability to do this (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 13). This leads to the inevitable conclusion that "... a major source of any absence of L2 motivation is likely to be to the lack of a developed ideal self in general or the ideal L2 self component in particular ... to construct their ideal L2 self, [learners need] to *create their vision*" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 33). A vision is "the *pull towards* an imagined future state ... [with] the attractive visionary target mobilizing present potential in order to move in the preferred future direction, that is to change in order to appropriate the future" (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 9). However, not all future self-images lead to motivated behaviour (p. 13). "Because the source ... of the ought to L2 self is external to the learner (as it concerns the

duties and obligations imposed by friends, parents and other authoritative figures), this self-guide does not lend itself to obvious motivational practices” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 32). Dörnyei (2009) therefore constructed a set of conditions necessary for motivation to be energized and behavioural consequences to follow, including the need to activate a robust future-self vision which must be sufficiently different from the L2 learner’s current self-concept. In addition, it must be plausible and accompanied by an effective roadmap which needs to be regularly reactivated to counterbalance the risk of failure (p. 32). This construction resulted in the “moving [of the] L2 motivational self system from a tripartite framework, to a system proper” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 92). Because it incorporates behavioural consequences, this reframing L2 motivation allows for a richer, more detailed complete model of learner motivation (p. 93).

#### **4.2.9 External obstacles**

Finally, it is also important to make the point that analysis relying entirely on self-guides may fall short of revealing the deeper question of *how* and *why* external obstacles may stand in the way of native English speakers as learners of smaller first languages of host nations they reside in for extended periods of time. Previous studies, while continuing to reinforce the perspective of learners of *English*, reveal that participants *do* experience consistent and prohibitive acts of gatekeeping when attempting to enter communities of practice in daily life, despite high motivation (see Norton-Peirce, 1995; Norton, 1997, Norton, 2013). However, in their examination of second language identity narratives of study abroad learners of global English, Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott and Brown (2013) found that while second language identity is socially conditioned and constrained, individuals *do* play a role in this construction (pp. 17-18). “Language learning benefits if both parties participate in becoming members of a community,” however the required opportunities for practice may be constrained or facilitated by its social arrangements (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 100-101). Therefore, determining *which* individuals facilitate, or prohibit, this process, and why, more appropriately informs research agendas. Finally, the strength of the poststructuralist view of identity is that incorporates pre-existing identities on such experiences (Benson, et al., p. 19).

#### **4.2.10 The reconfigured L2 motivation landscape**

In summary, the emphasis on identity makes the L2 motivational self-system particularly well-suited to examinations of groups of individuals for whom factors may impact on their motivation to learn the national language of a host society and the behavioural consequences

of the decision to do so. However, this aspect of L2 motivation research needs to be placed in the context of a reconfigured L2 motivation landscape. In this new globalized landscape, the English L1 speaker is faced with the issue of whether it is worthwhile, realistic, or even possible, to integrate with the host society. In addition, related external issues and obstacles may significantly impact upon their initial internal decision. To date, studies of how such individuals have attempted to negotiate this terrain appear to have been overshadowed by the experience of the L2 global English learner, a situation this study hopes to begin to redress. However, there is reason for optimism. The considerable refinement that L2 motivation research has undergone this century has largely been in reaction to the need for theoretical frameworks that can accommodate language learning in a globalized world (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, p. 3), a process that continues to this day.

In conclusion, largely in reaction to learners of global English increasingly having no specific target language community to integrate with, L2 motivation research has been re-conceptualised and theorised to a more micro, identity-based, poststructuralist, co-constructed perspective. How individuals' L2 visions may be affected *in reaction to* the rise of global English and globalization in South Korea forms the basis of this study. There, from personal observation, the relationship between the host nation and the 'alien' English-speaking teaching workforce is largely defined (on both sides) by pre-existing identity factors which can then be compounded once the relationship commences.

#### **4.2.11 Research questions**

This study therefore addresses the following questions:

- 1) What were the most significant factors to impact on participants' ideal L2 visions as Korean speakers?
- 2) How did participants attempt to resolve any obstacles to realizing their visions of their ideal L2 selves as individuals who attempted to integrate with South Korea?

### **4.4 Methodology**

#### **4.4.1 Participants**

Participants were recruited from university language centres throughout South Korea. All participants defined themselves as native speakers of English, and all were employed as English language instructors. All but two (Richard and Sharon, who were tenured) were

employed on one-year renewable contracts, with visas issues accordingly. Table 3 outlines the details for each participant, by ethnicity, gender, age, qualifications, and the duration of work experience in South Korea.

<i><b>Participant (pseudonym)</b></i>	<i><b>Ethnicity</b></i>	<i><b>Age</b></i>	<i><b>Qualifications (Highest degree obtained)</b></i>	<i><b>Number of years of work experience in South Korea</b></i>
John	South Africa	26	BA (Human Resource Management)	2
James	England	28	BA (English Literature)	2
Richard	United States	49	MA in TESOL	15
Andy	New Zealand	34	Bachelor of Hospitality Management	4
Barry	United States	34	BA (Broadcasting)	10
Patricia	United States	29	BA (Anthropology)	4
Sharon	United States	32	MBA	10
Robert	New Zealand	64	MA (Education)	11
Angela	United States	57	MA (Creative Writing)	9
Duncan	England	39	MA (English Language Teaching)	6
Paul	Australia	28	MA in TESOL	5
James	Canada	40	BA (English Literature)	11
David	Canada	49	BA (Psychology)	10
Vernon	Canada	46	BA (Computer Science)	6

*Table 3: Participant details*

#### **4.4.2 Procedures**

Issues affecting participants' responses to any initial perceived need (or not) to learn the L1 of a host nation can only be interpreted once they can retrospectively view their experience. Two methods were used to gain data. The first was optional diaries that participants were asked to

keep for two weeks prior to the major form of data collection, which was an in-depth semi-structured interview with each participant. Optional diaries kept by six of the participants provided for those who chose to the opportunity to reflect on issues related to their experience of learning Korean. Participants were given no specific requests or instructions about which themes to include in their diaries and were invited to bring these to their in-depth interviews as a possible additional source in the data analysis. The first author had lived in Korea for almost seven years at the time of the interviews. He, therefore, shared a profile with the participants, was also of English-speaking background, living in Korea, and working at a university English-language center. “The semi-structured interviews is suitable for cases when the researcher has a good enough overview of the phenomenon or domain in question and is able to develop broad questions about the topics in advance but does not want to use ready-made response categories that would limit the depth and breadth of the respondent’s story” (Dörnyei 2007, p. 136). For this reason, it was selected as the primary source of data. The second author had worked as a language teacher in Japan, with years of experience as an academic in applied linguistics engaging with language teachers globally. Years of anecdotal evidence, based on observation, listening and questioning, informed the framing of the interview questions (see appendix 4). However, interviews were conducted in accordance with the need to give participants as much space as necessary to expand upon these without the interviewer pre-supposing participants’ thinking and therefore answers. The face-to face, in-depth interviews took place at a venue of each participant’s choice. A rigid question order was not imposed as different questions evoked different levels of response from interviewees, depending upon their individual experiences. Each interview was audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

#### **4.4.3 Analysis**

This study is part of a larger research project analysing which factors affect the motivation of EFL instructors to learn Korean. One of these studies focusses on the degree to which participants were motivated to invest in a Korean-speaking identity (see Gearing & Roger, 2017). Another is a longitudinal year-long study of one participant, (see Gearing & Roger, in press). The findings of these two studies revealed that participants’ experiences largely reflected their belief that achieving an L2 self as a Korean speaker was largely not necessary. The aim of this paper, however, is to focus on the *specific* self-images, as part of an effective self-guide that were experienced by participants “since not all self-images lead to motivated behaviour” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 92). The framework which forms the theoretical lens

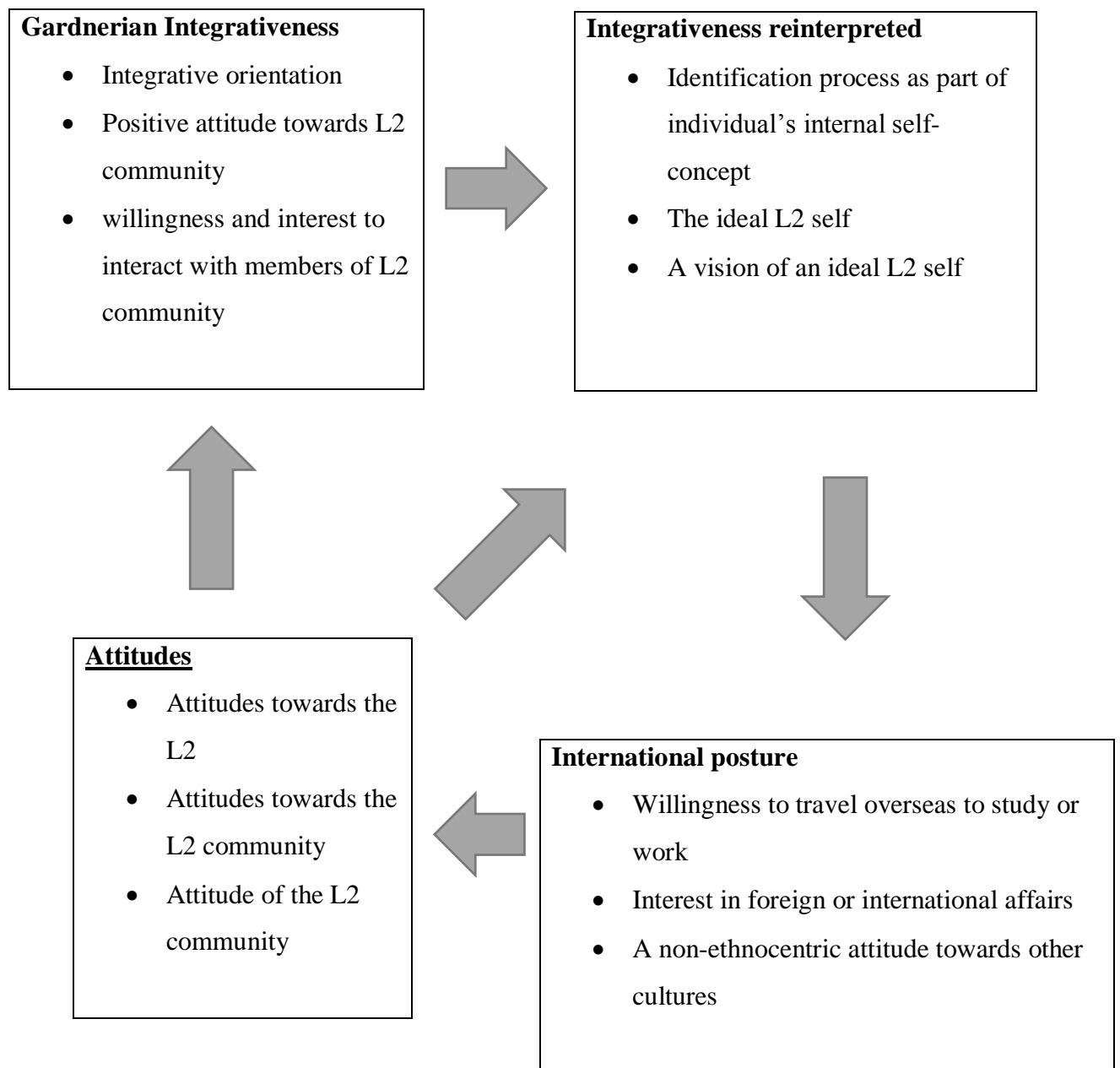
of this study corresponds with relevant aspects of Dörnyei's (2009) list of conditions required for self-images to energize motivation (discussed above) "and thus have behavioural consequences" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 92). In this way, it becomes possible to place the native-English speaker as learner of a smaller national language of their host nation in a framework which allows for the analysis of the degree to which integrativeness, in its traditional and reinterpreted forms, impacted on their future L2 self-visions.

Therefore, while the obvious advantage of open coding is that it encourages the researcher to keep an open-mind and to commence the coding process with no pre-conceived codes in mind (Gibbs, 2007, p. 45), the approach taken to coding in this study was more specific. The data was manually coded in a holistic manner, given this approach allows the researcher to maintain more organizational control of the process than does electronic coding (Saldaña, 2013, p. 26). A process of pre-coding was employed in which data was 'chunked' according to the relevant categories, outlined above. In addition, three other forms of coding were then additionally employed.

The first of these was in process coding in which gerunds (words ending in '-ing') are coded. (Saldaña (2013, p. 96) cites Corbin & Strauss (2008, p. 102) who make the point that this form of coding is particularly suitable for studies in which participants may search for: "ongoing action/interaction/emotion taken in response to situations, or a goal or handling a problem". Secondly, emotion coding allows for participants' worldviews and life conditions to be included (Saldaña, 2013, p. 106). Finally, and possibly most importantly, values coding is "particularly appropriate ... [to qualitative studies] that exploring cultural values, identity, intrapersonal and interpersonal participant experiences and actions in case studies ... " (p. 111).

Line-by-line coding was undertaken ascertain to what extent participants exhibited visions as Korean speakers by way of three emergent themes, which as *outcomes* of the coding process are not themselves coded (Saldaña, 2013, p. 175): (1) traditional Gardnerian integrativeness; (2) reinterpreted integrativeness; and (3) international posture, as they related to the central or core theme of the attitudes of participants. In this sense, the analysis draws on some aspects of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2005, 2006). While not rigidly adhering to the three-step process of initial open coding, followed by the axial and selective coding around the central theme (Gibbs, 2005, p. 50), the process of axial and then selective coding that ties all other categories in the story represents a *partial* adoption of this theoretical approach. A flow chart (Figure 3) depicts this process, in which relevant theoretical sub-categories are placed under

four major headings. While these sub-categories are worded positively, which is logical as they relate to elements of larger constructs, it is important to make the point that references to these elements were coded in either a positive, or negative, sense, e.g. while ethnocentric attitudes is one element, evidence in the interview data of non-ethnocentric attitudes would additionally be relevant in this category. In Figure 3, attitudes towards the L2 and L2 community, coupled with the attitudes of the L2 community towards the L2 learner, form the key aspects of traditional Gardnerian integrativeness. In the theoretical progression from this interpretation to the reinterpreted form of integrativeness, these motivational factors have largely been reinterpreted to be derived from internal self concepts, particularly given that L2 learners and users of global English arguably have no distinct L2 community to integrate with. This can explain the attitudes of the L2 learner by way of the broader concept of international posture, particularly regarding L2 learners and users of global English, with no definite L2 community to integrate with. The same concept can also be used explain an L2 learner's attitudes, as in the case of this study, where there is a definite L2 and L2 community to integrate with.



*Figure 3: Issues affecting L2 visions in coding of participant interview data*



## 4.5 Findings

This study found that participants largely did not learn Korean and this was because they did not have the desire to integrate with Korean society or that their intent was to integrate with Korean society, however this was not why they learned Korean. Negative evidence is supplied by only two participants with L2 visions. Of these, only one was motivated by integrativeness with Korean society and was the more successful in sustaining that vision.

### 4.5.1 Conditions necessary for self-images to energize motivation

The following sections will discuss: a desired image being available, plausible and in harmony with the learner's environment, lack of accommodation and use of Korean in the English-speaking Korean workplace.

Participants fell into three major groups regarding plausibility, largely due to the reasons outlined above. In the first group was Sharon, who demonstrated that her L2 vision was her top priority and James who showed a significant determination and commitment to study Korean formally. The second group comprised Michael, Barry, Richard, Patricia, Robert, Paul and Vernon who verbalized intent, however provided no evidence of an L2 vision. The third group comprised John, Andy, Angela, Duncan and David who displayed no belief in the credibility of enacting an ideal L2 Korean self. The dominant theme among these participants for reaching such a conclusion was that Korean proficiency was deemed unimportant due to the status of the language in a globalized world, particularly its lack of transferability.

Interestingly, nine participants had lived in Korea for six years, or more, and exhibited little concrete evidence of an L2 vision being fulfilled, although all in this group perceived this being within their competence. For the overall cohort, the most significant reason offered in explanation appeared to be a lack of time (John, Michael, Richard, Patricia, Sharon, Robert, Duncan) and family commitments (Richard, Andy, Duncan and David) of which two factors were put forward. The first was that work commitments made self-study of Korean prohibitive (as noted by John, Michael, Richard, Andy, Patricia and Robert). Secondly, timetabling clashes made it very difficult to commit to taking Korean classes (as noted by Michael, Andy, Richard, Duncan and Paul). Richard was the sole participant who accepted responsibility for his lack of L2 vision in this regard.

.... I still have a feeling that it's ... really important ... to learn Korean ... . . . [however] my interest ... sometimes, wanes. ... I say that: 'I ... don't have time' because of my ...

schedule ... balancing work ... a family ... but ... I could, probably, find the time. ... Sometimes, my motivation level is high, and sometimes ... low. ... the fact is that I live in a community, and I work in an area where I can get along very well without speaking any Korean at all.

In summary, for all but Sharon and James, an overall lack of plausibility in regards a Korean-speaking vision was largely presented by way external factors and events preventing integration, suggesting an absence of the existence of a future L2 self in the first place among participants. Only Sharon and, to a lesser extent, James provided such clear evidence.

The issue of lack of accommodation in daily life will now be addressed. Overall, the most significant issue for participants that negatively impacted on their belief that they were in harmony with their language-learning environment were their experiences of what they perceived as a lack of accommodation when they spoke accented Korean. This was seen as the single biggest obstacle when attempting to engage with Korean in simple daily-life service-based encounters. Beyond, in their workplaces and/or their Korean families (if married to or in a relationship with a Korean), this perceived lack of accommodation was constantly cited. Some participants, including Barry, Patricia and Angela actively challenged the notion that not being understood in Korean was their responsibility, with Patricia saying:

... if I am ... trying to talk to ... the woman at the convenience store ... I say it over, and over ... again. ... someone ... in Korean, will say exactly the same thing. ... just because I'm not Korean doesn't mean I don't know how to say it.

This viewpoint was challenged by James, saying: 'I think a lot of those people have an inflated sense of their own pronunciation'. He cited the example of a colleague who in attempting to make a reservation with a Korean complained that 'it didn't work. And I said to her, in perfect Korean, blah, blah, blah ... and I was thinking: Well, dude ... if it was perfect Korean, she would have gotten it'. In addition, participants viewed the making of such mistakes as a significant obstacle. However, over time, they created strategies to minimise their exposure for the need to use Korean and to reduce this frustration. Typically, this took two forms. The first was to simplify their daily lives to minimise the number of such encounters they engaged with, as successfully negotiated by Andy.

... There's nothing ... complex. You eat ... need a taxi. ... most doctors ... speak English. ... Banking, once you've done it once ... you ... take the same form ... It's ... not necessary [to engage with Koreans in order to live comfortably in South Korea and by extension to speak Korean].

The second was that if, by necessity, further engagement was required in a situation in which they were unfamiliar, participants implemented supportive strategies to further reduce the potential for possible misunderstandings in communication. Andy summed up the point made by all in the cohort with Korean partners, saying that he has his wife: '... deal with all the situations, that I can't handle, in Korean'. There was also a tendency among participants to ask for assistance from bilingual office staff at their places of employment and from Korean friends who could speak English. Examples cited included Paul regarding vehicle insurance (workplace) and Patricia regarding issues with the payment of utility bills (Korean friend).

These two stances of participants, in response to their perceived lack of accommodation as L2 speakers, were symptomatic of a broader picture. By their interpretation of such obstacles, participants showed that they did not possess sufficient-enough L2 visions. Given that an individual's L2-self vision is by definition future-based, and as such may well require *change* in order to activate and achieve it, the fact that participants attributed the obstacles they faced in being accommodated as second-language learners of Korean externally may point to a deeper reason, as outlined by John.

I'm not learning it [Korean language] for enjoyment and I'm not studying it because ... it's not part of my future goals ...

This was in direct contrast to Sharon, who provided negative evidence of a robust L2 visions and, to a lesser extent, James. For Sharon, her future vision of herself as a Korean speaker was driven by four key components.

... learning Korean has been important ..... because I knew I was going to live here for a while ... I want to remain independent. I don't like asking everyone to ... do everything for me ... [and] I am a little bit curious ... so I like to communicate with people ...

In terms of experiencing lack of accommodation as a non-native speaker of Korean, in the broader sense, Sharon was more philosophical in her response.

... pretty soon after arriving here ... [I] started to like aspects of this society, and ... there were some frustrating things, of course, but it is not my home ... being the exception ... having that foreigner pass [makes it easier to deal with negative encounters] ... I haven't had ... bad experiences with ... many Koreans.

Specifically recounting a Korean friend who proved significant in motivating her L2 vision as a Korean speaker, Sharon recounted:

I wanted to get to know ... [her]. ... to be able to get to be able to communicate with her ... it was always... 'Let me grab my dictionary'. ... Her knowledge of English was non-existent ...

In summary, a lack of L2 vision was most strongly expressed by participants as a reaction to integrative intent not being expected or encouraged in daily life. The final section under this heading will now address the use of Korean in the English-speaking Korean workplace.

“Successful gatekeeping encounters in intercultural contexts can be attributed to the compatibility of s’ interactional styles. In asymmetrical interactions where the gatekeeper has the authority to judge and determine the future of the other (the gatekeepee), a positive outcome is more likely if the interactional style of the gatekeepee is compatible with that of the gatekeeper” (Kerekas, 2007). Therefore, the “baggage” that s bring with them to their interaction influences how they respond to each other (pp. 1942-1943). In inter-ethnic encounters, it is the language learner who is expected to work to comprehend the native speaker. However, in supporting the argument put forward by Bremer, Broader, Roberts, Simone and Vasseur (1993) that immigrant language learners are faced with the paradoxical situation that they have to learn in order to communicate, and to communicate in order to learn – frequently under difficult conditions with the learner likely to be assessed according to how they participate, Norton (2013) makes the point that “such a Catch-22 situation can be alleviated with sustained contact with their majority community” although limited competence in the target language and the power imbalance between the learners and their s will likely result in negative gatekeeping encounters (pp. 78-79). All participants described

the gatekeeping obstacles they perceived when attempting to integrate with arguably their most significant community of practice, their Korean workplaces in two distinct ways. Firstly, as classroom practitioners, there was no requirement or expectation, and in some cases, active discouragement for them to use Korean in the communicative L2 classroom. Interestingly, Richard, Barry and Sharon made the point that they did use Korean for the expressed purpose of explaining, more simply, instructional points, e.g. grammar, or how to perform tasks. James indicated that when his Korean was of a high enough standard, he would also use it in the classroom. Overall, however, Paul's belief that his employer's disinterest in him using Korean was largely shared by participants.

My Korean skill is not ... of interest to potential employers. ... they don't ... care if I can speak Korean. ... native teachers ... that use ... spoken Korean, in class ... it's missing the point ... That's not why they are being employed.

Beyond the classroom, all other communication with Koreans took place in English in the workplace. Participants tended to interpret this in three ways, firstly, as a deliberate act to enforce their status as outsiders, secondly, to deny involvement in the decision-making process and thirdly, by extension, to deny them access to positions of power. Duncan summed up the predominant view 'that native speakers are only employed to teach English courses because the government tells them'. Interestingly, the resulting majority sentiment was best expressed by James.

... I'm never going to be part of it. I'm, always, going to be the foreign guy, sitting over there.

In summary, ironically, one of the only two participants with an L2 vision concluded that attempting to integrate with his Korean workplace community of practice was fruitless. It is therefore not surprising that participants interpreted this sense of 'block' negatively in terms of their relationship with wider Korean society. However, this was an emergent theme.

#### **4.5.2 The future self as different from the current self**

A sense of a future self being unavailable dominated participants' interviews, for three reasons. The findings section will now address each of these topics in turn: the temporary nature of their employment, a dislike of aspects of Korean culture and the desire of Korean partners, friends and acquaintances to use English in communication with them. However, this tended to be an emergent, cumulative, conclusion participants reached as all expressed an initial verbal intent to acquire Korean, of which John's recalling of his feelings when he first arrived in South Korea was typical.

... you should enrich yourself and ... try to learn the culture of the country a little bit, try to learn the language a little bit, just to make it challenging and a bit convenient for you.

Over time, however, participants interpreted perceived negative gatekeeping encounters by concluding that integration would not form part of their future realities in South Korea. This acceptance was due to the temporary nature of their working contracts, a dislike of the L2 and the third, aspects of the L2 community. Participants perceived South Korea to be a largely parochial society referring to the 'group mentality' related to debates relating to South Korea's place in the world. Participants also tended to be negative about South Korean culture, particularly that presented in its films and television programmes as part of a broader criticism of what they believed to be a lack of independent thought and creativity among South Korean individuals and the seeming rigid adherence to conservative conformity and acceptance of the hierarchical nature of that society. Finally, participants who had established relationships with Koreans recounted significant negative gatekeeping encounters when attempting to acquire and use Korean with their partners and associated others. The findings will now address the issue of the temporary nature of participants' relationship with their host nation.

Participants believed that the nature of their temporary employment contracts being for one, or two years (in all but the two cases of the tenured participants Sharon and James) was the most significant factor to negatively impact on their lack of motivation to activate any future L2-self vision or attempt to integrate with South Korean society. The associated employment visas that only permitted participants to remain in South Korea while they were employed, their status as 'aliens' and their ascribed role as EFL instructors were other contributing

factors that all served to form an overall perception among participants that there was little long-term commitment being displayed to them. Duncan shared the predominant view.

... if there was ... a more long-term [view], you are here and [if you ] want ... to do this kind of job ... [then] you are going to need Korean ... then ... my life would be more ...[secure and I would be more willing to base my family] in Korea for the next five years.

The findings section will now address the issue of participants' dislike of aspects of Korean culture.

Some demonstrated disdain towards integration was due to an aversion to the more 'foreign' aspects of Korean society and culture. This was expressed in two significant ways. The first was summed up by David, who noted the 'very structured' hierarchical Korean cultural norms accorded relationships and friendships, comprising family first, and second, school, university and army friends (for males). This prohibited attempts at 'genuine' friendship outside this sphere.

... they may not be close friends, but ... it's ... like social clubs ... as a foreigner, it's more difficult to fit into that. ...I don't want to have this strong bond to the culture. ... it's [my relationship with Korea is] ... very external.

The related issues of age and gender were also noted by Vernon, regarding his perception of the inappropriateness a middle-aged man being tutored in Korean by a younger woman. Secondly, this negative response towards Korean society was expressed in a further three ways. The first was negativity regarding the formal and hierarchical nature of Korean language. Angela noted her dislike of the 'sound' of Korean and Patricia the formality of Korean she was taught, which she believed was both unnecessary and inappropriate for use in her daily life. Secondly, Barry, Angela, and Patricia were critical of their perception of Koreans' parochial attitudes and nationalistic tendencies, particularly regarding history and politics. Thirdly, an expressed dislike of Korean media and arts, particularly, its music, television, film and literature was noted by these same participants. Other participants were more muted in their similar viewpoints. By contrast, Sharon's experience was unique. In direct correlation to her increased Korean competency, came appreciation of Korean culture.

... I like Korean, old style, music. ... there is this ... guy on ... television. ... he was teaching this song. ... I got everything ...but ... my grammar sucks. ... so, I've bought some ... books, anyway ...

Overall, it appears that participants themselves used the issue of the 'foreignness' of South Korean culture as a way to rationalize their lack of motivation to integrate with their host society. However, it was precisely this 'foreignness' that activated Sharon's future ideal L2 self-vision. The findings section will now address the issue of participant's views regarding future visions of themselves as Korean-speakers.

Interestingly, only Sharon activated her vision in response to the realization that her future in Korea depended upon it as a pro-active choice, over default, as explained in day four of her diary.

I made the decision some time ago to stay here for an indefinite amount of time ... I should at least put some effort into learning the language ... so ... I can survive in this environment.

She made the point, in day five of her diary that an additional incentive was the establishment of Korean friendships '... to have more of a cemented lifestyle ...'. In common with this theme, James was the sole participant to commit continuously to learning Korean in formal classroom situations. His initial motivation was a desire to learn the language of his host nation, for a year, and then relocate to another host nation to repeat this intrinsic process: '... learning for ... enjoyment being the key word ...'. However, participants largely showed a surprising disregard for how they were perceived by Koreans as users of their language, with Sharon being the sole participant to translate the rationale of an ought-to self into a key aspect of her vision as a proficient Korean speaker.

... it's something that I ought to do. ... there's so much importance placed on English. ... not everybody needs to study English ...

Overall, while James and Sharon both acknowledged that Korea had been provided them with a lifestyle that would not have had access to in their homelands. For Sharon, the gradual shift



in consciousness that Korea was becoming her home, was reflected in her interpretation of her ought-to Korean self. This revealed a depth of understanding regarding issues she believed were significant for members of her L2 community *over* herself.

It's ... respectful to live in this society and to be able to communicate. ... it ... shows ... understanding for your fellow man. ...it's something ... I ought to do. ... not everybody needs to study English.

For James, any sense of an ought-to self was more reflective of his internally-based sense of *self* over any perceived obligations regarding his inter-relationship with his host society.

... I see why people [foreigners] don't do it [learn Korean]. ... Personally, I would not be happy with myself, unless [I did learn Korean] because I ... live here.

In summary, Sharon was the sole participant for whom the ought-to L2 self was a sustaining aspect of her future ideal L2 self-vision. The final issue in this section of the findings will address the issue of participants' relationships with Korean partners and family.

Among participants with Korean partners (John, Richard, Andy, Barry, Robert, Paul, James, David), only Paul felt guilty for not being more proficient in Korean, particularly with his partner, and was 'sometimes ... curious to be able to communicate in the same kind of conversation, but in Korean', adding that while his friends and partner could speak English and did this to accommodate him '... they shouldn't have to'. In this way, Paul *acknowledged* the relevance of the concept of the ought-to self, although it did not appear as significant enough in itself to activate his future L2 self-guide.

In summary, largely due to a negative interpretation by participants of Korean cultural difference and identity, they did not seek a different future self for themselves there. Surprisingly, there appeared to be little link between the possible expectation of a future L2 vision as a Korean speaker and prior travel experience, among participants. For some, this was extensive, including Andy (who had visited over 40 countries), Angela and Duncan. Interestingly, Sharon and James had no prior overseas travel experience before arriving in Korea. This leads to the conclusion that the main reason participants attributed a lack of integration was a reflection that participants' 'choice' of South Korea as a destination was by default.

### 4.5.3 Strategies (dis)congruent with visions of L2 self

Sharon was the only participant to employ strategies that displayed she had a robust vision of herself as a Korean speaker, clearly prioritizing this goal.

The only time Korean takes a back burner to anything is when I am studying, for other things, or preparing. ...every time there is something I don't get, it's like: 'OK. There is something I need to start studying ... again' ...

In addition to her programme of self-study, she regularly reinforced her L2 vision through relationships with Koreans in daily life, particularly friendships, admitting that her Korean roommate was and 'still is a big influence as to how far I have progressed'.

... I wanted to ... communicate with her ... it was always, like: 'Let me grab my dictionary'. ...she has taught me expressions ... little things that the textbook is not going to teach you ...

Stating in day one of her diary, that her roommate's non-English speaking Korean family which 'adopted' her into their family 'as if I was their own', Sharon lived a largely immersion experience, which she has carried over to further L2 communities, particularly the Korean-speaking Christian church of which she was a member. Finally, to provide a focus and goal for her self-study programme of Korean grammar and vocabulary, she undertook Korean several proficiency examinations.

Turning to James, his initial motivation to learn Korean formally, which he had largely done for the entire sixteen years he had resided in South Korea, was largely intrinsic. He admitted that this 'steady chipping away at the mountain' had not resulted in his ability to speak Korean. As opposed to Sharon, his roadmap differed in two significant ways. Firstly, he was far less integrative towards Korea.

... I thought, culturally I'd get into it but ... I didn't. ... there are aspects of Korea ... that I don't like ... my sub-culture is where I am. ... I'm not obligated to do anything Koreans do ...

Secondly, for Sharon, self-study was conducted concurrently and in response to obstacles as they presented themselves as she attempted to achieve deeper integration into her Korean

communities.

James' situation appeared more complex. In making the point that while his motivation to learn Korean was based on the 'good fuzzy feeling' produced 'on the inside', he immediately then countered this by saying 'I don't get that as much as I would like ... [which] is my problem'. Curiously, therefore, in admitting that his motivation to continue studying formally was due to the 'framework' it provided, over need, he then contrasted the number of hours attended in formal study, which was approximately two thousand four hundred, with:

... not much, deliberate practicing time. Reading novels? Five, six, maybe? Watching TV shows, in total terms of hours ...probably around five hundred.

In terms of the self-study resources James did enlist for deliberate practice, he stated that these were 'slightly outside' of his 'range', making understanding of the content inaccessible.

In summary, the only participant with the motivation to enact an effective roadmap to enable integration with Korean society was Sharon. She existed at one end of a spectrum that towards its centre was occupied by participants, such as James, who exhibited some aspects of a demonstrated roadmap, through to the opposing end where by choice, resignation, or a combination of both, after an initial period, participants largely retreated to live a life summed up by Richard.

... I ... [can survive] ... without speaking any Korean ... not in isolation, but ... [in] an English community, surrounded by a sea of Koreans.

## **4.6 Discussion**

### **4.6.1 A desired image being available, plausible and in harmony with the learner's environment**

Plausibility is the viewing of the possible self as being realistic and perceived to be within the individual's competence (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 93). For participants, three related issues were potentially relevant. Firstly, adult learners have considerably less favourable views of themselves as successful future L2 users and secondly, acquiring another language, as an adult, is often parallel to full-time work and family commitments (Csizér & Kormos, 2014, p. 82). All participants who were in significant relationships, particularly those who were parents (Andy, Richard and Duncan), made the point that outside commitments were a

significant factor. Interestingly, participants did not use age as a rationalization for not having a Korean L2 vision. Thirdly, past failures and the challenges experienced as adult learners might make students more doubtful about the ultimate success of the outcomes of learning efforts adding to the difficulty of this task (2014, p. 83). Barry, Angela and Patricia were forthcoming regarding previous less than satisfactory second language learning experiences. Interestingly, so was Sharon due to the compulsory Spanish language course she had to undertake as a high-school student and James regarding French-language study. Overall, however, Sharon's Korean L2 experience tends to support Dörnyei's (2001) finding that a strong ideal L2 self, or vision, is important in determining effort.

James' experience is also complex. Iwaniec (2014, p. 189) draws on Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton (1976) to define self-concept as a person's perception of themselves. Individuals with low self-concept are unlikely to pursue an action, prohibiting themselves from improving their performance (p. 411). While James readily pursued his L2 vision, he also presented as a learner with aspects of low self-perception, particularly relating to his self-expressed disappointment at not being a fluent Korean speaker after 16 years of committed classroom learning and by his limited stance regarding attempting to enter Korean communities. Finally, by choosing tasks for his deliberate practice that he openly stated were graded too highly for him, he provided evidence of self-handicapping. This is the manufacture of obstacles to make tasks more difficult so that should the student fail, mitigating circumstances can be claimed and should they succeed which puts them in very good light (Dörnyei, 2005, p.114).

Additionally, a year-long study of Patricia (see Gearing & Roger, 2017, in press), revealed that despite much verbal intent, in terms of actualizing her L2 vision, no action beyond the pre-actional stage of the Dörnyei & Ottó (1998) model took place. In common with other participants, she perceived obstacles impeding her 'roadmap' to include a less than ideal work schedule, this prohibiting attendance at Korean classes and a negative interpretation of the Korean classes she did attend, this being indicative of her negative perception of her 'relationship' with Korea.

In summary, participants rationalized a perceived lack of plausibility externally, particularly to factors related to lack of time, other commitments and the deeming of other goals more relevant and potentially transferable. These included further professional development as EFL instructors, other non-related tertiary education, and the learning of transferable languages, including Arabic, Chinese and Spanish. However, no such evidence was presented by participants. This leads to the conclusion that without

positive self-efficacy beliefs, it is difficult to imagine oneself as a competent L2 user (Bandura, 1986, 1994, 1997).

Participants' experiences of negative gatekeeping encounters *do* support the point that desired identities are easily frustrated by the hosts' perceptions of the 'outsider' categories assigned to them (Edwards, 2009, p. 40). This largely reflects the experiences of participants in Norton's studies of immigrant women in Canada and of North-American women in Japan (Iino, 2006). Specifically, one of the most positive, however frustrating, aspects of study abroad is making contact with locals (Benson et al., 2013, p. 157). While participants were more easily able to connect with locals, Paul, Sharon and James were the only participants to note that there should be no expectation put upon Koreans to use English for the benefit of non-Korean speakers, with Paul and James adding that Koreans were largely accommodating.

In terms of sociopragmatic competence, or using the L2 to represent oneself as a fully functioning person in a linguistically and culturally unfamiliar setting (2013, p. 44), Sharon was the sole participant to do this. This allowed her to more readily accept that the consequences of making mistakes are not as serious as they first seemed (p. 40) and facilitated her development of strategies to minimize such threats. In doing so, she provided the most positive example that a learner's attitude towards language and language learning are related to linguistic self-confidence influencing learners' goals and expectations of language learning and how it is approached (p. 82). Therefore, while the persistent concern of study abroad students at being misunderstood when using English (p. 157), was largely used by participants to explain why they did not, beyond initial effort, sustain learning and using Korean in daily life, this was not Sharon's experience. While all participants did attempt some form of initial Korean acquisition, they also rationalized their discontinuance, or further sporadic attempts to do so, to a perceived lack of need for a vision as Korean speakers, largely in response to the L2 community's lack of accommodation. This led to one of two responses. The first was that some participants questioned their competence as Korean users. Secondly, among others, it provoked a defensive reaction, that Koreans were 'choosing' not to accommodate them. This perception is significant, for reasons discussed in the next paragraph.

A crucial aspect of linguistic self-concept is an individual's awareness of how others perceive them as users of an L2 and how the identities that they project through the L2 are recognized by others and how they see themselves through other people's eyes (p. 84). Participants' interpretation that the use of English in their workplaces only was an external factor over which they had no control was in response to two beliefs. The first was that the

smaller the target language, the greater the perceived threat of global English (Lanvers, 2013). By logical extension, the second is that the host society's largely irrational defences stem from a perceived threat to their insider group's superiority status from those deemed to have social dominance (Edwards, 2009, p. 40).

Participants carried a form of this interpretation out into other communities – however believing it was *they* who were the more disempowered party. Drawing from humanistic psychology (Deci & Ryan, 1985), McEwon et al. (2014) make the point that people have an innate tendency to explore and master novel aspects of their environment to assimilate into their existing self-structures, which is in line with their sense of self (p. 21). This may explain the reinforcement of participants' possibly subconscious pre-existing beliefs, that they should not have to learn L2s (see Chambers, 1993; Dörnyei, 1998) as due to their status as native English speakers there was no perceived need to (Crystal, 2003).

These sentiments were further reinforced when acts of attempted integrativeness were met with negatively, of which only Sharon's response was pro-active. Despite experiencing inevitable obstacles, her ability to assimilate into Korean communities shows that non-linguistic outcomes, resulting from linguistic competence, took place. These include increased cognitive understanding of cultural differences, intellectual life and traditions of the host society, personal growth (achieved through self-reliance and decision-making ability) and increased intercultural sensitivity (Larzen-Ostermark 2011).

Largely due to the increased independence gained by becoming a more competent Korean user, Sharon achieved a breadth and depth of experience and understanding of the L2 community unmatched by other participants. By comparison, James' determination to continue studying Korean formally continued to reinforce a more limited form of an L2 vision. Overall, while integrativeness for the English L1 learner may encompass international posture, or may not as appears to be the case for participants, the lack of L2 contact was the most salient, determining value to hinder their sense of integrativeness.

#### **4.6.2 The future self as different from the current self**

While seemingly obvious, the more elaborate the possible self is, the more motivational power it can be expected to have, with the opposite being the case (Dörnyei (2009, p. 19). Pre-existing factors and events that an L2 learner may bring to the current environment have direct implications on that future self (see Chambers, 1993; Dörnyei, 1998). These feelings were reinforced when participants experienced negative gatekeeping encounters attempting to gain access to Korean communities. Placed in a global context, participants rationalized that

in a mobile world, migration no longer implies a permanent move from one place to another (Benson et al. 2013, p. 35) and was the rationale employed by John, Andy, Patricia, Robert and Duncan to dismiss the need for a vision as the speaker of a smaller national language.

Finally, Benson et al (2013) found that “students with little, or no, prior travel experience, or ones who had poor second language learning experiences ... were often less than enthusiastic about study abroad involvement. ... or had few ideas about how to cope with cultural differences or second language learning while abroad” (p. 152). While the first two of these factors apply to Sharon and James, Sharon provides negative evidence regarding the last of these author’s quoted points. Conversely, while Andy, Angela and Duncan were the only participants with prior overseas travel experience, beyond short vacations, they presented some of the most negative testimony regarding a possible ideal L2 Korean self. Sharon was unique in that, over time, and in direct correlation to her increased proficiency in Korean, she began to ‘affiliate closely’ with Korean to conceptualize it as part of her linguistic self-concept and second language identity (p. 81), becoming a culturally situated person mediated through her second language use (p. 49).

#### **4.6.3 Strategies (dis)congruent with visions of L2 self**

Interestingly, the sole participant to provide evidence of a clear L2 roadmap was Sharon. While it is debatable that a feared possible self was a motivating factor over integrativeness, she presented as a largely autonomous, self-regulating learner. Such learners: “enjoy a fuller and more meaningful learning experience when they are in charge of their own learning, when their motivation is generated from within rather than through external rewards ...” (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 16). The control she exercised over the aspects of her own learning that she was able to has three contributing facets: a learner’s ability and desire to take charge of their own learning and a conducive environment that facilitates learner control (Benson, 2001). It appears that Sharon was the only self-regulating learner and therefore achieved better results, although it is debatable to what extent the third of the three points made by Benson (2001) may have necessarily applied to her case.

Iwaniec (2014, p. 192) draws on Zimmerman (2000) who points out that self-regulation is a cyclical process in which plans are set and activities performed to achieve goals. Strategies employed are reflected on, making such learners intrinsically motivated as they become aware of their preferred learning styles. While both Sharon and James did this, exhibiting persistence in pursuing their goals (Zimmerman, 1994), only Sharon internalized

and *appropriately* responded to obstacles. Sharon and James' differing attitudes towards their long-term roadmaps regarding learning Korean may be also be partially explained by the concept known as the anti ought-to self. Such individuals derive motivation by the seeming difficulty of a task that may otherwise be discouraged by others (see Thompson, 2017). While many studies have empirically examined the ideal L2 self (e.g. Ryan, 2009; Tagushi, Magid & Papi, 2009), Irie and Brewster's (2013) study of one exceptional Japanese learner of English found that the significance of the investment he made in many life experiences enhanced his self-efficacy, aided a positive outlook, and stimulated his imagination as a competent speaker of his chosen L2. These findings tend to reflect the aspects of Sharon's experience only.

In summary, the findings of this study support the notion that self-efficacy highlights how an individual interprets experiences. This provides the roadmap for whether instigated plans and actions will succeed or fail, directly linking it to future self-images (Bandura, 1986). To conclude, Riggio (2012, p. 1) makes the point that individuals are self-reflective and respond to environmental events emotionally, cognitively, and behaviourally. Those with high self-efficacy are more able to persevere in the face of obstacles and more readily engage in more difficult tasks. It is hard to refute any argument against Sharon being largely alone in this endeavour.

#### **4.6 Conclusion**

This study has sought to answer the following questions: (1) what were the most significant factors to impact on participants' ideal L2 visions of themselves as Korean speakers? and (2) how did participants attempt to resolve any obstacles that arose from these factors?

Coetzee-Van Rooy (2006) rightly questions the appropriateness of linking integrative concepts to a language whose ownership does not rest with one specific community of users of it. Curiously, however, the findings of Dörnyei et al. (2006) revealed integrativeness to be a central theme among such cohorts and in so doing provided the rationale for the L2 motivational self-system to explain such findings. Paradoxically, the very same concept reveals that native-English speakers with a specific L2 community to integrate with show remarkably little interest, or sense of obligation to do so. Largely because of the difficulty, and sometimes active discouragement, experienced when attempting to use Korean, this study's cohort largely presents as devoid of such a vision. However, as international lingua franca speakers, with transferable skills and readily available international posture, no intent to relocate to a more accommodating host nation was evident. Notwithstanding, Sharon's



example shows that when integrativeness is derived from a specific set of motivational factors, clear evidence of success of these efforts result. In her case, her desire to fully integrate with her host nation, where she stated she would retire, was a gradual process driven by her relationships with her Korean family, communities and communities of practice. Her vision was also motivated by those Koreans she interacted with without English proficiency and who she believed should be respected by learning their L1.

Turning to research question one, more than thirty years ago researchers were noting that little evidence of a strong sense of social identification and integrative orientation was found among certain groups of language learners (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983). For native-English speakers, this displacement of integrativeness has only intensified in the intervening years during which time much work on globalization and language has tended to treat second language learning as its subordinate partner (Benson et al., 2013, p. 27), particularly for L1 English speakers. For those in this study, defining participants as ‘alien’ and the granting of temporary visas and one-year renewable employment contracts (Goerne, 2013), was the first act of many to reinforce participants’ sense that Korean proficiency was secondary to the host society’s acquisition of English. The following expected use of English in the workplace was viewed as a means to disempower membership of this community beyond the very peripheral, a sentiment participants believed was indicative of others. However, should participants have been expected to speak Korean in the workplace (which most could not have done), this would have almost certainly been seen as a further marginalizing act. In daily life, participants seemed to feel that Korean speakers whom they met were unable or unwilling to accommodate them as second language learners due to little previous exposure to English and/or interest in acquiring and using the international lingua franca. Together, these factors explain the lack of activation of any nascent L2 vision resulting in a cohort largely displaying no fear of the possible selves they were afraid of becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954) – individuals who had lived in a host society for many years with little by way of integrativeness to show for it.

In answer to research question two, for the arguably only two exceptions to the above, participants’ motivation to continue establishing their ideal L2 Korean visions was largely sustained by their gradual embrace of South Korea as their permanent home. They tended to interpret demotivating issues as mechanisms to propel them to further grow their ideal L2 selves, although in James’ case, this was limited to the classroom.

In conclusion, while a small body of research employs the L2 motivational self-system to analyse learners of languages other than English, this is the first study to examine the ideal

L2 self and vision of L1 English speakers in South Korea. Its main limitation is two-fold. Firstly, because of its stand-alone nature, it is not known if participants' lack of vision was Korea specific, or if studies of equivalent cohorts, undertaken in other host nations, would produce a similar result. Secondly, while it analyses a group for whom international posture is largely accessible, international posture is a concept that represents the aspirations of the growing number of second-language English speakers for whom there is *no* specific geographic target-language community to integrate with, rather a broad-based language-speaking community. Given that globalization has not only provided employment opportunities for the educated, further studies would benefit from the examination of a wider range of cohorts, for whom English is perhaps not spoken at all, and therefore the need for a robust L2 vision would be essential. When viewed alongside the findings of this study, the comparisons may well prove to be striking.

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## **Interlude**

Chapter two and chapter four used differing theoretical lenses to analyse the motivation of participants to acquire Korean. Each took a macro approach to the examination of both the internal and external factors that may have affected their preparedness to invest in forming Korean identities their preparedness to integrate with South Korean society. Chapter three took a micro perspective by using the one possible participant who had indicated that she would commit to learning Korean to analyse which factors affected this motivation, over time, and why. Chapter five takes a different theoretical approach, that of demotivation, to examine the issues that may have demotivated, and/or amotivated, participants who had actively partaken in informal or formal language learning and why. Chapter five, therefore, complements the longitudinal study presented in chapter three of one learners' Korean-language learning journey by providing an opportunity to explore the factors that appear to have impacted on their motivation to learn Korean, and why.

## **Chapter 5. This isn't working: Korean language learning demotivation among EFL instructors in South Korea**

### **5.1 Abstract**

Studies investigating L1 speakers of English now living in host societies where the motivation to learn a small L1 are still rare despite globalization facilitating a large increase of such a cohort. Previous such studies in South Korea have found that establishing such an L2 identity is largely perceived as difficult and unnecessary. While issues of amotivation and demotivation emerged in these studies as significant factors for participants, they did not explicitly address these concepts. Therefore, this study investigates which factors among 14 EFL instructors working in South Korea led to subsequent amotivation. Coding of semi-structured interviews and optional diaries found that despite intent, most participants presented as unmotivated learners of Korean, displaying symptoms of both amotivation and demotivation. Finally, two participants continued learning Korean, despite episodes of demotivation and this study examines what strategies they employed to counter their demotivation.

**Key Words:** Demotivation, amotivation, unmotivation, behavioural intention, L2, Korean

### **5.2 Introduction**

This paper is part of a larger qualitative study of 14 English-speaking expatriates living and working as university language instructors was conducted in South Korea. Despite the 30,000 native English speakers working as English language teachers there (Habid, 2014), most work one, or in some cases two-year contracts. Typically, these individuals are employed in elementary, middle and high schools, private language institutes (or *hagwons*) and universities. While some of these individuals remain there in these roles for many years, there is an absence of studies examining the motivation of these language teachers to learn Korean. The rationale for this study stems from personal observation of English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers who upon arrival in South Korea make some form of effort to learn the national language of their host nation. However, be it formally and/or informally, they tend to become demotivated by aspects of this process and discontinue with it. The aim of this paper is to focus on those participants who reported some initial motivation to learn Korean in order to ascertain what specific factors caused them to become demotivated or amotivated, rather than to on those for whom learning Korean was never an important goal, or part of their

agenda, while living there.

Empirical studies into demotivation of second language learners have tended to focus on the classroom experiences of second-language learners of English. Many of these studies share the same two conclusions. This is revealing given the number of these studies and the breadth of locations in which they have been undertaken, including Asian, American, European and Middle Eastern settings. Studies in demotivation the United States include Oxford (1998, 2001) and in England (Chambers, 1993, 1999). Significantly, a large body of work explores the experience of demotivation among Japanese learners (Falout, Elwood & Hood, 2009; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Kikuchi, 2011, 2013, 2015; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Hasegawa, 2004; Ikeno, 2002; Tsuchiya, 2006). Studies in other Asian settings concur with the above findings (see Trang & Bauldauf, 2007; Tuan, 2011) in Vietnam, Kim (2009, 2011) in South Korea and Li and Zhou's (2013) comparative study of two samples in Korean and China. Similar findings were confirmed by Middle-Eastern and North African studies. These examined learner experiences in Iran (see Rudnai, 1996; Farmand & Rokini, 2014) and Saudi Arabia (Daif-Allah & Alsamani, (2014). The two conclusions these studies largely share are that students attribute motivation to themselves, students attribute issues relating to their demotivation to teacher-related factors (see Gorham & Christophel, 1992) and that classroom and teacher-related factors are the main sources of demotivation for learners, regardless of the geographical setting or culture.

Other empirical studies analyzing demotivation offer two additional insights. Firstly, studies examining global changes in L2 motivation research longitudinally (see Chambers, 1999; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant & Mihic, 2004; Tachibana, Matsukawa & Zhong, 1996; Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002) find a consistent pattern as noted by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, pp. 142-143) who write that "... these studies consistently confirmed a general pattern of demotivation among students as the initial novelty of learning another language wears off and increasing cognitive, linguistic and curricular demands and social pressures set in". Secondly, while much of the focus of demotivation studies tends to reflect classroom-related factors, this may lead to an unintentional overlooking of other factors that may be relevant to cohorts such as those in this study. These include out of class issues that students may well bring into the classroom situation as pre-existing demotivators. "While empirical investigations focusing explicitly on demotivation remain scarce" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 149), two studies that help to address the issue of studies into demotivation almost exclusively focusing on classroom-related factors are Dörnyei (1998) and Chambers

(1993). The first study specifically focuses on issues for 50 self-identified demotivated learners of English or German in Hungary and identifies relevant factors by way of one-on-one interviews. The second is a questionnaire of 191 13-year-old English L1 speakers from four schools as L2 learners in the English city of Leeds and seven of their teachers. Both studies found significant non-classroom related factors including negative attitudes towards learning L2s and their L2 communities.

From this overview, it becomes clear that a significant two-fold gap in the literature remains. Firstly, studies into the demotivation of learners of other languages other than English (LOTEs) are very rare, with the notable exception of Ushioda (1998). This examination of 20 French learners in Ireland also confirms the dominance of teacher-related issues as demotivators for students. Secondly, that studies of demotivated learners who also attribute non-classroom factors as significant remain rare (see Chambers, 1993; Dörnyei, 1998) highlights a potentially far more significant issue. Since the publication of these articles, globalization has radically transformed the L2 motivation landscape. More specifically, the 21<sup>st</sup> century has seen unprecedented numbers of individuals locating to English and non-English speaking nations. These points lead Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) to pose the question “Can we be certain the theoretical paradigms developed over the past twenty-five years, which have been almost entirely based on the study of English, are applicable to the understanding of the motivation to learn LOTEs?” (p. 456).

These points have important ramifications for this study. The studies by Chambers, (1993) and Dörnyei (1998) are two of the rare examples of learners of LOTEs in a literature that continues to overlook learners of LOTEs in a globalized world which when placed in that context highlights their limitations. Both are set in Europe last century. The participants in each study were school-aged learners for whom second language acquisition was compulsory. For such learners, factors that may lead an adult to become demotivated would be largely irrelevant. These would include a cost-benefit analysis of the time and cost of learning a second language and the perceived return on any investment in attempting to gain such an identity (Norton, 2013). The decision to further invest in a second language identity may then be influenced by potentially negative gatekeeping experiences outside the classroom in daily life encounters and the workplace. There, as user of the second language, the learner may well be denied of such access to such communities resulting in marginalization (Norton, 2000, 2001). Beyond the language classroom, in this wider social context, negative influences on second language motivation may be present “perhaps in the shape of public attitudes and discourses that prevail concerning the learning of foreign languages” (Dörnyei & Ushioda,

2011, p. 138). These negative voices may be those of second language learner of LOTEs, with these authors making the point that "... the impact of negative social experiences and cultural encounters on L2 motivation is not of course confined to English" (p. 156).

In conclusion, globalization has resulted in a significant number of adult individuals residing and working for many years in host nations where the local or national language is a small language. Ushioda (2006, p. 149) addresses the need to examine "motivational issues pertaining to linguistic diversity, mobility and social integration in a rapidly changing and expanding Europe". The changing dynamics of this landscape therefore requires analysis that moves "beyond the individual to embrace the interaction between the individual and social setting ... to focus critical attention on this social setting in facilitating or constraining the motivation of the individual L2 learner/user" (p. 158). Surprisingly, in the interim period in which globalization has only intensified, studies examining how learners directly affected by this process beyond Europe remain largely absent in the literature. This study aims to ascertain how these individuals are impacted by any resulting demotivating factors and events if and when they attempt to learn the language of their host society and what they attribute these factors and events to. Most importantly, the aim of this study is to ascertain if the experiences of this largely ignored cohort conforms to the findings of the body of demotivation studies to date and if not, what factors may set it apart.

## **5.3 Theoretical framework and literature review**

### **5.3.1 Workable definitions**

"The L2 domain is the area of education that is perhaps most often characterized by learning failure: nearly everybody has failed in the study of at least one language ... Thus, language learning failure is a salient phenomenon and the study of its causes is often directly related to demotivation" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 142). Surprisingly, therefore, in contrast to the many theories put forward that identify why students are motivated to learn an L2, comparatively few studies investigate why learners are *not* motivated to learn languages (Sakui & Cowie, 2011, P. 205). In attempting to redress this imbalance in the literature, several relevant constructs can be used by researchers to describe a spectrum where students see no point in learning an L2 (amotivation), through to specific external events that cause them to lose motivation related to that aspect of their L acquisition (demotivation). In reaction to some perceived crossover between these two definitions, a further definition – unmotivation - has been incorporated into the literature. The definitions of the first two are discussed before the third, in reaction, is introduced.

The first concept is amotivation, or the “realization that *‘there’s no point ...’ or it’s beyond me*’ which can be attributed to the learner’s belief that the expectation of success is unrealistic” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 140). The second, demotivation, relates to “specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action. Demotivation does not mean that all the positive influences that originally made up the motivational basis of behavior have been annulled; rather, it is only the resultant force has been dampened by a strong negative component, while some other positive motives may still remain operational” (p. 139).

However, a survey of the literature reveals differences in the interpretation of the definition of demotivation, particularly on the question of whether it applies to internal or external factors. Meshart and Hassani (2012) make the point that not all researchers agree with Dörnyei’s (2001) original definition of demotivation being solely attributable to external factors. Falout and Maruyama (2004) and Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) both include internal factors in their definitions of demotivation. Drawing no distinction between internal or external factors, Kikuchi (2015, p. 5) differentiates between demotivation, which is situational, in that learners can be motivated again, and amotivation which is concerned with a more generic lack of motivation. Establishing a clear working definition of demotivation is further complicated by the fact that some researchers believe demotivation can be a precursor to amotivation. For example, Falout et al. (2009, p. 403) make the point that some demotivating factors can result in a *total* loss of motivation. A further complicating factor is the fact that these terms demotivation, and amotivation are used interchangeably in the literature. Chambers (1993, p. 14), for example, found that some students were demotivated before commencing learning the L2 classroom and ‘simply did not see the point of learning an L2’. This description of demotivation also closely corresponds with Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2011, p. 140) description of amotivation.

Thankfully, attempting to negotiate some understanding of terms that appear to have been given differing interpretations by different authors, may be unnecessary. The term ‘unmotivation’ was established to encompass a wide range of non-motivated behaviours, and in response to the difficulty of differentiating between amotivation and demotivation. This is because, “in practical terms, language teachers have to deal with both types and it is difficult to differentiate between the two in classroom situations” (Sakui & Cowie, 2011, p. 205). The authors illustrate this point with the example of unmotivated learners in compulsory first-year university English classes in Japan for the first three weeks to illustrate the teacher’s difficulty in establishing if the student has always had such a negative attitude (amotivation), or whether

the transition from school to university possibly explains a loss of motivation (demotivation). These authors conclude that both amotivation and demotivation were significant issues in Japanese classrooms. Given the lack of consistency in the definitions of demotivation in the literature, for the purposes of this study, demotivation will refer to specific external factors that may lead to amotivation *or* to describe specific episodes in which individuals lose their motivation however retain an overall motivational intent to continue acquiring Korean.

Finally, as already noted, studies in demotivation have repeatedly found that unmotivated learners tend to attribute the teacher and classroom-related issues more highly than other demotivating issues. Interestingly, higher proficiency learners are more likely to attribute any demotivation they experience to external forces, particularly the teacher, with lower-proficiency learners tending to internalize their demotivation in a cycle of reduced self-confidence due to poor performance and failure which can become self-perpetuating (Falout & Maruyama, 2004). Given that so many studies find that participants attribute their demotivation to external forces, the implication of this is that the majority of these participants must perceive of themselves as high-proficiency learners, however this may not always be an accurate self-perception.

### **5.3.2 Models and frameworks of demotivation**

This being the case, the previously cited study by Dörnyei (1998) and a review of Japanese studies of demotivation Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) have established a comprehensive framework of the most important factors comprising demotivation from the learners' perspective. The strength of placing these two studies together is two-fold. Firstly, given that Dörnyei (1998) seeks to understand which factors are the most important for self-identified demotivated learners, the fact that it only finds three external non-classroom related factors and events out of nine tends to support the findings of so much of the literature that even self-admitting demotivated cohorts also perceive of themselves as high-proficiency learners. Secondly, from Sakai and Kikuchi's (2009) review of multiple studies of Japanese English-language learning students and their issues of demotivation (see Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Tsuchiya, 2006; Hasegawa, 2004), a six-factor model of student demotivation is identified by Sakai and Kikuchi (2009, p. 61). This comprises: (1) teachers (attitudes, behaviours, teaching competence, language proficiency, personality, teaching style); (2) characteristics of classes (course content and pace, focus on grammar and external examinations, monotony); (3) experience of failure (disappointing results, lack of acceptance by teachers and others); (4) class environment (attitudes of classmates and friends, compulsory nature of study,



inappropriate level of lessons, inadequate use of facilities and resources within the school); (5) class materials (not suitable, uninteresting or too much reliance on books and handouts); (6) lack of interest (a perception that English learnt in school will not be practical or necessary), Kikuchi (2015, pp. 59-60) confirms that all six factors were evident in a questionnaire of more than 1000 Japanese high school English language learners that comprised the Kikuchi (2011) study, particularly noting that participants' ability to distinguish the behaviour of the teacher and the class environment of their making, citing examples including a lack of use of technology in the classroom, using materials that were not relevant or timely and large class sizes. Interestingly, Kikuchi (2015) makes the point that teachers could not easily control these factors which were deemed more demotivating than issues more within the teacher's control, including difficult or one-way explanations, poor pronunciation or the instructional approach (p. 59). The six-factor model (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009) has been tested on undergraduate English-language learning university students in Pakistan (Krishnan & Pathan (2013), Finland (Amemori, 2012) and high-school students in Iran (Meshket & Hassami, 2012).

Turning to the Dörnyei (1998) study, this finds nine demotivators (in order of decreasing importance according to participants): (1) the teacher (personality, commitment, competence, teaching methodology); (2) inadequate school resources (group too large or not large enough, high teacher turnover); (3) reduced self-confidence (experiences of lack of success or failure); (4) negative attitudes towards the L2; (5) compulsory need to study the L2; (6) interference from another language being studied; (7) negative attitudes towards the L2 community; (8) attitudes of group members; and (9) coursebook. As Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 148) note, the largest category 'by far' (40 per cent of responses) directly concerned the teacher. A further 15 per cent, while also concerned with the teacher, were related to reduced self-confidence (in part due to a classroom event under control of the teacher). More than ten per cent of demotives comprised inadequate school facilities and negative attitudes towards the L2 (which included the sound of the language and how it operates).

These two studies share strong parallels and also some differences. Most significantly, both rank the teacher's competence, personality, teaching style and methodology as the most important demotivating factors. They also share experience of failure as the third factor. Factors two and four in the Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) model relate to characteristics of the class and are arguably shared by factors two and eight of the Dörnyei (1998) model, whereas the fifth factor, class materials, in the Japanese model arguably

equates to factor nine, coursebook in Dörnyei's. Interestingly, given the compulsory nature of English learning for Japanese students, this factor is only mentioned in Dörnyei's (1998) model as factor number five, but not at all in Sakai and Kikuchi's (2009) model. Finally, negative attitudes towards the L2 and the L2 community (factors four and seven) and interference from another language being studied (factor six) are only mentioned in the Dörnyei (1998) model.

### **5.3.3 Issues L2s learners may bring to the classroom**

While these two studies highlight classroom-related demotivating factors, the causes of demotivation can additionally come from influences outside the classroom, given that learning languages takes place in the wider social context, where negative influences impact on L2 motivation "perhaps in the shape of public attitudes and discourses that prevail concerning the learning of foreign languages" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, pp. 137-138). The related factors identified by participants in the Dörnyei (1998) study are arguably in reaction to the status of English as the now undisputed global lingua franca and the related issues regarding the corresponding decline in the perception of the necessity to learn smaller L2s. In reaction, researchers, including Lamb (2009), believe there is a case to examine which prevailing attitudes and discourses in the wider sociocultural context may negatively impact on the motivation of individuals to learn foreign languages. This concept was expanded upon by Coleman's (2009) synopsis. Although from a British perspective, it establishes a clear link between the decline in UK school pupils' motivation to learn L2s being due to the wider discourse related to British insularity, monolingualism, anti-European sentiment and xenophobia, all issues given coverage in the British mass media. It is not surprising, therefore, that the relatively few empirical studies on L2 motivation of English L1 speakers to learn LOTEs (see Beradi-Wiltshire, 2009; Ferrari, 2013; Lanvers, 2012, 2013; Pickett, 2009) find that most adults learning European foreign languages do so for intrinsic reasons motivation, or self-fulfillment (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2002). This is in stark contrast with the prevailing view in the UK that the rise of global English has rendered the need, or desire, to learn L2s largely redundant, and even places the English L1 speaker as *disadvantaged* as an L2 learner (Lanvers, 2013, p. 2).

It is against this backdrop that students may enter the language-learning classroom where the powerful negative evaluative responses they brought with them from the outside may then be triggered by classroom practices. "A closer contact with the L2, then, results in strong evaluative feelings (both positive and negative) which in turn affect subsequent

commitment to continue learning the language” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 149). How learners interpret and respond to these factors is also directly related to their motivation and more specifically self-regulation.

#### **5.3.4 Self-regulation**

Based on the findings of Falout and Maruyama (2004) and Sakai and Kikuchi (2009), Kikuchi (2015, p. 60) concludes that that “less-motivated learners are more sensitive to demotivators than more highly motivated learners. It is possible that students who are more motivated are more able to self-regulate their cognitive and emotional wellbeing when encountering demotivators”. This issue is important for two reasons. Firstly, “learners with a clear goal or reason to study the foreign language and are therefore motivated might not perceive potential demotivators as demotivating ... [and] might be more likely to overlook negative aspects of the learning environment ... and keep their focus on the learning environment”. Secondly, Kikuchi (2009) found that students without clear goals far more readily and easily noticed many potential demotivators noting the monotony of the lessons, unmotivated fellow classmates and the student’s own lack of ability to understand the class.

#### **5.3.5 Situation-specific demotivation**

Research shows a direct correlation between learner motivation and specific reasons for undertaking this L2 acquisition. Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant and Mihic’s (2004) one-year longitudinal study of English L1-speaking university students learning French at a Canadian university showed that situation-specific motivation (including attitudes towards the learning situation specifically) ultimately determine the level of success of individuals doing the course. This finding is confirmed by the most ambitious attempt to track motivational change among L2 learners (see Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006). This survey of 13,000 Hungarian language learners was by way of three waves of data collection in 1993, 1999 and 2004. The survey questionnaire targeted attitudes towards five different languages. These included English, German, French, Italian and Russian. This study found a steady decline in students’ motivation to learn foreign languages with the single exception being a marked increase in the direct instrumental or concrete benefits derived from learning English, e.g. career and financial opportunities.

While studies of English L1 speakers as L2 learners remain in the distinct minority, those recording how cohorts operate in situations where the situation is reversed, found that visiting an English-speaking environment was a key transformational event (Shoaib &

Dörnyei, 2005). However, it would be premature to assume this may be an entirely positive experience. A growing body of literature on the study abroad experience highlights additional, relevant demotivators. These include a lack of enthusiasm regarding study involvement, setting unachievable goals, being ill prepared, or an inability to deal with cultural differences or second language acquisition while abroad (Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott & Brown, 2013, p. 154).

Finally, in a globalized world “... the complexity of the association between context and motivation lies in the unprecedented growth of English in mainstream education in many countries ... English is now the dominating language curricula in more ... regions of the world, is moving down the curriculum from secondary to primary education, and is spreading across the curriculum to the teaching other subjects” (Ushioda, 2013, p. 6). In contexts where the need to learn English is prioritized, the number of students displaying interest in learning second languages (other than English) has reduced (see Dörnyei et al, 2006),

### **5.3.6 A critical perspective**

Overall, classroom based studies into demotivation (e.g. Falout, Elwood & Hood, 2009; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Kikuchi, 2011, 2013, 2015; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Hasegawa, 2004; Ikeno, 2002; Tsuchiya, 2006; Krishnan & Pathan, 2013; Trang & Bauldauf, 2007; Tuan, 2011; Kim, 2009, 2011; Li & Zhou, 2013; Rudnai, 1996; Meshkat & Hassani, 2012; Farmand & Rokini, 2014; Daif-Allah & Alsamani, 2014) conclude that language learners tend to attribute issues and factors relating to their demotivation largely to formal learning environments that they have experienced. In particular, these related to teacher behaviour, class environment and materials and the characteristics of the class (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009, p. 51) Lamb (2009), believes the solution to this issue could be achieved by the adoption of a locus of control “through which learners can express their opinions (and be heard), negotiate and compromise, as well as resisting the imposition of learning which is not perceived to be relevant (or where the relevance is not made clear)” (p. 86). In drawing on Rigby, Deci, Patrick & Ryan (1992), Lamb (2009) makes the point that “the learner’s voices [can] provide insights into how their motivation is increased by the degree to which the environment or social context supports the development of autonomy rather than attempts to control behaviour” (p. 75).

To conclude, this study explores why members of a cohort of Korean learners, living in the target language country, may become demotivated when this occurs and what strategies they employ to counter the situation. It also aims to fill a gap in the literature by responding to

the by call of Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, pp. 100-101) for a new emphasis on the *dynamics* of demotivation. This entails an exploration of *how* demotivational causes interact with the personal and situational, resulting in a decrease in motivation in some areas, but not others and “*why* some learners can ‘bounce back’ after a demotivating episode and others completely lose interest”. This study therefore addresses the following questions.

## **5.4 Research questions**

- 1) Which factors acted as demotivators for participants to learn Korean?
- 2) Which specific external event, or events, significantly diminished participants’ continued behavioural intent?
- 3) How were participants able to counter situational demotivation?

## **5.5 Methodology**

### **5.5.1 Participants**

Fourteen participants were recruited from the author’s professional network in South Korea. Seven of the participants worked at the same university as the researcher, with participants three and seven being the only two to be employed on tenure contracts. The remaining seven participants were recruited from seven different language centres around South Korea. Table 3 outlines the details for each participant, by ethnicity, gender, age, qualifications, and the amount of work experience in South Korea.

<i><b>Participant (pseudonym)</b></i>	<i><b>Ethnicity</b></i>	<i><b>Age</b></i>	<i><b>Qualifications (Highest degree obtained)</b></i>	<i><b>Number of years of work experience in South Korea</b></i>
John	South Africa	26	BA (Human Resource Management)	2
James	England	28	BA (English Literature)	2
Richard	United States	49	MA in TESOL	15
Andy	New Zealand	34	Bachelor of Hospitality Management	4
Barry	United States	34	BA (Broadcasting)	10
Patricia	United States	29	BA (Anthropology)	4
Sharon	United States	32	MBA	10
Robert	New Zealand	64	MA (Education)	11
Angela	United States	57	MA (Creative Writing)	9
Duncan	England	39	MA (English Language Teaching)	6
Paul	Australia	28	MA in TESOL	5
James	Canada	40	BA (English Literature)	11
David	Canada	49	BA (Psychology)	10
Vernon	Canada	46	BA (Computer Science)	6

*Table 3: Participant details*

### **5.5.2 Procedures**

Two methods were used to gather data. The first was optional diaries that participants were asked to keep for two weeks prior to the second, the in-depth semi-structured interview. Participants were given no specific requests or instructions about which themes to include in their diaries. They were invited to bring their dairies to their in-depth interviews so that they could refer to them where relevant during course of the interview and to hand over to the researcher for inclusion in the data analysis on conclusion of the interview. Six participants chose to do so, and five also passed their language learning diaries on to the researcher at the end of the interview. The semi-structured interviews comprised 20 open-ended questions relating to factors that may affect their motivation to learn Korean and more generically, towards motivation in general and how they coped with new, and potentially, challenging

situations and scenarios.

The semi-structured design provides a suitable balance between the structured interview, which largely resembles a verbal questionnaire with the flexibility of an unstructured interview which can resemble natural conversations (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173). While the former may limit the scope of ideas participants may wish to express, the latter may do the opposite in a situation where the interviewer is known to some of the interviewees. However structured an interview is, it is not merely a tool to accumulate information, but also to deepen understanding and the interviewer must be responsive to nuance and opportunity as the interview progresses. “This is not best achieved by dragging an unwilling victim through every nook and cranny of an interrogatory masterplan, but by *listening ...*” (Richards, 2003, p. 65). I attempted to utilize the two-fold major advantages of the qualitative, semi-structured interview. Firstly, semi-structured interviews are designed to elicit interpretations and descriptions of the lived world of the phenomena being examined (Kvale, 1996, pp. 5-6). Secondly, their flexibility can be useful when attempting to ascertain individuals’ attitudes, the questions providing a guide from which to probe, or possibly digress, when necessary, to gain more specific information, (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173). For these reasons, this approach was selected, largely because I had years of anecdotal evidence, based on personal experience and observation of my peers and colleagues. Each participant was interviewed accordingly at the venue of their choice. All interviews were audio-recorded and then transcribed.

### **5.5.3 Analysis**

As part of a larger research project examining the factors that affect the motivation of EFL instructors to learn Korean (see Gearing & Roger, 2017) and a longitudinal year-long study of one participant, (see Gearing & Roger, in press), the findings of these two studies revealed that participants’ experiences reflected their belief that achieving an L2 self as a Korean speaker was largely not necessary. Demotivating factors and events emerged in these studies as sufficiently significant to warrant a stand-alone study as part of the wider project. For some participants, amotivation may have explained their unsatisfactory experiences of learning Korean, expressed by way of experiences of demotivation. For others, demotivation may lead to amotivation. To ascertain the causes of each scenario and how participants who possibly sought to counter issues of demotivation, coding of data was specifically undertaken to locate instances of demotivation to provide further illustration of participants’ interpretation of their lack of motivation, should this be the case. Interview data was manually open and initially

coded. Manual coding allows the researcher greater organizational control of data (Saldaña, 2013, p. 26). Open coding enables the researcher to begin the coding process with no pre-conceived codes in mind (Gibbs, 2007). In so doing, the researcher is encouraged to keep an open mind (p. 45) Coding was conducted in a line-by-line process from which words and phrases deemed relevant could be placed into theme that concurrently emerged. The resulting categories and sub-categories are illustrated in figure 4 below. Initial coding of one participant only allows the researcher to then subsequently reassess the coding of the first participant if issues arise that may necessitate this process that may affect the further coding of the remaining participants (Saldaña, 2013, p. 22). The major advantage of this approach is that it allows for data to be compared for similarities and differences, which was a key aim of this study.

The themes that emerged from this analysis are illustrated in figure 4 (below). The two main areas of in which participants experienced demotivation relate to the language classroom and in the broader sociocultural context outside it. Whereas a *factor* refers to a generic issue that a participant believes is a demotivator, an *event* is a specific episode, or episodes a participant has experienced that may trigger a demotivating response. For instance, teaching methodology in figure 3 is given as an event because it relates to specific classroom methodological issues participants related as demotivating in the context of their Korean language learning classroom once they entered it.

*Figure 4. Demotivating factors and ways to counter demotivation revealed in participant interview data*



### Events

#### - non classroom

- \* Lack of accommodation in daily life
  - \* Difficulty accessing Korean communities of practice
  - \* Difficulty of learning Korean
- #### - classroom
- \* Teaching methodology
  - \* Curriculum/resources
    - \* The teacher
    - \* Other students
  - \* Size and level of class

### Factors

#### - non classroom

- \* Lack of perceived need/relevance
- \* Dislike of L2 community
- \* Dislike of L2 language
- \* Difficulty of learning Korean
  - \* Lack of time
- \* Korean-speaking partner
- \* Peer attitudes

#### - classroom

- \* Time of classes
- \* Cost
- \* Lack of perceived need/relevance
- \* Cultural differences
- \* Difficulty of learning Korean.

### Ways of countering demotivation

#### - non-classroom

- \* Personal reflection - the importance of Korean proficiency as a goal despite obstacles
  - \* Self-awareness
  - \* Renewed self-study/goal setting
- \* Assertiveness in Korean communities of practice

#### - classroom

- \* Personal reflection - the importance of Korean proficiency as a goal despite obstacles
  - \* Relocation to a more suitable language program
  - \* Self-awareness
  - \* Renewed self-study/goal setting

## 5.6 Findings

### 5.6.1 Forms of learning undertaken by participants

In terms of the Korean learning they undertook, participants comprised three groups illustrated in table 4. In the case of group one, only James, continued learning Korean in a formal classroom setting after one semester.

<b>Group 1:</b>	<b>Group 2:</b>	<b>Group 3:</b>
Participants who studied Korean in formal classroom setting.	Participants who studied Korean by way of one-on-one lessons with Korean tutors.	Participants who self-studied Korean with no interaction with a classroom teacher or one-on-one tutor.
Richard Patricia, Robert, Vernon, Duncan and James.	Michael, Andy, Angela, Paul and David.	John, Barry and Sharon.

*Table 4: Forms of learning undertaken by participants*

### 5.6.2 Participants for whom amotivation and unmotivation are relevant

The first issue that the findings section addresses is that of whether participants were in fact motivated to learn Korean. All participants did exercise some initial choice motivation to learn Korean. However, nine participants became demotivated, to the point of amotivation, once they entered the actional stage of learning. The affected participants were John, Richard, Andy, Robert, Angela, Patricia, Duncan, David and Vernon. John, who had a Korean partner, self-studied Korean for a short time before discontinuing. Andy also had a Korean partner and undertook one-on-one informal language tuition on an ad hoc basis. Angela followed the same path, however also discontinued after a relatively short time citing a dislike of Korean language, particularly its sound, unsatisfactory resources, and a dislike of Korean culture. David had attempted to learn Korean informally on an ad hoc basis at various times during his time in Korea, largely discontinuing due to his Korean partner's desire to speak English, Koreans' preference for communicating with her in Korean and lack of accommodation in daily life. Turning to those participants who enrolled in Korean classes, Richard cited a lack of time and difficulty attending due to his work timetable changing, family commitments and his Korean partner's motivation to use English as his principal reason for discontinuing. In addition to the time of the class not being appropriate for her, Patricia cited the additional issues the cost, size and levels of students in her class. The other participants in this group cited classroom management and teacher-related issues, the teaching methodology and the

curriculum and resources as reasons for discontinuing.

The remaining participants comprised two groups, those who continued to self-study Korean on a sporadic, ad hoc basis while citing intermittent demotivating factors and events and those for whom learning Korean was a significant goal and developed strategies to counter situational demotivation. Participants defined their self-study as learning using textbooks and on-line language learning resources, by attempting to understand aspects of Korean culture and history by reading Korean books, listening to Korean music, watching Korean television programmes and films in addition to use of Korean in daily life and to attempt to enter Korean communities. Given the difficulty of measuring the level of ongoing commitment to Korean acquisition among the first group comprising Michael, Richard, Barry and Paul, it could also be argued that they were amotivated while presenting as demotivated learners who use demotivating factors and events in order to rationalize their lack of motivation. Michael and Paul undertook informal language tuition. Michael discontinued after a short time citing time as a factor. Paul attributed a change of location from a smaller city to a large metropolitan city where it was comparatively easy to survive in daily life without Korean, citing a lack of time due to other study commitments. He saw his Korean partner as both a motivating factor by way of forcing him to communicate in his L1 and demotivating in that he and those in his communities of practice were able and willing to communicate in English. Barry never undertook any formal or informal Korean learning and self-studied Korean, but cited his Korean partner and a dislike of aspects of Korean culture as demotivating factors. In summary, while all participants did display some initial motivation to learn Korean, the degree to which their demotivation manifested itself as a negative response to a demotivating event was largely as a result of their pre-existing amotivation, or upon commencement of learning Korean, unmotivation. For two participants, their ability to manage situational demotivation could be attributed to their sufficiently strong future L2 self-visions.

### **5.6.3 Participants who overcame demotivation**

The second group comprised Sharon and James. Sharon never undertook formal Korean learning, however she did commit strongly to self-study. Her main areas of demotivation were the difficulty of certain aspects of the language in terms of acquisition, Koreans' lack of accommodation of her as an L2 speaker of Korean and difficulties gaining deeper access to her Korean communities of practice beyond the periphery. James committed to learning Korean formally on his arrival in South Korea and despite episodes of demotivation continued to do so. His most major episode of demotivation was his dissatisfaction with the teaching

methodology, curriculum and resources and by association the teacher and his fellow students at the first university Korean language course he attended.

#### **5.6.4 Non-classroom factors and events**

The second issue the findings section addresses is that of participants' motivation to learn Korean when placed in the broader sociocultural context, and more specifically, the context of globalization. Participants' perception of Korean as a smaller language with a limited role outside the Korean peninsula had a significant demotivating effect on participants. Firstly, participants quickly identified that it was possible to survive without knowing Korean. Secondly, largely due to a lack of exposure to English by Koreans they interacted with in daily life, all participants except Paul and James noted the difficulty being understood due to their accented pronunciation in Korean. Thirdly, a significant number of Koreans with whom participants interacted with in a range with in communities of practice had a desire to learn and speak English. This was significantly demotivating for some of the participants who had Korean partners (John, Richard, Andy, Barry, Paul, James and David), although not to Paul and James who also had Korean partners. Two patterns were evident in these participants' responses. Firstly, the motivation of their partner to learn and use English was seemingly greater than participants' desire to learn Korean for all in this group except Paul and James. Secondly, in daily life, these participants felt that many of the Koreans whom they encountered tended to prefer to communicate in Korean with fellow Koreans, rather than with their non-Korean partners. Again, Paul and James did not mention this as demotivating, however Richard and Barry found the resulting lack of perceived opportunities to communicate in Korean in daily life, due to their partner's presence, or expertise, demotivating. Linked to this point was participants' belief that in some cases Korean use was actively discouraged in some Korean communities, particularly in their English language centre workplaces.

The result of all these factors was participants lost motivation altogether as expressed by Andy. After initially learning Korean by language exchange, he became demotivated as his Korean wife 'doesn't seem to care and I can get by fine in daily life ...' in part, due to his wife's fluency and his inability to be understood when using Korean. All these factors led to his summation that:

There's no reward in learning Korean ... so when other priorities take over ... it's the first thing I drop.

Health issues also prompted him to discontinue learning Korean to put his wellbeing first and ability to work, second. However, he made the point that should his situation change, he would again commence Korean learning. This theme of intent for Korean being an ongoing but low priority goal was shared by Richard, Barry, and very sporadically by Patricia and Paul.

The second major non-classroom factor acting that demotivated or amotivated some participants was negative feelings towards the L2 community. For Barry, Patricia and Angela this negativity was manifested in strong criticism of the language as it related to Korean culture. Barry made the point that ‘studying Korean was also about studying Korean culture’. Apart from ‘old Korean culture’, Barry found Koreans’ attitudes steadfast and demotivating, making the point: ‘.... there’s so many topics that you can’t talk about ...’ For Angela, these two demotivating factors were linked.

It ... felt really ... uncomfortable ... to even say those words ... [because of the requirement to use] some Korean phrases, and words ... in everyday life ... [their usage] helps a lot. ... maybe it’s a mental thing ... but culturally ... Korea seems like it is still a baby, or an adolescent and the language does not seem beautiful. ... I love Spanish so much more.

For some participants, their belief that South Korean employers and society had no interest in them beyond yearly contracts in the specified role of EFL instructor with no possibility for career development was very demotivating. Richard and Vernon made the additional point that the resulting life in an English-speaking ‘cocoon’ was demotivating. Finally, a minority of participants including Michael, Andy, Robert and Duncan made the additional point that as a language with little transferable potential, there was comparatively little incentive to learn this L2 and this was a further demotivating factor.

However, for participants who had committed to a life in Korea, such factors had no negative impact on their motivation to learn Korean. Interestingly, while claiming Korean was a difficult language to learn, Sharon’s realization that Korea was where she was ‘going to retire’ boosted her motivation. As opposed to Michael, Richard, Andy, Patricia, Robert, Paul, Duncan and Vernon, who claimed lack of time was a factor that impeded their Korean acquisition, Sharon made the point that ‘the only time Korean takes a back burner to anything’ was when she was studying the Bible or preparing lessons to be conducted at her English language centre workplace. In addition to self-study, a total immersion lifestyle

outside work acted as a powerful motivator with all ‘the baby steps’ had dramatically’ improving her Korean ‘because ‘everything ... once I leave school’ is in Korean. This included her ‘adoption’ by a Korean-speaking family, conducting all her business in Korean, membership of a Korean-speaking church, voluntary work at a Korean orphanage and associated activities that, despite setbacks, gave her confidence to continue learning Korean. Interestingly, the dynamics of her relationship with her Korean roommate proved to be both motivating and at times demotivating.

Our whole existence is in Korean ... that’s ... helped. ... it’s also frustrating ... she can dominate the conversation. ... with her family ... I was ... really nervous. ... I would make ... excuses not to go, or ... at certain times, when I ... know not everyone would have arrived, or when everyone was leaving, because I ... couldn’t understand what was going on.

Participants with a less robust vision of themselves as proficient speakers of Korean were more susceptible to demotivating factors and events. For example, whereas Sharon appeared to readily embrace the challenge of taking formal Korean tests, such goal-oriented study acted as a demotivator for Barry.

... Last year, I tried ... studying for a few tests, in Korean, and ... gave up. ... the vocabulary was way too difficult and the grammar was way ...beyond me. ... sometimes you study for a goal, but I tend to lose more interest, then. If I study, because I want to, then I’ll stick with it, more.

In summary, the findings reported in this section indicate that the greater the motivation of the participant, the more able they were to employ strategies to counter demotivating factors and episodes in situations outside the classroom environment. Conversely, those in the majority who were largely amotivated or unmotivated far more readily experienced demotivation which they appeared less able, or willing to counter. The next section discusses to what extent the same scenario was replicated in classroom-related findings and which factors and events were significant in this setting for participants.

### 5.6.5 Classroom-related factors and events

Regarding classroom-related demotivating factors and events, the responses of participants reveal (perhaps surprisingly) that perceived difficulties of L2 acquisition, or more specifically Korean acquisition, did not figure as a prominent demotivator. However, the teaching methodology, curriculum and resources and issues related to the teacher, classroom management, fellow students and (to a lesser degree) the time and cost of language classes did emerge as demotivating factors.

Participants did recount previous negative compulsory L2 experiences as a demotivating factor they brought with them to learning Korean including Barry, Patricia and Angela. For Barry, this related to his experience of learning French, and in particular his dislike of the teacher of that subject, while a school student. Patricia recounted her previous attempts to learn Spanish and Japanese being demotivating largely due to her not being a ‘natural language learner’. Angela contrasted her previous language learning experiences of Spanish and Korean, with learning Korean being demotivating. She described Spanish as a more beautiful language that she was more drawn to, over Korean which she did not like the sound of. She cited her previous attempt to learn Korean with a one-on-one tutor as demotivating, citing the resources which she found difficult to use and uninteresting.

The most demotivating aspect of learning Korean for Angela, however, was the difficulty of attempting to speak the language. She disliked its sound and found it difficult to articulate. Her dislike of Korean culture was in contrast to her love of Spanish culture, which drew her to learn that language and continued to motivate her once she embarked on that process. Interestingly, the factors of not being natural language learners and having experienced previous negative classroom language learning encounters were shared by Sharon who recounted being demotivated when attending a compulsory Spanish class in high school. James recounted being demotivated when learning French in school largely due to its compulsory nature. As the only participants to continue to learn Korean, despite demotivating events, both emphasized that as opposed to their previous L2 learning experiences, their motivation to learn Korean was internalized. For James, this was more of an intrinsic and intellectual pursuit and challenge where for Sharon, it was an exercise of choice.

... I started learning Korean ... because I wanted to. ... I didn't think of it as something I have to learn to get a grade ... [therefore] it was easier.

Also interesting was that only one participant who undertook classroom learning, Vernon, cited the degree of difficulty associated Korean as a demotivating factor and one of two reasons (the second being issues related to the teacher) given for discontinuing his classroom learning, defining himself as an easily frustrated person who found it difficult to sustain the necessary motivation to continue with language learning when he was faced with its accompanying obstacles.

The most significant demotivating factor for participants was the teaching methodology and the related issues of the curriculum and resources. As career classroom teachers, it is perhaps not surprising that Duncan and James recounted a similar pattern of complaint regarding these issues. James described his first formal Korean learning environment as ‘terrible’ claiming that ‘learning for enjoyment is almost sucked out of it’. His main issues with the language program was the ineffectiveness of the classroom teaching approach, which he believed was largely guided by a grammar/translation and audio-lingual, teacher-centred methodology which denied students opportunities for communicative practice. He made the point that ‘... they say they are communicative but we are sitting in a half circle ...’ performing tasks he believed were ‘... completely devoid of context’ such as students taking it in turns to construct sentences using assigned sentence patterns. Duncan’s motivation was weakened after formal classroom learning, his major issue being the teaching methodology and style of the teacher.

She tried to go through the material so fast, that we could never ... consolidate the information. ... she was trying to do a semester’s worth of ... language teaching in two months ... one evening a week, for two hours. ... it became a little overwhelming ...

Duncan shared James’ criticism of the lack of genuine communicative opportunities in the Korean language classrooms he had experienced, commenting that ‘there were only four, of us ... and we could easily [have] done some good role plays’. Rather, he found the teaching approach of ‘... the listen, and repeat style, of learning ... here is a list of vocabulary and verbs. Go and learn it, by next week’ inappropriate. Duncan also stopped attending the class due to the teaching style and took lessons at a cultural centre which he found more communicative-based, particularly the teacher’s emphasis on students ‘... communicating together, playing different games, and really trying to go through it at a good pace ...’. While he found these classes far more closely attuned to his teaching philosophy and practice, he still believed the lack of opportunities to use the language outside the lessons made it difficult



for him to consolidate the learning and for this reason discontinued attending these lessons when the summer vacation ended. Additional points relating to a curriculum being perceived as largely irrelevant included Patricia's criticism that the form of Korean being taught in her class was the highest, most formal, which she believed was inappropriate for her daily-life needs. This issue of perceived lack of selection of appropriate and relevant materials was also reflected in James' frustration at the choice of related classroom materials and tasks, particularly those related to the culture of the language being taught.

... if you are interested in the culture of the language, you are more interested in the language itself ... [it] is not Hanbok ... that's a small [part] of it ... [it] is what I am talking about ... to some dude in the coffee shop ... to some businessman ... [it] is what I see on TV, right now. ... not [a] ... one time a year Buddhist lantern festival. These are parts of the culture ... they [the university where he was studying Korean] have interpreted ... [the research] the wrong way ... it just makes things boring.

A smaller number of participants found the teacher's inappropriate actions demotivating (Robert, Vernon) and identified other students as an issue (Robert, James, Vernon). The size and level of the class as demotivating events were mentioned by Patricia and Vernon. In some instances, these events were experienced concurrently. For Vernon, his major issue was classroom management including 'the teacher's ability to control the class' as 'some students' would 'take away the focus of the lesson' rendering the lesson 'a waste of time'. He also made the point that in attempting to protect students' feelings, the teacher was reluctant to give necessary feedback in a class where the levels of the students ranged dramatically. Hence, issues related to both the students and the teacher were interrelated. These sentiments were largely shared by Robert of his Korean classes.

... one of the young, American, males ... fancied the teacher. ... he monopolized her time. ... the ... people, organizing it ... said: 'Well, we can't do much about it. These two seem to be developing a relationship'. ... in the end ... [I] stopped going to the lessons.

James' criticism of his fellow students centred around their perceived acceptance of a teaching methodology that he believed would have been more readily challenged if it had not been for the reputation of the university they were studying at. Specifically, he was critical of tasks where the teacher would ask one student to construct a sentence using a sentence pattern

that had just been taught by the teacher, with all students in turn having to add one sentence when it was their turn. However, he made the point that with up to 14 students in the class, opportunities for fluency practice were seriously curtailed as students simply waited their turn to contribute with no opportunity for communicative fluency practice. This led James to conclude

Because of expectations, a lot of student seriously believe that if they are in a class for fifty minutes, even if they are sleeping, that's OK. The class was tough. I learned something. No, you didn't. You slept for fifty minutes.

Finally, additional classroom-related issues for participants also included the cost of formal language classes. This factor was mentioned by John, Michael and Patricia as a demotivator against investing in learning a language which participants interpreted was neither necessary for survival in Korea, nor offered significant transferable value. In addition, the times formal classes were offered was almost exclusively when participants were themselves teaching. This led to a sub-cohort of participants to attribute these two factors as the most prohibitive, and therefore, demotivating regarding entering the Korean language classroom. In this group was John, Michael, Andy, Barry, Patricia and Paul. Unsurprisingly, participants who discontinued with formal Korean learning also cited these issues.

In summary, James differed from all other participants in that his pre-actional intent of learning Korean was his primary goal upon his arrival. For all other participants, their pre-actional intent to learn Korean was a secondary, or less significant goal, in fact, it was sometimes unclear whether it was a goal at all or rather something that initially appeared logical to do as in response to living in a nation with its own national language. For James, however, this process became a 'steady chipping away at the mountain' which had continued for the entire duration of his stay. Much of this was full-time, during vacations, with him only stopping due to financial issues, the situational demotivation he experienced being in response to his first formal-learning experience to the point that that he stopped learning Korean in that setting. How James countered situational demotivation inside the classroom and Sharon countered situational demotivation outside the classroom is the subject of the next section.

## 5.6.6 Countering situational demotivation

### 5.6.6.1 outside the classroom

As only two participants were in possession of future L2 self-visions that were of the strength to withstand the inevitable episodes of demotivation that accompany language learning, the experiences of these two participants will be considered, firstly with reference to Sharon, and secondly with reference to James.

The most demotivating factors for Sharon were a lack of accommodation in daily life and the difficulty of accessing Korean-speaking communities as a non-native speaker. Regarding the first issue, she made the point that due to their complexity, certain aspects of Korean grammar and the hierarchical nature of the language, particularly the honorific form, had been a temporary demotivating factor for her. She had, at times, therefore, stopped learning that aspect of Korean because the ‘grammar issue had gotten ... too much’. However, as opposed to other participants, who became either demotivated and/or amotivated by obstacles associated with learning Korean, she would ‘take a break ... [and then] go back into it’, ‘eventually’ buying some more Korean books and returning to focused study on areas she believed she needed to improve upon, given her difficulties using Korean with Koreans. As her learning progressed, she believed she was more able to withstand such obstacles because she was able to ‘understand more’. Her reliance on books was gradually replaced by attempts to solidify her Korean language learning and expand on it by use in daily life.

Because of her desire not to live a Korean life as an ‘outsider’, Sharon’s life outside of her working environment reflected this commitment. She readily acknowledged the challenge of attempting to function in entirely Korean-speaking communities, particularly her Korean family and church ‘who sometimes forget that Korean is not my first language’. However, the very aspects of learning Korean that motivated her, at times, demotivated her. After some time to assimilate the necessary new learning, she became remotivated. Therefore, her Korean-language learning path was largely characterized by a movement back and forth between self-study, attempting to use what she had learned from this task in daily life and upon realizing there was more learning needed, returning to self-study in order to master what she still needed to understand in order to *function* as a Korean user.

To counter the specific issue of becoming demotivated by certain aspects of Korean grammar acquisition, Sharon made the commitment to take Korean proficiency tests to provide a framework for her study from further relevant textbooks and to further self-impose discipline, by way of a time-frame, in her Korean learning. Finally, to counter these factors and events comprising her situational demotivation, she engaged in enjoyable L2 activities,

such as listening to Korean singers, watching Korean television and having more simple conversations, such as gossip within her Korean communities. In summary, Sharon had the capacity to self-manage her Korean learning in such a way that she was largely able to articulate the very events that demotivated her as signposts to remotivate her Korean language-learning motivation.

#### **5.6.6.2 inside the classroom**

For James, his issues of demotivation were largely derived from his formal classroom experiences as a Korean learner. Driven by a determination that ‘this language is not going to beat me’, James, removed himself from his first learning environment which enabled him to counter the situational demotivation he experienced there. To keep his L2 vision alive, he enrolled at another university Korean-language program which he perceived placed a far greater emphasis on engagement with Korean culture. He noted the use of contemporary Korean television shows for listening tasks, as opposed to his prior learning experience where the institution made ‘its own body of videotape’. While still referring to the ‘boring materials’ at his second language school, he made the point that while they were ‘better, but not great’, his overall conclusion was that the teaching methodology at his second school was far more appropriate, communicative, and therefore conducive to his becoming remotivated to continue Korean learning in a formal context. In summary, where Sharon articulated the events that demotivated her by incorporating this demotivation as a way to re-motivate herself, James attributed the cause of his demotivation externally and employed a strategy of finding a classroom language-learning environment that he believed was more appropriate to his needs.

### **5.7 Discussion**

The discussion will address the issues of demotivation experienced outside the classroom, by Sharon, first and secondly, issues of demotivation in the classroom. Firstly, the reason why there is particular focus on Sharon is summed up by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014, p. 34). These authors make the point that “people differ in how they can generate a successful possible self, which suggests that one of the main sources of the absence of motivation in some learners is likely to be the lack of a properly developed desired self-image in general, and an ideal language self-component of this image in particular”. Therefore, because Sharon appeared to have sufficiently strong motivational capacity and self-approach, despite obstacles, she was able to manage episodes of demotivation, which in other participants largely led to, at one end, a complete loss of motivation through to weakened motivation at

the other. Interestingly, she was reluctant to attribute the title of high-proficiency learner to herself. As has already been stated, high-proficiency learners have been found to be more likely to attribute their demotivation to external factors, such as teachers over less proficient learners who reported demotivation factors including disappointment in their performance or increased lack of self-confidence earlier in their schooling (Falout et al., 2009). And as already noted, Sharon viewed her Korean communities as motivating and demotivating by turn, however her interpretation of these events indicated she was a motivated language learner. Learners with little intrinsic or extrinsic motivation were more likely to interpret their learning environment as demotivating due to an inability to interpret environmental conditions positively (Kikuchi, 2015, p. 60). Therefore, that she interpreted these scenarios from a reflective and ultimately positive perspective implies insufficient internal motivation among other participants, particularly Richard and Vernon who claimed that living in a largely English-speaking community or ‘cocoon’ was demotivating.

As discussed in chapter four, however, such a lack of perceived motivation, or demotivation resulting from attempts to communicate with Koreans in their L1, may be partially explained by the concept of gatekeeping. In intercultural contexts, successful gatekeeping encounters can be attributed to the compatibility of the interactional styles of the interlocutors. If the interactional style of the gatekeeper is compatible with that of the gatekeepee, the outcome for the gatekeepee is more likely to be positive (Kerekes, 2007, p. 1942-1943). In inter-ethnic encounters, it is the language learner (gatekeepee) who is expected to work to comprehend the native speaker, however in order to communicate immigrant language learners have to learn – frequently under difficult conditions with the learner likely to be assessed according to how they participate (Bremer, Broader, Roberts, Simone & Vasseur, 1993). In supporting the argument put forward by Bremer et al (1993), Norton (2013) makes the point that limited competence in the target language and the power imbalance between the learners and their interlocutors will likely result in negative gatekeeping encounters (pp. 78-79).

Finally, the comparative lack of observable motivation and commitment, beyond expressed verbal intent, among participants who cited incidents of demotivation while claiming to still be self-studying Korean, was in direct contrast to that of Sharon. Ultimately, her experience provides negative evidence that not all lower-proficiency learners (a term she identified with) need relegate themselves to becoming trapped in a self-perpetuating cycle of demotivation and poor performance (Falout & Maruyama, 2004).

Turning to demotivation inside the classroom, the discussion will focus on the findings of Duncan and James. As opposed to other participants, they were experienced career EFL teachers. Both were working in highly-prestigious Korean universities in a major metropolitan centre. These factors may explain their pointed observations regarding the Korean L2 classroom. The resulting amotivation of Duncan and demotivation of James was a reflection that the classroom methodology and management continually reinforced their frustration at not being able to be ‘themselves’ to link their current activity to their future L2 self-visions (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 34). In particular, these participants were highly critical of assigned non-personalized demotivating ‘studenty’ tasks. Even highly-motivated students will eventually withdraw from their classes if the teacher’s sole focus on the pragmatics of the curriculum is too far removed from the students’ imagined identities (Norton, 2000). Conversely, “Classroom activities ... [including] communicative tasks – especially ones that concern L2 films, music, food, traditions, other cultural aspects, etc. – can all be used as potent vision reminders ... that enable students to link classroom activities with what they will be required to do to fulfil their future L2 visions. Indeed, good teachers often have an instinctive talent for providing an engaging framework ...” (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 107).

It may be simplistic, however, to attribute all the blame for such learners’ demotivation, or amotivation to the teacher and classroom or the student’s goal-setting ability. Given that Duncan discontinued learning Korean after his classroom experiences, it could be assumed that he presented as a student without clear goals who more readily experienced demotivators (Kikuchi, 2009). Interestingly, he made the point that his first formal Korean learning class largely demotivated him with its lack of communicative opportunity. After relocating to his second Korean class, he found opportunities for communicative practice there, however then attributed his demotivation to the fact that he was unable to use the Korean he had learned in this class in daily life there. This tends to imply that Duncan was largely an amotivated learner who upon entering the language-learning classroom then attributed this pre-existing lack of motivation to demotivating events experienced there and outside it. Duncan’s accounts of the events that demotivated him correspond closely to those of an unmotivated learner (Sakui & Cowie, 2011).

By logical extension, the fact that James continued formal classroom learning implies that he was therefore less susceptible to the same issues. Whereas James did eventually look beyond the negative aspects of his first classroom learning experience, to counterbalance what would happen should his vision of an ideal-L2 self not be realized (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova,

2014, p. 114), his dissatisfaction with his first classroom experience provided the springboard for him to look beyond its negative aspects. However, little evidence supports his interpreting any of these environmental factors positively or neutrally, which Falout and Maruyama (2004) and Kikuchi (2009) claim is possible. Additionally, as the only participant with the expressed clear goal of becoming a proficient Korean speaker through classroom learning, when this was endangered, he attributed his demotivation directly with the teacher, an action inkeeping with that of a high-proficiency learner. In so doing, James dissociated the negative effect of that current experience from his enduring vision of a learner's ideal L2 self (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 21). James' actions should come as no surprise for two reasons. Firstly, as already noted, empirical studies of demotivation repeatedly show that students perceive motivation as a state owned by them and demotivation as teacher-owned. Finally, James' behavior is entirely supported by studies that show a lack of a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere, skilled teachers and choice as the most important demotivators (Rudnai, 1996) and teachers' behaviours and attitudes, context and classroom format and structure as the most significant demotivators (Gorham & Millette, 1997). The monotony of lessons, unmotivated fellow classmates and particularly the "poor ... instructional approach that teachers used in the classroom" (Kikuchi, 2015, p. 59) were all demotivating issues James experienced.

While Duncan's criticisms partially mirror the six-factor demotivation model of Sakai and Kikuchi (2009), they possibly more closely correspond to Kikuchi's (2015, pp. 52-54) revised four-factor model of demotivation comprising (1) teacher behavior; (2) class environment; (3) experiences of difficulty and (4) loss of interest. Duncan had no interest in test scores or acceptance by teacher and classmates which partially define the third demotivating factor of Sakai and Kikuchi (2009, p. 61). However, the same authors note that while they expected teacher variables to be the strongest demotivating factor, they emerged on par with a cluster of more internal variables, a finding supported by Falout et al. (2009).

However, two points in the literature may not necessarily correspond to the experience of James. As a learner with clear goals it would be expected that he would be able to look beyond the negative learning environment and remain focused on the learning, not the environmental conditions (Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Kikuchi, 2009). This was not the case. James left his first Korean class because of the negative learning environment. Nor is it necessary entirely accurate to state that his was an example of persistence depending both on the initial motivation and the realization of how this unfolds over time with future-oriented students tending to be more persistent, willing and resolute when engaging in non-interesting

behaviour (Dörnyei, Henry & Muir, 2016, p. 29). A different interpretation of this finding could be that by leaving his first Korean language programme, James addressed any real or imagined barriers ‘head on’ (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova 2014, pp. 97-98). The non-interesting behaviour was the catalyst for him to take such action in order to persevere with his resolution to become a Korean speaker.

Interestingly, a factor and event that could be classified as non-classroom related gives additional insight into issues participants may bring with them into it. Neither James nor Duncan referred to a ‘low regard for English-speaking people’ (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009, p. 61), which when transferred to this context would refer to Korean people. It could be argued that all other participants who undertook classroom learning brought with them into the Korean language instructional setting pre-existing demotivating factors especially reduced self-confidence largely informed by experiences of failure (Dörnyei, 1998). They attributed these factors to perceived repeated attempts to use Korean in daily life not being understood due to their pronunciation, a lack of accommodation and a perception that Koreans (where possible) would prefer to use English, issues they placed externally. That these may have been established prior to classroom study, is highly pertinent. Vernon, for example made the point that ‘... a demotivating factor is talking with other foreigners about the pointlessness of learning Korean’. It is therefore questionable as to what degree participants, such as Duncan, who after such a short time studying Korean and attributing so many demotivating factors onto the Korean classroom, possessed any tangible intrinsic motivation, self-determination or an L2 vision before entering it.

These qualities were present in Sharon and James. Evidence of this is provided by the fact that they were the only participants able to reactivate their demotivated Korean learning through activities which limited the motivational damage that they were experiencing. “This process of affirming this sense of motivational autonomy becomes the process of self-motivation ... the process of *getting your motivation on line again*” (Ushioda, 1998, p. 86). In this way, they redressed the issue of a reduced sense of self confidence or an experience of lack of success, or failure (Dörnyei, 1998) as opposed to the remaining members of this cohort. For those at the action stage of the process model of motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998), (no matter how briefly or regardless of level of commitment), it appears that strong, negative evaluative feelings towards the L2 and the L2 community were ignited “which in turn affect[ed their] subsequent commitment to learn the language” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 149). These may well have been compounded by and further rationalized by the argument that as speakers of the international lingua franca, any need to learn an L2 was



redundant (Chambers, 1993; Crystal, 2003).

To sum up, as these findings bear a striking similarity to those of demotivated participants in previous studies by Chambers (1993) and Dörnyei (1998), the logical conclusion to draw is that participants in this study were similarly unmotivated before commencing learning Korean and that the external factors and events they attributed their demotivation to were rationalizations of the reality (perhaps to some extent subconsciously) that they were not sufficiently motivated to learn Korean internally.

Finally, while multiple studies attribute language learners' demotivation to largely external teacher and classroom-related issues, Falout et al. (2004) make the point that internal, or reactive, demotivational factors may give a clearer indication of learning outcomes over external factors, suggesting that more proficient learners build self-confidence in their L2 acquisition. This finding has a direct correlation with this study. The only participant to confront the classroom-related issues that stood in the way of his L2 acquisition attributed these externally. This is consistent with the finding of Falout et al. (2004), that high-proficiency learners have been found to be more likely to attribute their demotivation to external factors. However, after 16 years as a Korean-classroom learner, James still identified as an 'upper intermediate' level Korean user. This being the case, James' externalization of his dissatisfaction with his first formal Korean class may be better understood as a way to rationalize and therefore better manage his demotivation. As Ushioda (1998, p. 86) notes, "by projecting the responsibility of their loss of motivation onto external causes in this way, learners may be better able to limit the motivational damage and disassociate the negative effect they are currently experiencing from their own enduring motivation for wanting to learn the language". By contrast, Sharon's experiences illustrate that regardless of one's self-perception as a high or low proficiency learner, sufficient internal motivation may largely supersede the need to attribute demotivation externally. Attribution theory "links people's past experiences with their future achievement efforts by introducing *causal attributions* as the mediating link. As the main proponent of the theory, Bernard Weiner (1992) argued, the subjective reasons to which we attribute our past successes and failures considerably shape our motivational disposition underlying future action. If, for example, we ascribe past failure in a particular task to low ability on our part, the chances are that we will not try to activity ever again, whereas if we believe that the problem lay in our insufficient effort, or the unsuitable learning strategies that we had employed, we are more likely to give it another try" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 79). Attribution theory explains why Sharon was able to remain largely motivated to negotiate the difficulties she faced in acquiring Korean, when compared with her

unsuccessful experience learning Spanish as a compulsory subject in high school, a task she was largely unmotivated to perform because it was ascribed.

## **5.8 Conclusion**

This study addressed the following research questions: (a) Which factors acted as demotivators for participants to learn Korean? (b) Which specific external event, or events, significantly diminished participants' continued behavioural intent? And (c) How were participants able to counter situational demotivation?

Firstly, in addressing research question one, this study found that participants tended to lose their Korean-language learning motivation. While participants that undertook classroom instruction in Korean did partially attribute their resulting lack of motivation to classroom-related issues, they also attributed this to the larger issue which may well have been due to pre-existing factors that they brought with them into the Korean-language classroom. Their initial experiences in daily life in South Korea may have led them to believe that there was little to no need to learn the national language of their host nation which was a smaller language. This was reinforced by participants' perception that there was little accommodation accorded them as non-native speakers of Korean. In this context, participants also largely believed that the Korean desire to acquire English, or for fear of using it, resulted in their attempts to access Korean communities, particularly in their English language centre workplaces, being prohibitive. Therefore, any resulting negative attitudes towards the Korean-language community and aspects of Korean culture led to strong negative evaluative feelings affecting any subsequent commitment to learning Korean inside or outside the classroom. It is perhaps not surprising given that participants also noted the time and cost factor of learning Korean as demotivating.

Turning to research question two, through their readily displayed susceptibility to demotivation, participants displayed that they lacked sufficiently strong future L2 visions and were therefore relatively poorly equipped to deal with the episodes of situational demotivation that inevitably accompany the ebbs and flows of L2 acquisition. In the classroom learning context, participants specifically noted the teaching methodology, curriculum and resources, and therefore the teacher as their most demotivating events. In some instances, the number of students, their behaviour and the range of levels in the same class were also cited leading to demotivation. Beyond the classroom, in the broader sociocultural context, participants largely attributed their loss of motivation to the negative gatekeeping encounters they experienced as non-native Korean speakers.

Turning to research question three, as negative evidence, two participants, Sharon and James were more able to employ strategies to counter the situational demotivation they experienced than participants who experienced less motivation to acquire Korean. For Sharon, this largely involved further noting the gaps in her Korean proficiency and undertaking relevant self-study before attempting to re-enter her Korean communities. For James, this entailed removing himself from the demotivating formal classroom language situation he was in to one that more suited his needs. However, it is interesting to note that the participant who was reluctant to be identified as a high-proficiency learner was more successful in this endeavour than the other, who by attributing his demotivation externally onto the Korean classroom could be viewed as self-identifying as a high-proficiency learner. In summary, from the perspectives recounted by participants, demotivation can be viewed as existing on a continuum. At one end, their lack of motivation represents the culmination of multiple demotivating factors and events in already amotivated language learners which is then attributed to their lack of language-learning motivation. Conversely, and depending on the strength of their future L2 self-guide, the motivated language learner may also experience situational demotivation. However, they may be more able to manage their language learning motivation.

This study confirms that while the literature on demotivation consistently finds the teacher and classroom-related issues as the most demotivating for L2 learners, the potentially demotivating factors learners bring with them to the classroom setting should not be overlooked as they can potentially effect a learner's resulting demotivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 149). Finally, this study has shown that the more internally motivated a learner may be, the less inclined they may be to externalize issues of demotivation.

This study is the first to examine how issues of unmotivation, demotivation and amotivation impact on the willingness of English-speaking EFL instructors to invest in Korean language learning and is so doing concurs with the statement that "... there would be considerable practical significance in understanding why some learners can bounce back after a demotivating episode, while others completely lose interest" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 101). Finally, the degree to which participants' experiences are unique to South Korea, or would be replicated in comparable scenarios is a question that further research could profitably explore. It is also important to note this study's limitations. As a colleague of participants, the author's shared profile arguably created an empathetic and conducive atmosphere which may have influenced interviewees and therefore the interviews themselves. Further studies would benefit from analysis of a wider cohort's experience (in terms of

employment), to be conducted in other host societies with small national languages by a researcher unknown to participants.

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## **Interlude**

In adopting various theoretical lenses, chapters two to five have provided various means by which to analyse issues that have impacted on the motivation of participants to learn Korean. Taken from these various micro and macro perspectives, they present a series of portrayals for the perspectives of the self in the context of the societal and more specifically, participants' perceptions of their place in South Korea. Chapter six assumes a different perspective, one in which motivation and experiences of participants are all viewed from the perspective of the individual operating in the globalized world, and more specifically, the shifting marketplace that may accompany the process of globalization. In this, the final constituent chapter, the theoretical lens applied places participants in this context is used to illustrate how both they, and the host nation in which they currently reside, are impacted upon by the same forces of globalization. Specifically, this paper examines how participants may interpret their host nation's interpretation of globalization as it affects them. In so doing, both the potential future opportunities and significant challenges participants may face in the globalized landscape, and more specifically as EFL instructors in it, are revealed.

## **Chapter 6. The ‘confounding nature’ of Korean – native-speaking EFL instructors’ relationship with the national language of their host nation.**

### **6.1 Abstract**

A predicted decline in the number of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners in the second decade of this century (Graddol, 2006) would appear to be cause for serious concern for native-speaking EFL instructors. For those working permanently ‘on location’ in a ‘host nation’, one seemingly pragmatic response to this perceived threat to their long-held status and security would be the learning of the national language of that society, should that not have taken place previously. Potentially, this may enable the gaining of a stronger foothold into that society, or beyond, and result in a widening of employment possibilities, thereby defusing this threat. However, in investigating the impact of global English on the motivation of 14 university EFL instructors living in South Korea to do so, this study found otherwise, reaching the same conclusion as Ushioda (2017, p. 469). She also expressed surprise that the spread of global English does not appear to have impacted on the motivation of such potentially affected individuals to diversify their language ability. Data analyzed from semi-structured in-depth interviews and diaries revealed that the influence of global English and globalization among this cohort of native English speakers significantly diminished their motivation to learn Korean, unless there were very specific intrinsic reasons to do so. As the article concludes, an important implication is revealed. The status accorded native-English speaking EFL instructors is under direct threat by the very forces of globalization that initially offered these individuals so much opportunity. Ironically, this challenge comes via emergent L2, and even L3, English speakers presenting as potentially stronger alternative applicants with far greater competitive edge in the employment market. Disconcertingly, participants’ seeming absence of any strategy in the face of such potential challenges appears to be indicative of a wider malaise – perceived entitlement, obliviousness or denial.

**Key Words:** Global English, globalization, international posture, lingua franca, attitudes, motivation

## 6.2 Introduction

While the globalized marketplace has accorded L1 English-speaking EFL instructors a set of opportunities unimaginable even a generation ago, the changing nature of this landscape poses new challenges for them. However, in terms of the literature and empirical research, little *direct* insight into how they have, or may respond is provided due to the research community's persistent focus on English as the target language (Boo, Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). In addition, there has, to date, been a lack of an appropriate theoretical lens from which to analyse the motivation of learners of languages other than English (LOTEs). This is significant given that the nature of the changing globalized landscape potentially affects many thousands of such individuals. The aim of this study, therefore, is to use a theoretical lens that specifically adapts aspects of the L2 motivational self system for empirical studies of learners of LOTEs. By placing specific, well-known theoretical constructs, particularly self images and the ought-to self to this study's own context, it may, by extension facilitate the same for other studies of similar cohorts in other contexts around the world. This gap in the literature is surprising given the enormity of the globalization and the concurrent global English experience in Asia and particularly the North-East, where no research on native-English speakers as L2 learners appears to have been conducted.

Precisely because its focus is on L1 English speakers as learners of a smaller Asian language, this study faces two key challenges. Firstly, theoretical lenses applied to L2 motivation over the last quarter century have almost exclusively focused on English as the target language (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 456). Secondly, while such research has often been focused on and in monolingual contexts (e.g. Japan and China), the unintended result has been a lack of attention being paid to the learning of other languages in other contexts (Boo, Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The result of these two factors is itself two-fold. Firstly, this oversight may not do full justice to the understanding of the motivation underlying LOTEs (learners of languages other than English), and secondly, it raises the issue of whether previously employed lenses are equally applicable to understanding individuals' motivation to learn them (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 455).

There is an urgent need to address these questions simply because of the scale of the phenomenon. Because of globalization, there has been an unprecedented surge in human mobility in the 21<sup>st</sup> century from both English and non-English-speaking nations (p. 456). Globalization refers to the integration of national economies into one international flow of trade, capital, foreign investment, migration and spread of technology, with this inevitable trend posing a challenge for East Asian nations (Han, 2014, p. 225). This is due to the

widespread perception there that the language of globalization is English and populations not proficient in its use may well be denied its benefits. While this may initially appear as an invitation to assume subservience to this new status quo, in South Korea's case this seeming passive compliance can be explained by one simple belief. That English is accorded an almost unquestioned respect is because the country's very economic survival depends on proficiency in it (Song, 2012, p. 14). This acceptance of the new-world order is increasingly typical in non-English-speaking countries, where English is now viewed as the undisputed, indispensable lingua franca (Clyne & Sharifan, 2008, p.9).

In South Korea, this viewpoint has spurred four significant issues that have facilitated the movement of tens of thousands of L1 English speakers there, in response. Firstly, English has been elevated to assume the role of important criterion in educational performance and assessment (Song, 2012, p. 14). Secondly, and by extension, because the government sees English as so vital to the national interest, from 1997 it has been taught as a compulsory subject in every primary school. This leads to the third factor, that those dissatisfied with the school system, and those in the wider society who feel compelled to acquire English, invest vast financial resources in its acquisition (p. 14). Finally, the seemingly extreme stance that led to the 1998 and 2005 debates on whether South Korea should be adopted English as an official language, resulted in the pursuit of English being described as an 'obsession' or 'frenzy' in academia and the media (e.g. Park, 2009).

For speakers of the international lingua franca facing potential underemployment, or even unemployment, in their western home countries (of which a subset may have already been English as Second Language teachers), such a 'frenzy' would appear to offer the perfect solution to their immediate predicament. For others, a sojourn to South Korea could well provide a far more secure, and therefore attractive, alternative to the more traditional, transient, notion of the working holiday abroad. Regardless of the motivation, the allure has proven successful with over 30,000 foreigners working in South Korea as English instructors (Habid, 2014). This is not surprising given that any bachelor's degree, and no accompanying specific skill-set or experience, qualifies an individual to become an EFL instructor there. Having then gained some EFL instructing experience within South Korea, it is quite possible to then be recruited to continue instructing at university level. For those fortunate enough to secure such a position, their Korean-teaching experience could well provide a stepping stone into a career path in EFL teaching – should they be suitably motivated. While it is possible to gain such employment in universities in rural settings or in some regional cities, once employed such employees are typically expected to gain a relevant tertiary qualification. In

the major cities, a relevant tertiary qualification is a prerequisite requirement of most universities.

There are three good reasons to believe that globalization may enable such an emergent vision to become reality. In referring to non-native speakers of English, Blommaert (2010, p. 189) makes the point that in this increasingly transnational world, English is the ‘code’ most closely linked to financial success. Secondly, for those speakers, the winners will be those with the ‘wherewithal’ to embrace the opportunities offered (p. 59). Thirdly, this will be far more accessible to those possessing international posture, or “an interest in foreign affairs, willingness to go overseas to study or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners and ... a non-ethnocentric attitude toward other cultures” (Yashima, 2000, p. 57). While Yashima is referring to non-native speakers of English who seek to use English as a vehicle to engage with the international community, there is no reason to preclude native-speakers from access to such opportunities.

In summary, the lack of empirical studies of native-English speakers operating in globalized environments is surprising given the enormity of the globalization and concurrent global English experience. No such research on native-English speakers as L2 learners appears to have been conducted in South Korea, where English fever is unparalleled, is a significant gap in the literature that this study aims to fill.

### **6.3 Theoretical framework and literature review**

The dynamics caused by English as global lingua franca in a globalized often world evoke strong and polarized responses. On one side are those in agreement with Crystal (2003). He believes that English must be seen alongside an emerging set of relationships which are no longer associated with historical political authority. For native-English speakers working in host nations, these are significant in two ways. Firstly, he describes a model in which English now plays a central role in empowering and eroding divisions of class where local languages express local identity and English is the means of achieving a global presence. Secondly, the ownership and control of English will shift meaning that the evolution of English will be more influenced by non-native English users in the future.

In contrast, researchers of colonial discourses (Pennycook, 1994, 1998) and linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992, 2008, 2009) emphasize the decline of other languages caused by globalization. Therefore, those who derive their income from the dissemination of the international lingua franca may be implicated in any such demise as they participate in the globalization process. Seidlhofer (2009), for example, depicts s as free agents mutually taking

part in a shared repertoire which is ideologically complemented by acceptance of the neo-liberal status quo (p. 238). Regardless, faced with such an analogy, Phillipson (2008) may be justified in summing up that positioning English as a ‘culturally neutral’ lingua franca, which treats everyone equally is ‘untrue’ (p. 5). A third viewpoint observes that globalization “forces sociolinguistics to unthank its classic distinctions and biases and to rethink itself as a sociolinguistics of mobile resources, framed in terms of trans-contextual networks, flows and movements” (Blommaert, 2010, p. 1).

Depending on the attitudes of affected native-English speakers, each of the three viewpoints provides one of two clear contrasting responses, which may reveal much about their second language motivation. The first possible response is that in addition to non-native speakers, speakers of the international lingua franca can also take advantage of the greater employment and entrepreneurial opportunities awaiting those who possess transferable skills and the necessary motivation to realize that potential (p. 59). For these individuals, their motivation may include a willingness to learn the first language of any host society they move to. The second, or default, option enables the seeking of refuge in the evolutionary view of language to simply await the day when a world speaking only their language would render the need to learn others redundant (Crystal, 2003, p. 150), a view he neither embraces or believes is wise. As members of an elite cohort, entitlement and dismissiveness towards other languages would ensue (p. 14). In a globalized world, far from embracing international posture, looseness of attachment to places and people, or endless grazing would characterize their lives (Jawaorski & Thurlow, 2013, p. 257).

However, attempting to interpret how potentially-affected native-English speakers in South Korea will interpret this choice, is problematic due to the afore-mentioned focus in the literature. Even in the new multilingual, multicultural environment, the small number of examinations of learners of LOTE continue to reinforce the theme of the powerful influence of English as a demotivating factor in European settings (Busse, 2017; Lasagabaster, 2017), Japan (McEwon, Sawaki & Harada, 2017) and the United States (Thompson, 2017). Corresponding studies focusing on English speakers as learners of LOTE represent a fraction of the same literature. These include studies of English L1 learners of Italian as an L2 by in the UK (Ferrari, 2013) and heritage learners of Italian in New Zealand (Berardi-Wiltshire, 2009). The complexity of the relationship between language and ethnic identity in multilingual contexts highlight the difficulty of preventing the apparent inevitable intergenerational shift to the dominant language particularly among immigrant groups (Fisham, 2001) and the associated problems in the promotion of heritage languages (Ricento,



2005). In the bilingual educational context, the acquisition of English may even threaten the retention of Spanish, or even be associated with its loss (Krashen, 2000). However, Sayahi (2005) shows that it is possible for minority groups to avoid assimilation into the majority language. “Even more, the presence of such a minority, along with the cultural and economic value associated with their country of origin, may stimulate the majority group’s interest in them” (p. 95). However, this finding is not reflected in the conclusions of studies into the decreasing number of English speakers as L2 learners which are further limited to the United Kingdom (see Lanvers, 2012, 2013, 2016, 2017; Pickett, 2009). The resulting de-motivating effect of global English on the learning of LOTEs there seems to offer a plausible rationale for the generally poor language learning efforts of L1 English speakers (Lanvers, 2013, p. 1). Specifically, Pickett (2009) claims this decline of interest in LOTEs in the UK is due to a perceived lack of usefulness and profitability, finding that most adults learning European foreign languages do so due to intrinsic motivation. These include enjoyment and personal reasons, rather than for extrinsic reasons, or actions carried out to achieve an instrumental end, such as employment or business.

In summary, beyond the very few studies of L1 English speakers as learners of LOTEs in very select western settings, there is no empirical evidence to corroborate the findings of the researchers listed in the last paragraph. Therefore, Duff’s (2017, p. 597) observation that “with passing references to Arab or Chinese, the focus of such studies on European languages presents an opportunity for motivation researchers to broaden the reach of their work to other contexts” is highly appropriate. Also relevant is her questioning of the validity of theories associated with the motivation to learn English being applied in studies of those acquiring LOTEs (p. 599).

With its focus on the largely uncharted research area of the learning of LOTEs in the globalized, multilingual world, *The Modern Language Special Edition*, 101, 3, 2017, begins to redress the research imbalance Duff outlines. It also provides two means to address the second of the issues she raises. This article continues this process and broadens it to specifically focus on the language learning motivation of native-English speakers of Korean. As such, it addresses the first of the issues raised by Duff to specifically refer to South Korea. These then form the research questions used in this article. Secondly, two authors of another article in the same issue list five areas where the reconceptualizing of L2 motivation is needed to account for learners of LOTEs. Their framework informs the findings and discussion sections in this paper which are organized under relevant corresponding headings.

Firstly, Ushioda and Dörnyei (2017, p. 451) ask: (1) How far are current mainstream theoretical perspectives adequate to account for motivation to learn LOTEs?; and (2) What impact does global English have on motivation to learn second or foreign languages in a globalized yet multicultural and multilingual world? These authors make the case that for learning global English, theoretically differentiated approaches to the psychology of L2 motivation, in relation to others may be required (p. 452). More, significantly, deep rethinking is necessary as current self and identity L2 motivation concepts at the individual-psychological level are grounded in global English concepts and the associated empirical findings have been used to develop recommendations for educational policy and classroom practice. This leads these authors to then ask if such perspectives require refining or redevelopment to better account for language-learning processes of other target languages to provide more relevant pedagogical insights. Regarding their second research question, they ask how the motivation to learn global English interacts with the learning of LOTEs and whether these interactions are positive, or negative. The second question also expands the focus of L2 research to a macro-sociological perspective to include sociopolitical and educational factors that may impact on individuals' motivation to learn LOTEs. To conclude, the authors make the point that the motivation to learn LOTEs is a significant issue for all concerned with the promotion of language learning beyond global English (p. 452).

Secondly, in providing deeper insight into the first of the research questions posed by Ushioda and Dörnyei (2017), Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017, p. 455) suggest five main areas where current conceptualizing of L2 motivation, including the L2 motivational self-system, do not do full justice to an understanding of the motivation that underlies LOTEs. The L2 motivational self-system comprises three aspects, the ideal L2 self, the ought-to self and the L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, 2005). Firstly, the ideal L2 self represents the attributes an L2 learner wishes to possess and is a powerful motivating force to learn the L2 to reduce the discrepancy between the actual self or a future vision of the individual as an L2 speaker. Secondly, the ought-to L2 self, or what the learner believes should be possessed, represents the sense of duty, obligation and responsibility felt in response to expectations of others. The third aspect, the L2 learning experience refers to situation-specific motives of an L2 learner's environment and experience (pp. 105-106).

In terms of this reconceptualizing of L2 motivation, factors suggested by Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) include the need for a broadened perspective of the ought-to self by downplaying key factors or by not sufficiently nuancing representations of areas where the motivation to learn English and LOTEs diverge, including: (a) the confounding interaction of

English and LOTE-related self-images; (b) the individualistic focus of the ideal L2 self; (c) the different nature/role of the ought-to self associated with languages with substantial versus marginal social support; (d) the different nature of goals in the learning of English and LOTEs; and (e) the differing role of subconscious motives in the study of English and LOTEs. Finally, due to its appropriateness when L2 learners are necessarily located in particular cultural and historical contexts, a person-in-context perspective more clearly illustrate how L2 learners are affected by their environments over individual difference research which depersonalizes them (Ushioda, 2009, p. 216). For this reason, this perspective is utilized in this study.

In summary, Lasagabaster (2017, p. 591) notes that while research does seem to link the hegemony of English with the detrimental effect on students' motivation to learn LOTEs (see Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006), he makes the point that this issue needs further research. That a significant number of native-English speakers, as potential learners of LOTEs, currently reside in Asian settings, where no evidence of any related studies has been observed, only strengthens his point.

To conclude, no nation has experienced English fever, or the insatiable desire to embrace English, more than South Korea. However, no study has examined the impact of the rise of global English on EFL instructors, who have lived in South Korea for up to 15 years. This is significant because globalization may potentially challenge their status quo. Specifically, their long-held linguistic, cultural capital and professional identities, may be losing their value (Holliday, 2005). Ultimately, how these native-English speakers interpret this pending challenge to their livelihoods, informs this study.

### **6.3.1 Research questions**

- 1) What impact does global English have on the motivation of native-English speakers to learn Korean in a globalized world?
- 2) What is the response of native English speaking EFL instructors in South Korea to the potential challenges globalization poses to their livelihoods?

## **6.4 Methodology**

### **6.4.1 Participants**

For this study, 14 native English speakers were recruited to be participants from this researcher's professional network within South Korea. All participants were employed as English language instructors at university language centres at South Korean universities. The majority of participants taught in regional cities and a small minority, in rural settings. Seven participants worked at the same university, with participants three and seven being the only two to be employed on tenured contracts. The remaining seven participants were recruited from seven different language centres around South Korea to counter any possible biases that conducting such a study at only one institution may have introduced. Table 3 outlines the details for each participant, by ethnicity, gender, age, qualifications, and the amount of work experience in South Korea.

<i><b>Participant (pseudonym)</b></i>	<i><b>Ethnicity</b></i>	<i><b>Age</b></i>	<i><b>Qualifications (Highest degree obtained)</b></i>	<i><b>Number of years of work experience in South Korea</b></i>
John	South Africa	26	BA (Human Resource Management)	2
James	England	28	BA (English Literature)	2
Richard	United States	49	MA in TESOL	15
Andy	New Zealand	34	Bachelor of Hospitality Management	4
Barry	United States	34	BA (Broadcasting)	10
Patricia	United States	29	BA (Anthropology)	4
Sharon	United States	32	MBA	10
Robert	New Zealand	64	MA (Education)	11
Angela	United States	57	MA (Creative Writing)	9
Duncan	England	39	MA (English Language Teaching)	6
Paul	Australia	28	MA in TESOL	5
James	Canada	40	BA (English Literature)	11
David	Canada	49	BA (Psychology)	10
Vernon	Canada	46	BA (Computer Science)	6

*Table 3: Participant details*

#### **6..4.2 Procedures**

Two methods were used to gain data. The first was diaries that participants were asked to keep for two weeks prior to the second, the in-depth semi-structured interview. Participants were given no specific requests or instructions about which themes to include in their diaries. For the six participants that chose to do so, this offered them the opportunity to reflect on any issue related to their experience of learning Korean. Participants were invited to bring their diaries to their in-depth interviews which comprised the primary data-collection method. There, they could choose to use the diary as reference point from which to expand on certain aspects of their experiences during the interview. On conclusion of the interview, they were invited to hand their diary over to the researcher if they were happy for it to be included in the data analysis and five participants did so. The semi-structured interview was selected as the

primary tool for data collection for two reasons. Firstly, because the researcher had years of anecdotal evidence relating to personal experience and observation of peers and colleagues, he therefore believed he had a good enough overview of the phenomenon to be studied, given Dörnyei's (2007, p. 136) assertion that in such situations, they are ideal. The interviews comprised twenty open-ended questions (see appendix 4) which each interviewee was asked. Interviews typically took 60 to 90 minutes to complete. Each participant was interviewed at the venue of their choice. All interviews were audio-recorded and then transcribed.

### **6.4.3 Analysis**

Data analysis took place in two stages. In the first stage, through a process of revisiting the data and line-by-line coding it, it became possible to identify relevant emergent themes (Gibbs, 2007, p. 50). In the second stage of the process of analysis, as coding progresses, the continual reorganizing of these codes allows for their placement in major themes and sub-themes within these major themes (Saldaña, 2013, p. 25). Three major themes did emerge from this process of analysis: (1) the Korean response to globalization; (2) participants' own response to globalization since arriving in South Korea; (3) participants' interpretation of the Korean response to globalization as it related to them. Secondly, line-by-line coding was then undertaken with relevant, emergent, sub-categories being placed under the appropriate category heading. Finally, as the Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) model provides a means from which to highlight where any possible theoretical inadequacies may relate to these themes, the appropriate factor (highlighted) from that model was then placed under the relevant theme which was then placed under the appropriate category heading. This process is presented diagrammatically in figure 5 (below). The responses of native-English speakers to their host nation with a smaller language in a globalized marketplace appears to be largely positive. However, in terms of the potential opportunities offered to integrate with the host society, once there, and in particular by learning Korean, their motivation was affected by various factors associated with the different nature/role of the ought-to self. These factors may be due to a perception that they will be accorded marginal social support, particularly in terms of being accommodated as L2 users of Korean. As noted earlier, resulting demotivation from attempts to communicate with Koreans in their L1 may be partially explained by the concept of gatekeeping. In intercultural contexts, if the interactional style of the gatekeeper (the language learner) is compatible with that of the gatekeeper, the outcome for the gatekeeper is more likely to be positive (Kerekcs, 2007, p. 1942-1943). This can be problematic as in inter-ethnic encounters, the onus is on the gatekeeper to comprehend the native speaker.

However, in order to communicate immigrant language, learners have to learn – frequently under difficult conditions with the learner likely to be assessed according to how they participate (Bremer, Broader, Roberts, Simone & Vasseur, 1993). In supporting the argument put forward by Bremer et al (1993), Norton (2013) makes the point that limited competence in the target language and the power imbalance between the learners and their interlocutors will likely result in negative gatekeeping encounters (pp. 78-79).

As figure 5 illustrates, as opposed to learners of global English, for whom the perception may well be that instrumental and possibly intrinsic benefit will be derived from the acquisition of the global lingua franca, participants' perception of such benefits derived from acquiring Korean were less robust. Largely due to their perception of their place in Korean society (particularly their temporary employment and visa status in one ascribed job role), their perception of experiencing negative gatekeeping encounters in daily life and most notably in the workplace, participants appeared less motivated than global English learners to acquire a smaller L2. The Korean response to globalisation, however, can be largely attributed to the fact that the benefits associated with the acquisition of English will provide far greater comparative benefit and may well explain why Korean employers adopt such strong gatekeeping encounters in the workplace and why, as a society, so much investment and emphasis is placed on the acquisition of global English. The response of native-English speakers to the responses of their Korean host nation can therefore be understood as a general feeling of experiencing negative gatekeeping encounters due to the fact that Koreans have a stronger desire to acquire English than to accommodate them as L2 learners of their L1.

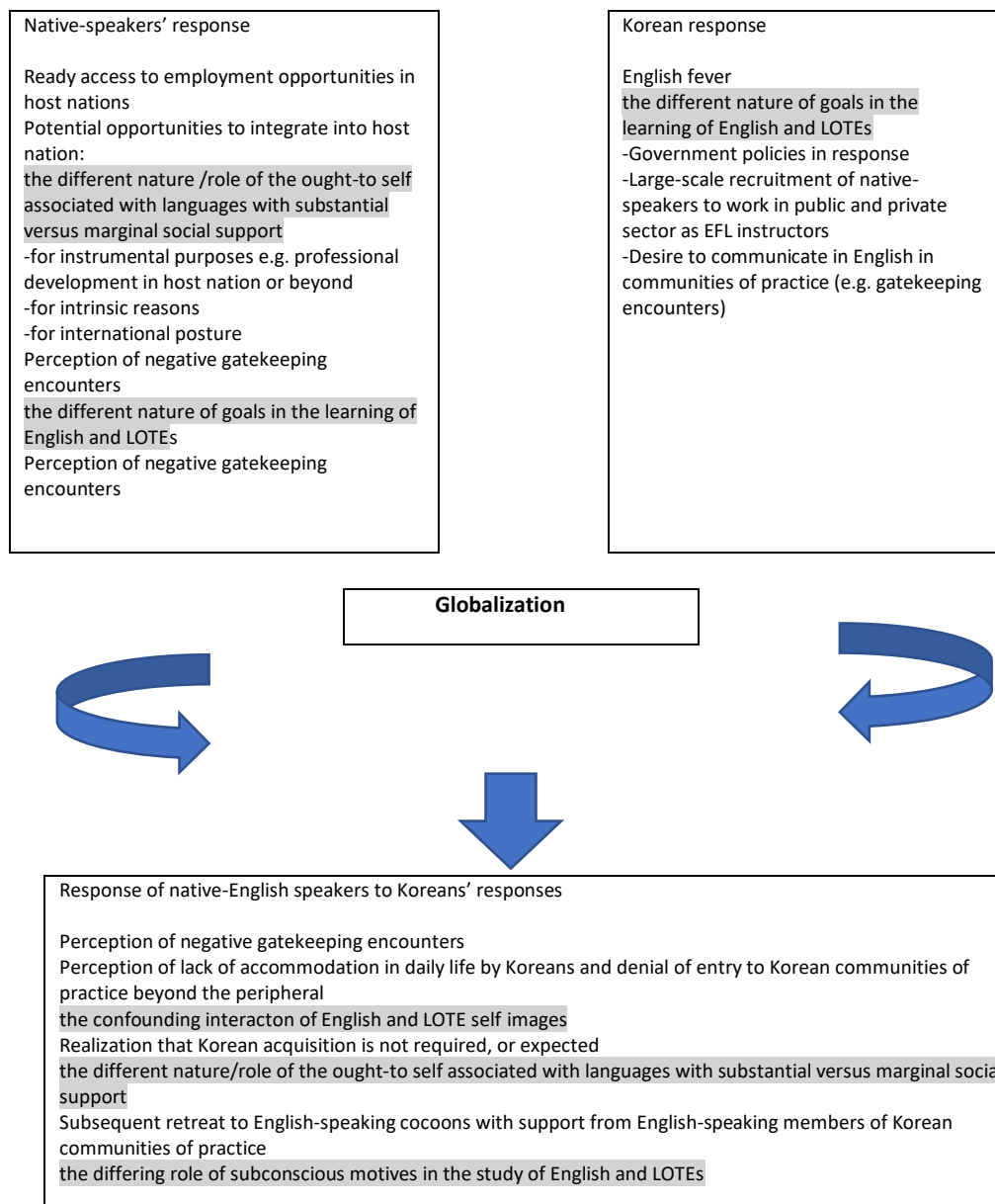


Figure 5: Major themes to emerge from coding process of participant interview data

## 6.5 Findings

The findings show that participants tended to project the obstacles they faced as Korean learners and users back onto Koreans and *their* interpretation of globalization. As such, they did not present as a group believing that their role and status was under any imminent threat due to the forces of globalization. Therefore, when ‘turned on its head’, participants believed that their largely denied access beyond the periphery to Korean communities was attributable to the Korean desire to maximize English-speaking opportunities while preserving their



national identity, in the face of globalization. This perception among participants led to them interpret that many of their gatekeeping encounters with Koreans were negative. In daily life, an unwillingness by Koreans to accommodate participants as non-native speakers of Korean was interpreted as a lack of exposure to foreigners. However, a lack of interest among participants to learn Korean was expressed as an aversion to aspects of Korean culture. Participants formed three groups regarding the first of these issues. The first group comprised John, Andy, Robert, Angela, Duncan and David who were more motivated to pursue other goals over learning Korean for use there. The second group comprised Michael, Richard, Barry, Paul and Vernon, who believed acquiring Korean would be beneficial for use there and exercised some motivation in pursuit of this goal. The third group was made up of exceptions to these two groups. This group included Sharon, for whom learning Korean was her most important goal, in order to integrate with Korean society, and James. He was committed to learning Korean, however more to realize a personal goal and Patricia, who vacillated between being amotivated to motivated, depending on her commitment to remaining in South Korea. In terms of aversion to Korean culture, John, Andy, Barry, Patricia, Angela, Robert and Duncan appeared to express the most negative sentiments with Michael, James Paul and Sharon being the most positive. The remaining participants, including Richard, David and Vernon appeared to express occasional episodes of negativity towards their host nation's culture. Such disdain appeared to be more indicative of participants' own more limited understanding and therefore lack of embracing of international posture. Although there was expressed verbal intent regarding the potential advantages of a working knowledge of Korean either in another host nation or their home countries, little demonstrated commitment to the learning of Korean for these expressed purposes was observed. Two participants provided negative evidence showing a long-term commitment to learning Korean. For Sharon, this was for more intrinsic reasons. For one, this was associated with her Christian faith. For James, it was more related to the personal and academic goal of learning the national language of the particular host nation he was working in at the time. Over time, these participants came to the realization that South Korea would become their permanent base which deepened their commitment to acquiring Korean. The findings presented under the five headings below capture the general themes above. The headings in the findings section present aspects of the five categories where current L2 motivation theorizing does not suitably account for learners of LOTEs (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017).

## **6.5.1 The confounding interaction of English and LOTE self-images**

### **6.5.1.1 Accommodation in daily life**

Nowhere was the confounding interaction between English and Korean observed more by participants than in the complexity of struggle for participation in the contested site of struggle of daily life which was experienced in three different, and sometimes, overlapping ways resulting in participants believing such gatekeeping encounters were negative. Firstly, the drive of Koreans to embrace English would significantly demotivate participants' corresponding motivation to learn Korean. Secondly, and as a natural extension of this, the perceived growing ability, and desire, to use English among Koreans participants encountered in daily life rendered the need for participants to learn Korean as less necessary for survival. Thirdly, for the significant cohort of Koreans for whom English was not part of their daily lives, or a motivation to acquire, participants interpreted their lack of exposure to English as a lack of accommodation of them as Korean speakers. Richard placing this issue into a globalized framework by emphasizing the comparatively recent emergence of South Korea onto the world stage.

... [South Korea] doesn't have a long history of ... foreigners coming here to work in factories and to teach English. ... a lot of times ... a Korean has never actually heard ... an English-speaking person, trying to speak Korean. ... any small kind of change in anything, in pronunciation, no matter ... how small it is, could ... throw them off very quickly.

These factors resulted in the constant tension between attempts by participants to acquire and use Korean and their perception that when attempting to use Korean in daily life this was met with obstacles. However, this tension was coupled with the growing realization, often accompanied with relief, that for many encounters in daily life there was little need for communication beyond 'survival Korean'. Participants, therefore, tended to quickly adapt to a sentiment expressed by Patricia, that '... you can live here for years without speaking the language'. This rationale was used to largely negate participants' motivation to acquire Korean and provided clear evidence of the 'confounding nature' of English and LOTE self-images, particularly the role of global English and specifically in a society where the desire to embrace the international lingua franca brings with it the corresponding perceived need to preserve its own minority language and identity.

### **6.5.1.2 Relationships with Koreans**

This issue of which language would be used by participants in their relationships with Korean speakers in daily life had significant repercussion on friendships, relationships and partnerships in Korean communities. Participants' perception of these gatekeeping encounters interactions with individuals in these groups often negatively impacted on perceived need, or at times led to active discouragement in terms of Korean language use. Participants particularly noted the preference of their Korean friends to engage in conversation with them in English. Patricia interpreting of this phenomenon was typical in two key ways. Firstly, she believed it was an act of politeness intended to include her as the level of English ability among her Korean friends was far greater than her Korean proficiency. Secondly, she believed it offered Koreans opportunities to use and therefore strengthen their English skills, which for those Koreans living outside the metropolitan centres were far more restricted. This point was often cited by participants as a factor contributing to their demotivation to learn Korean. However, some participants, including David, more readily accepted as a 'legitimate excuse' citing his partner's need to develop her English skills, particularly for her study and job, as having priority. Participants in this group also noted feelings of discomfort in what Paul referred to English being the 'default language' used in their relationships.

However, for other participants with Korean partners, the situation could be more complex. This sub-group also found the desire to succeed in English by many Koreans they encountered had direct implications for their L2 identity formation and participants in this sub-group responded in three significant ways. Firstly, given the nature of many of the participants living in regional cities, over time it became easier for the language used inside the relationship, and outside it, to be English. Secondly, this fact was compounded by the motivation of Koreans to acquire English, as Richard's experience with his then future Korean wife illustrates.

When I first started going out with her ... we were ... going back and forth ... both languages. But ... we began to ... lean more toward ... English, once her ... speaking capability got quite strong ... because she had a greater interest in learning English, than I did in learning Korean.

Thirdly, as their Korean partners' English became more proficient, affected participants could communicate in English with them. This led to the fourth effect, that these participants were then able to rely on their Korean partners to deal with daily-life encounters which would

otherwise be problematic, due to the lack of perceived accommodation there. While this streamlined the process of conducting business in Korean, due to the lack of experience of Koreans in dealing with foreigners in such situations, it had an accompanying detrimental effect on participants with Koreans on whom they could rely (particularly with Korean partners). Some expressed annoyance at a perceived attitude of laziness among those working in the service industry, including shops and restaurants when attempting to communicate in Korean, with Richard making the point:

I've ... walked into restaurants ... and tried to speak Korean.... they ... automatically ... ask my wife what we want to order. ... they don't ... put ... any effort ... in [to] trying to understand what the foreigner is trying to say.... my wife usually answers them ... : 'What he just said'.

Therefore, although being able to ask for assistance from their partner in Korean was helpful in daily-life situations where they were not accommodated, it had the further effect of acting as a disincentive to acquire Korean. While some in this group accepted this as an inevitable result, others were more uncomfortable about this, interpreting this set of events as a potential source of disempowerment. Barry, for example, made the point that:

... [my wife's ability to speak Korean] hasn't made my wanting to learn Korean less.... I hate being treated like a baby ... so ... paying bills ... setting up a phone account ... I want to be able to do that myself. ... since I've been married ... she can do them more quickly. ... [therefore] in some ways ... my Korean has gone down.

In summary, participants largely believed that Koreans' greater motivation to acquire and use English was symptomatic of deeper forces driving globalization and largely resulted in negative gatekeeping encounters that prohibited them from gaining access to Korean-speaking communities, resulting in participants believing that the Korean objective of accessing English, while preserving its identity, was met.

#### **6.5.1.3 In the Korean workplace and globalized marketplace**

For participants, their Korean workplaces provided the clearest examples of this dynamic of negative gatekeeping. While largely accepting that they were expected to use English only in the communicative classroom, the fact that they were also expected to use English only with

colleagues and Korean staff, and in some cases were actively discouraged from using Korean, prompted more cynical interpretations. Firstly, participants believed this stance enforced their outsider role as EFL instructors. Secondly, this sent a clear ‘signal’ that there was no further career path available, particularly regarding decision-making processes or deeper involvement with management. This led to an acceptance that there was little or no need to acquire Korean for associated instrumental reasons. When added to their experiences in other Korean communities and in daily life, this resulted in all participants except Sharon, James and (to varying degrees) those in relationships with Koreans (Andy, Barry, Robert, Paul and James), displaying aspects of reactance or a rebellious stance given their belief that their roles were externally ascribed as evidenced by their experiences of negative gatekeeping encounters. However, this ‘rebelliousness’ is not typically found in learners of English (Lanvers, 2016, 2017). Although in part due to the nature of being married to an English-speaking Korean, Richard’s response was typical of the wider group of participants.

I want to be able to communicate ... in Korean. ... [however] I live ... and ... work in an area where I can get along very well without speaking any Korean.

Participants therefore largely accepted, sometimes with frustration, that as L1 English speakers there was little perceived rationale to acquire Korean.

### **6.5.2 The different nature/role of the ought-to L2 self and goals associated with languages with substantial versus marginal social support**

Factors that seeming acted to demotivate the majority of participants from establishing Korean self-images may have served to motivate Sharon and James. Each invested heavily in the acquisition of Korean, however each took a very different pathway to achieve this revealing very different motivations for doing so.

For Sharon, pivotal in her gradual immersion into an almost exclusively Korean-speaking life was her ‘being adopted ... as if I had been born into their family’ of whom ‘not a single ... member speaks English’ (dairy entry). One was her Korean-only speaking roommate of five years who provided access to key Korean communities, via her retail business, clients and friends. Over time Sharon’s life had evolved to the point where ‘everything once I leave school is in Korean’ (in-depth interview). Reaching this point had involved further ‘catalysts’ in addition to those formed through her Korean family and its contacts, including being a member of a Korean-speaking church, volunteering at an

orphanage, purchasing and maintaining a car and apartment, self-studying Korean and taking Korean language and proficiency tests. Admitting Korean ‘is not an easy language’, her motivation was largely derived from the premise that she did not want to be an ‘outsider’.

However, whereas Sharon had never studied Korean formally, for James this was the largely only route by which sought to acquire the language. He had done so continuously (though not consistently) for his entire 16 years in Korea. Initially, his language learning was driven by a belief that ‘I’d be here for a year’. Therefore, James’ experience reflected an *intent* to live a life of international posture and was the only participant to do so, saying:

I [expected that I] would learn to speak the language, in that time ... go to another country, and learn another language, and so on.

However, in reality James’ experience reveals significant differences in the level of commitment he was prepared to invest into the L2 community in South Korea. These were reflective of a more internally based ought-to self over Sharon’s which was more responsive to living in a society in which many in her communities did not speak English and for whom she did not believe they should. Also, as opposed to Sharon, James distanced himself from aspects of Korean society he described as ‘hierarchical’ and formal while indicating a desire for some level of selective interface with other aspects of it. Regarding his Korean friends, James made the point that the nature of these friendships was not because of their culture, but because they were ‘good people’ and expressed a determination not to lead a ‘foreigner ghetto’ existence while in Korea. Secondly, as opposed to Sharon, who largely accepted the inevitable challenges that accompany L2 acquisition, when James realized that he would not become proficient in Korean within his self-imposed timeframe, he *then* adjusted his approach.

In summary, James’ comment that ‘... I’m always going to be the foreign guy sitting over there’ appeared to reflect a more passive acceptance that beyond studying in a formal classroom situation, he neither expected, or felt obligated to integrate with Korean society. Sharon’s ought-to self therefore reflected more closely her L2 vision. Whereas other participants did emphasize the ‘marginal’ social support accorded second language learners of Korean, for Sharon, this served to further motivate her vision to integrate into Korean society via her ought-to self.

### **6.5.3 The differing nature of goals in the learning of English and LOTEs**

#### **6.5.3.1 The status of Korean**

Participants' perceptions of Korean's status as a smaller language with limited diffusion outside Korea had a significant detrimental effect on participants' motivation to acquire it with only specific intrinsic goals motivating Sharon and James. Regarding the majority viewpoint, three participants (John, Robert and Duncan) particularly emphasized that if the national language of their host nation was a language that was spoken widely across many countries by large numbers of speakers, including Spanish (John) or Arabic or Mandarin (Duncan and Robert), then their motivation to acquire it would be greatly enhanced, as outlined by Robert.

... in the globalized setting ... how important is Korean ... it makes much more sense to learn that [Mandarin], even if you are in Korea ... because Chinese ... is ... such a big ... language, particularly in Asia, here.

However, no participant was actively engaged in the acquisition of any of these languages. In addition, participants cited the attainment of qualifications that could be used for career development possibly within South Korea or in other host nations, or in their homelands (although again, no participant was actively pursuing this at the time of the in-depth interviews), with John saying:

... I won't be here for the rest of my life. ... if it was ... Chinese ... you can use in many countries ... but in Korea, it's just for Korea. ... doing an MBA or ... an MA in TESOL ... will be more helpful.

In terms of looking beyond Korea for such career advancement, Robert and Duncan were the sole participants to measure learning Korean in globalized cost/benefit terms, with Duncan stating '... a high level of Korean, to be able to do what I want to ... do ... is going to take years of study ... I might not be here that long ... why bother'.

While noting the advantages of Korean proficiency for networking opportunities and to obtain the F visa, which accords holders the freedom to live in Korea, without being tied to one employer, he concluded:

... what's going to help me get a better job ... in another country? Is it going to be learning Korean, or ... publications, presentations ... developing a better course ... getting better at my teaching craft?

Some participants did, however, express an understanding that Korean proficiency would be potentially useful on return to their homelands, although none of them actively pursued the acquisition of Korean with this intent. Andy and Vernon both made the point that offering homestay for Korean students/tourism was a potential opportunity, with Robert focusing on recruitment for Korean educational providers operating in New Zealand. All participants from the United States particularly noted both the large Korean-speaking communities and within them English learners as a potential motivating force to learn Korean for use there, as summed up by Richard.

I think someone who has ... a background in education and does go back to the States ... to continue ... teaching English [is at an advantage]. ... having the capability to speak one, or two, other languages [is] only going to help you ... gain employment.

However, this also did not appear to be sufficient motivation for affected participants. Patricia, for example, vacillated on returning to the United States, largely due to the fear of employment vulnerability that initially led her to South Korea. It is therefore surprisingly that in the interim period there she had not been motivated to acquire Korean for instrumental use, despite displaying an awareness of its potential opportunities, particularly given that she had no desire to continue English teaching there.

... if I was able to speak Korean ... I could use that skill when I go back to America and get some sort of translator job, or ... if I met someone, who was Korean ... I could show them ... and ... my friends that I could speak ... another language that I would have cause to use.

#### **6.5.3.2 Specificity of goals**

Sharon was unique in that her expressed intent to remain in South Korea significantly impacted on her Korean L2 vision in terms of integrating with her L2 community. This was most clearly demonstrated in her faith. While it was possible to attend a Christian church, where some English was spoken in the proximity of where she lived, she chose to attend a



church where only Korean was spoken due to her ‘love’ of the ‘atmosphere’ there. She also undertook Bible study and related tests in Korean at that same venue. This was clearly challenging for her, requiring the translation of services in a separate room by the only person with sufficient English to do so, a young parishioner. In so doing, however, much insight is revealed into why she was prepared to take such a path, as expressed in day two of her diary that:

... foreigners usually stay for a short period. ... we may be able to speak the same language but not have the same things in common. Close relationships are based on more than the language you speak.

In summary, participants’ experiences tend to indicate that Korean’s status as a smaller language in a globalized world acted as a disincentive in any perceived motivation to acquire it, even among participants who had expressed intent to leave South Korea, and the resulting high probability of employment vulnerability they may well experience once they had done so. However, with an intrinsic desire to enter specific Korean communities, a corresponding high level of motivation was activated and sustained. The motivation and experiences of Sharon, in particular, and James reveal the different nature/role of the ought-to L2 self and goals associated with languages with substantial versus marginal social support, which for other participants was more reflective of their lack of Korean-language learning motivation.

### **6.5.3 Unconscious amotivation**

Participants’ resistance to Korea’s increasingly popular promotion of its identity largely through the through electronic media, both domestically and internationally built on their belief that they largely felt excluded from Korean communities. In cases where Korean culture was presented in English, participants believed Koreans were attempting to gain further access to English while promoting Korean identity through this form of media. This resulted in all participants, except Sharon, projecting a defensive posture, in response. This was expressed by Angela that Korean culture seemed ‘too different’, especially ‘the way people think’. Barry’s unfavourable view of how this culture was then presented through the arts and media was typical of participants.

... I should have more Korean exposure. ... I hate Korean television. ... The music shows, the dramas ... they're terrible. ... I ... wish they were better ... but they're not, so I don't.

Interestingly, although Sharon and James both demonstrated a dedicated motivation to learn Korean, Sharon was the sole participant whose repeated exposure to Korean culture had been a motivating experience in terms of her ideal self-vision.

... I prefer more Korean television ... I listen to Korean music, like all the time. I have no idea what is happening in the world of music ... all my CDs ... are Korean, now. It's been a slow progression ... but I ... like it.

Overall, participants displayed scant interest in Korean culture, as expressed by Patricia having '... no interest in studying Korean history, or anything like that'. This defensiveness was then used to rationalize not viewing Korean language proficiency as a necessity, or a prerequisite, for an understanding of Korean culture with Patricia noting:

I'm not so concerned about the formalities of Korean ... like speaking ... respectfully to someone who is older than me ... or showing that I have ... admiration or appreciation toward Korea or Korean culture by learning the Korean language.

In conclusion, it is difficult to ascertain the degree of participants' subconscious resistance to aspects of Korean culture from the analysed data. While this data offers insight into participants' conscious reflections on their motivation, or lack of motivation, to learn Korean, it is still entirely possible that these experiences of resistance towards aspects of Korean culture provide insight into a pattern of response that is subconscious in origin.

## **6.6 Discussion**

### **6.6.1 The confounding interaction of English and LOTE self-images**

#### **6.6.1.1 Lack of accommodation in Korean communities**

Participants perceived that the workplace was their most initially contested Korean community of practice and where they experienced their most negative gatekeeping encounters. Participants claimed that the need for English and desire for opportunities to use it

by Koreans inhabiting that community and others rendered their need to learn Korean largely redundant. In the workplace, they believed this was part of a wider strategy to exclude them from participation in the decision-making process, to limit them to performing the one role they currently inhabited and therefore denying them access to a broader career path, or promotion within the same one. However, while Coetzee-VanRooy (2006) notes that career goals or curriculum obligations makes the need to learn English common, Thompson (2017, p. 484) makes the point that this is not necessarily so for learners of LOTES. Therefore, while it is understandable that participants felt ‘excluded’, particularly from access beyond the peripheral in their workplace communities, it is also understandable, from the Korean perspective, that there was simply no perceived need for participants to use Korean to fulfil their workplace roles. In other communities, participants’ belief that Korean friends and partners valued the acquisition and use of English over accommodation of English users of Korean to some extent corroborates the comment that learning LOTES may attract support or indifference from some, and discouraging attitudes from others, even from those who speak such languages as their L1 (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 15).

However, participants’ accounts of their Korean self-images – if indeed they had such a self-image at all - was more in response to experiencing an ‘inhabited’ identity ‘ascribed’ by another party (Blommaert 2005, pp. 205-206), in this case from Koreans with a powerful desire to embrace globalization, or from those with no experience of it. Participants’ resulting identities, therefore, reflected how they positioned themselves in society, relative to others, through interactions, knowing their ‘rightful’ place and predisposing them to behave in ways that correspond with the prevailing ideologies of that society (Hemmi, 2014). While language learning is a struggle for participation in another culture (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000, p. 155), participants quickly assimilated two factors that largely informed their subsequent lack of motivation regarding Korean acquisition. Firstly, they realized that survival Korean was sufficient for most interactions requiring any form of spoken communication. In addition, it was possible to largely avoid situations in which detailed Korean knowledge was necessary in daily life. Secondly, in the communities that participants did inhabit, the high level of motivation among many Koreans there to use English was also used to rationalize their resulting amotivation. Overall, this resulted in one common outcome. Participants’ largely retreated to English-speaking ‘cocoons’, believing they were justified to do so as experience had taught them that they were ‘outsiders’. Once there, the perceived denial of access to Korean communities, among some, resulted in non-participation as resistance (Block, 2009).

## **6.6.2 The different nature/role of the ought-to self and goals associated with languages with substantial versus marginal support**

### **6.6.2.1 Reactance and the anti ought-to self**

Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017, p. 461) make the point that “... in almost all cases, learning English is societally valued and institutionally encouraged far more than LOTEs”. However, others may be drawn to a LOTE that is not encouraged. The authors draw on Miron and Brehm (2006, p. 10) who describe such individuals as those high in *psychological reactance*, or ‘freedom-restoration behaviours’. Pickett (2009) also found evidence of learners embracing aspects of international posture, choosing to study a language that would distance themselves from their assigned in-group identity. Although these scenarios may account for the experiences of Sharon and James, they only partially explain their sentiments. Sharon’s gradual realization that she would ‘retire’ in South Korea in turn stimulated her motivation to then more deeply commit to her Korean-language identity over any perceived sense of rebellion or conflict. The original intent of James appeared to closely correlate to aspects of international posture, however he settled in South Korea. Interestingly, as the participant with the strongest Korean self-image, Sharon displayed no evidence of international posture James, who expressed this intent, showed no evidence that acquiring Korean was to distance himself from his English-speaking background. The actions of such individuals may be indicative of the anti-ought-to self (Thompson, 2017). Such individuals may rebel against what they perceive as imposed selves that conflict with their own (Lanvers, 2016, 2017).

#### **6.6.2.1.2 An expected perfect ought-to self**

In her commentary piece (Duff, 2017) makes the point that participants in MacIntyre, Baker and Sparling (2017)’s study of learners of Gaelic in Cape Breton, Canada, reported experiencing ‘hypercritical feedback (or self-monitoring)’ of their linguistic accuracy which may negatively impact on their confidence and motivation (Duff, 2017, p. 601) as Gaelic must compete with the official languages of English and French there. As MacIntyre, et al. (2017, p. 510) note, if participants used Gaelic ‘at all’, the need to be ‘correct’ impaired their willingness to communicate and motivation to learn. In the present study, participants’ experiences reflected a perception that they were also expected to pronounce Korean perfectly and should this not take place, they could not expect to be accommodated. However, most participants did not internalize this by way of a need for a perfect ought-to self-response, largely due to their frustration. Rather, the findings tend to reflect a resulting significant impairment in their willingness to communicate in Korean in response. In the MacIntyre, et

al. (2017) study, one participant emphasized the ‘tension’ between the informally Gaelic learned orally ‘versus’ the formal instruction which emphasized correct forms and grammar usage. This finding largely parallels the experiences of Patricia, Duncan and James, who were critical of the fact that the formal forms of Korean taught in classes were (in their view) not applicable for use in daily life. However, in some respects participants’ reactions may have possible justification when interpreted from one perspective of their host society in which some members may believe that “To have to put up with unpleasant and unwarranted narrative practices from outside the group is one thing; to realize that these have been imposed by people who are, by community definition, not even ‘real’ is another and more bitter one.” (Edwards, 2009, p. 40). While “an implication is that such nationalism is largely a non-rational phenomenon” (p. 186), it may still manifest itself as a heightened awareness of in-group traditions or even fragility to summon a closed belief system (p. 188).

### **6.6.3 The differing nature of goals in the learning of English and LOTEs**

#### **6.6.3.1 The specificity of goals and visions when learning LOTEs**

While participants largely displayed no specific reason to learn Korean, the two factors of challenge and specificity which can significantly impact the motivation of a learner of a LOTE, applied to Sharon. Firstly, Lanvers (2017, p. 526) makes the point that some highly motivated learners reject the British image of insularity there and embrace one that is different, thereby defining a new form of motivation for L2 learners, operating in challenging circumstance, over other alignments and the same motivation may well apply to an American (see Thompson, 2017). Secondly, a defining feature of LOTE acquisition is that it often takes place for a ‘highly specific’ and ‘personalized’ reason (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 462).) When this “is intimately bound up with one’s Christian faith ... this motivation becomes very powerful and sustaining” (Ushioda (2013, pp. 224-225). While some religions today require some level of linguistic ritual for faith development to take place, other followers prefer to practice their faith in the original language of that religion, which in Christianity may be Greek or even Latin (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 462). Therefore, in a globalized context, that Sharon chose to practice her faith in accordance with the language that was used in her place of worship could also be viewed as a modern equivalent of desiring a greater perceived authenticity. However, in terms of religion, making such a commitment can raise issues relating to the ownership of the LOTE. Even outsiders, who have become fluent on a practical level, may find themselves still closed off from selected deeper forms of communication (Edwards, 2009, p. 55). While Sharon’s motivation to belong to a community which was

defined by a shared belief system can account for its willingness to accommodate her, once achieved, in-group solidarity is then built on (p. 188). In summary, despite the obvious practical challenges of entering a religious community in which Sharon's first language was not spoken, its accommodation of her was largely derived of the shared belief between her and its members.

#### **6.6.4 Unconscious motivation**

Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017, pp. 463-464) draw on Robert Zajonc, who in 1968 showed that repeated exposure leads to a more favourable attitude of the stimulus which operates *subconsciously* (Bargh, 2016). Specifically, in reaction to the spread of global English, the result can be society's resistance to it (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 463), citing Apple, Da Silva, & Fellner (2013). These authors refer to Japan, where learners can subconsciously resist this promotion, as evidenced by the imbalance between the resources invested in English acquisition and the rate of success. These authors also specifically address the issue that the exposure effect of technology has 'amplified the prevalence' of global English, particularly among the young. Given South Korea's pre-eminence as a technological leader, and with interest in its culture, spurred in large part by the 'Korean wave', participants received an unparalleled ease of access to the 'amplified prevalence' of its culture, through music, film, television, the internet and social media. However, this did not accord with a more favourable response to it from them. The discussion will now address issues related to research question number two.

#### **6.6.5 The impact of global English on the learning of other second languages in a globalized yet multicultural and multilingual world**

##### **6.6.5.1 A Korean ought-to self in a globalized employment marketplace**

As opposed to Indo-European languages, East Asian languages are considered truly foreign for L1-English speakers as the linguistic and cultural codes of those languages are unrelated to and quite distant from English (Jordan & Walton, 1987, p. 11). The language difficulty rankings, compiled by the US Department of State, place Korean in category III, which includes languages that are the most difficult to learn for native English speakers requiring approximately four times as much learning hours than those in category I group, which includes French and Spanish (Pyun, Kim, Cho & Lee, 2014, p. 54). However, rewards may potentially await those that persist. The US Department of State also classifies Korean as one of the 13 critical need foreign languages and proficient and qualified American speakers of

Korean are significantly in demand for interpreting and translation roles. Ushioda (2017, p. 473) draws on the Modern Language Association (2007, p. 1) post 9/11 report which highlights the inability of the United States to communicate with or comprehend other parts of the world due to language failures.

However, native speakers of English may not seek to fill such a void. “The costs and hardship of language learning will continue to work in favour of a single predominant language. Linguists do not want to hear about these hardships ... but the growing abstinence of native speakers of English ... from language learning tells another story” (Ammon, 2013). This is also partly because it seems “... unlikely that any other language can ‘dethrone’ as the clearly predominant world language, as especially the world lingua franca in the foreseeable future” (p. 119). In responding to Graddol’s (2006) prediction that Mandarin and Spanish appear to be on the rise, Ammon makes the point that Graddol’s predictions are based on scenario planning and previous development and therefore may be over-confident given the perceived poor predictability of economic developments. In addition, languages other than English will tend to be used internationally, mainly for bilateral contact (Ammon, 2013, p. 119). Nevertheless, participants largely viewed Korean as having little potential use outside South Korea, which when added to their experiences of it being difficult to learn and use, was used to justify their perceived linguistic complacency. This is despite Graddol’s (2006) picture of a bleak economic future awaiting marginalized English speakers who will have lost their advantage to those who have learnt English and possibly another second language which they will be able to draw on to gain competitive advantage in the employment market. In the interim, *multilingual* candidates have also become more competitive. This trend is reflected in the monolingual bias in second language acquisition theorizing increasingly being rejected over multilingualism and its corresponding multiple competencies (Ushioda, 2017, p. 479). However, many native-speaking English-language teachers tend to be dismissive regarding issues relating to their changing professional global landscape (Aboshiha, 2013, p. 220). While participants were not specifically questioned on this topic, that participants were largely not motivated to learn Korean in response to a professional landscape that posed potential challenges for them would tend to indicate that they were either largely unaware of these challenges or did not view them as suitably motivating to learn Korean.

### 6.6.5.2 A disempowered ought-to self

Participants' interpretation that the non-encouragement of Korean use in the workplace was part of a larger strategy to deny them deeper access to that community of practice may have some justification. In the more fluid free-market, globalized environment, characterized by individualization of labour, increasing inequities of power leads to changes in the value accorded languages (Darvin & Norton, 2015, p. 41). In some newly-industrialized nations, perceiving the outsider as a threat (Edwards, 2009, p. 40) ensures the promotion of global English, which will enhance the economic and cultural capital of insiders only. Such power distance (Hofstede, 2001) is of particular concern in high power distance societies such as Korea where its unequal distribution is accepted in organizations (McEown, et al., 2017, p. 536). While the experiences of participants largely support these authors' point that this issue is of concern, participants were less reticent regarding its *acceptance*. While they largely accepted that the use of Korean in the communicative second-language learning classroom was inappropriate, beyond the classroom participants largely viewed the promotion of the use of English only in the workplace as a deliberate strategy to deny them access to deeper forms of involvement in this community, particularly decision-making and career advancement.

## 6.7 Conclusion

This study sought to address the following research questions: (a) What impact does global English have on the motivation of native-English speakers to learn Korean in a globalized world?; and (b) What is the response of native English speaking EFL instructors in South Korea to the potential challenges globalization poses to their livelihoods?

Regarding research question one, as speakers of the global lingua franca, participants believed they were recruited by a society possessed by English fever to disseminate the global lingua franca *only*. While this largely accorded them the luxury of not being expected to learn Korean, when participants attempted to enter Korean communities (particularly in the workplace) they were sometimes even discouraged from using it. When added to their interpretation that as temporary visa holders on mostly one-year contracts, they rationalized that their overall status was ascribed and they would therefore permanently remain on the periphery of South Korean society. Therefore, they subsequently retreated to English-speaking cocoons with buffer support from Korean partners and friends with English-speaking motivation and ability.

However, such resulting absence of an ought-to self among participants is not readily explained by virtue of being the attributes one ought to possess to avoid negative outcomes.



Rather it was *because* of negative outcomes, real or imagined, that participants believed had already occurred, or would in the future. Similarly, participants' apparent lack of future visions of themselves as Korean speakers was more a reflection of sociopolitical issues caused by the confounding nature of English and LOTE self-images, over any perceived need to reduce an internal discrepancy between their current and future selves. Disconcertingly, however, the result was in an inability, or unwillingness, among participants to acknowledge the broader issue that global English is quickly becoming a majority second language itself.

In summary, participants largely responded to the perceived ascribed, peripheral role they believed their host nation had accorded them by low Korean-learning motivation. As opposed to learners of global English, participants believed that as native-English speakers working in a host nation that sought to embrace global English, they were entitled to their lack of Korean-language learning motivation. This was due to many Koreans in participants' communities seeking to use English and in daily life and that it was possible to communicate with non-English speaking Koreans using minimal survival Korean. Additionally, given the temporary nature of their employment contracts and visas as EFL instructors in a globalized marketplace, the majority of participants did not perceive that investing in a Korean identity would offer significant intrinsic, integrative or instrumental advantages. With an almost exclusive focus on learners of global English, mainstream theoretical perspectives on second language learning motivation cannot therefore adequately account for LOTE learning motivation in circumstances in which native-English speaking EFL instructors are contractually employed in a globalized environment by host nations in which English is not the majority language.

Regarding research question two, it appears that participants were largely unaware of indications that native-English speaking teachers are losing their advantage to those with English as a second language who can draw on one, or possibly two, other languages. Aside from the negative evidence of Sharon and James, four other participants had resided in South Korea for a decade or longer. However, with very little demonstrated motivation to acquire Korean, this invites the conclusion that (perhaps subconsciously) participants believe they can patiently await the day when English will supersede the need to learn any other language. However, for whatever reason, any accompanying belief they are excused from the immediate need to react to any potential threat to their status comes with inherent risk. By not taking advantage of the potential benefits that international posture and globalization may offer to alleviate potential threats to their futures, participants may (unwittingly) aid increasingly competitive non-native-multilingual speakers in a market that for participants is set to

decrease. Pool (2013, p. 142) sums it up aptly, stating that if globalization has the potential to promote and diminish linguistic diversity at the same time, its net impact may well depend on human motivations.

This study is the first to analyse how globalization and the accompanying dominance of global English impacts on the willingness of a group of English-speaking EFL instructors to learn the L1 of their host nation - Korean. However, it is important to note its limitations. The lack of demonstrated international posture among participants prohibits a comparison of their L2 experiences with other smaller-language speaking host nations to ascertain whether or not their apparent aversion to Korean was symptomatic of a more generic attitude. Additionally, as participants also indicated unrealized verbal intent to invest in languages with perceived transferable value, further studies would benefit from analysis of a similar group of native-English speakers in host nations where the national or official language was Arabic, Mandarin or Spanish. This would assist in forming a more robust conclusion regarding participants' motivation to learn LOTE. Given the distinct possibility of a decline in the need for on-location EFL instructors, analyses of individuals working in different fields, from differing (including comparative) cultural perspectives, would also be beneficial. Finally, this study has implications for how native-English speaking EFL instructors' lack of motivation to learn the national language of their host nation should be viewed. It is not clear if participants' experiences of learning a LOTE may be as potentially demotivating for similar groups of native-English speakers in settings that have not been researched from this perspective. The literature would therefore benefit from further such empirical research.

## 6.8 References

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## **Chapter 7. Conclusion**

### **7.1 Introduction**

The overall aim of this thesis was to examine the motivation of a group of native-English speakers who were living permanently in South Korea. Specifically, it analysed the degree of motivation of 14 EFL instructors who were working at various university language education centres (LECs) at universities in South Korea to learn the national language of their host nation. In the preceding chapters, I have reported on the findings of the five qualitative studies that comprise this larger project. In this final chapter, I will provide a summary of the overall research findings, capitulate implications for the field of second language (L2) motivation research, discuss the limitations of the project and close by outlining opportunities for further research.

### **7.2 Synthesis of findings**

Working through participants' past experiences highlighted that many of them demonstrated a lack of motivation regarding learning the language of their host nation. Analysis of their responses was undertaken by utilisation of a range of current theoretical lenses in L2 motivation research. The summary of findings has therefore been divided into four sections that reflect the main themes that emerged from the five constituent studies: (1) monolingual English teachers: global versus local ecologies; (2) learning Korean: who sets my agenda?; (3) a South Korean L2 identity: imperative to invest?; and (4) the ideal global self at a crossroads: integrate or relocate?

#### **7.2.1 Monolingual English language teachers: Global versus local ecologies**

Overall, the most significant theme to emerge from this study is that participants appear to have neither committed to learning Korean or to integrating with South Korea, largely as a response to a perception that they experienced persistent negative gatekeeping encounters when they attempted to do either of these tasks. Additionally, participants appeared not to have embraced international posture by acquiring the L1 of their current host nation. The latter point may have some justification, given the smaller language status of Korean, in a globalized world and participants' status as native-speakers of the international lingua franca in it. Using de Swann's (2001) analogy, the entire language system is now held together in a four-tier hierarchy. At the top is the hypercentral language, English. On the second tier, the

supercentral languages, including Arabic and Chinese are spoken. On the third tier, the central languages which are typically national and official languages and on the lowest tier, the fourth, the peripheral or minority languages reside. These languages are typically spoken by less than 10 per cent of the world's population. The 'hypercollective' good of English ensures more individuals desire to acquire it, including speakers of central and peripheral languages. Using this framework, as native speakers of English, participants are therefore accorded the luxury of speaking the most desired language while for L1 speakers of central and peripheral languages, the acquisition of additional languages therefore becomes a necessity. For South Koreans, this primarily equates to English while foreigners in South Korea working in industries outside EFL instruction, particularly in factories, this primarily translates to the need to acquire Korean.

While the apparent lack of motivation by participants to acquire Korean may be justified, globalization has radically transformed the L2 motivation landscape in the 21<sup>st</sup> century and that the dynamics of this new landscape have direct consequences by reducing the long-held linguistic, cultural and social capital native-speaking EFL instructors' (Holliday, 2006). Firstly, as many individuals in nations learn English from primary school age. As a consequence, the need for native-English speaking EFL instructors will begin to diminish by 2020 (Graddol, 2006) – a scenario that can be expected to be played out in South Korea. Secondly, locally-trained teachers who have added value to their competitive advantage by acquiring global English to take into the globalized marketplace, will gain the advantage (Ushioda, 2013). Competition for the reduced number of EFL-instructing vacancies will only intensify as the globalized and multilingual marketplace will increasingly be inhabited by those for whom it is possible to draw on their L1, global English, in addition to an L3 (2017).

However, participants may be forgiven for not reacting to this pending development with urgency. Many native-English speaking EFL instructors in South Korea, myself included, expressed surprise, followed by relief, when experiencing the apparent ease with which it was possible to gain employment in a profession that appeared to offer inexhaustible supply there. As a direct response to globalization, government policy had decreed that all young Koreans must acquire English (Song, 2012). The fact that the drive to learn English by so many other South Koreans has been referred to in the media and in academia as a 'frenzy' proves that many share this belief (Park, 2009). For participants, being in such an environment may have fuelled a perhaps unrealistic future vision that their lives in South Korea would be characterized by unlimited sources of related employment opportunities. In addition, by simply possessing a general first degree, a native-speaking disseminator of the

global lingua franca is accorded the significant status and respect of teachers in general in South Korea. In terms of medium to long-term job security, even among those who were forced to relocate on completion of contracts, I know of no individual who did not obtain equivalent, or even better English-language teaching employment very quickly. From this perspective, it is easier to understand that even if everything in an individual's immediate surroundings appears to confirm the opposite of what distant warnings may allude to, and rather appears to validate immunity from them, complacency could easily result.

When placed in this context, participants' South-Korean employment-related experiences had perhaps led them to believe that learning Korean may have been deemed a largely unnecessary investment, particularly given their perception that their economic security was envisaged to continue. That this did not involve the need to speak Korean at all in the workplace and it was entirely possible to negotiate a South Korean daily life, albeit in a restricted way with survival Korean, only appeared to strengthen participants' rationalization that any potential yield from investing in acquiring a Korean-speaking identity in terms of symbolic or material capital would be minimal. In addition, participants tended to project their lack of motivation to learn Korean as a response to their perception of their host nation's community's attitude towards them. This was largely through their perceptions of not being accommodated as L2 learners of Korean and through their perception of negative gatekeeping encounters when attempting to enter Korean communities. This appeared to be derived from their interpretation of experiences in daily life and was based on ecological factors to which they attributed their demotivation. Ecological factors are the psychological and emotional influences related to the participants' immediate environment in which their L2 learning occurs (Casanave, 2012).

Significantly, participants reacted negatively regarding their interactions with Koreans in daily life in two distinct ways. Firstly, in dealing with Korean strangers in simple service-based encounters, they appeared to expect Koreans to understand and accommodate them as accented learners of the first language of their host nation. However, particularly outside the metropolitan centres, many of the Koreans they encountered had very little prior exposure to foreigners. For many of these individuals, there was no perceived need to learn or use English. Secondly, as opposed to the one participant with a deep shared interest in her Korean religious community, participants felt that they were unable to negotiate deeper entry into their Korean communities, resulting in them expressing a sense of alienation from them and the Korean-speaking community at large.

This was most pronounced regarding ecological factors surrounding their workplace

environment. There, some participants saw the perceived denial of membership of such communities as a deliberate strategy to enforce their outsider status (Edwards, 2006). There may be some validity to these issues which do appear to have had an understandable negative influence the motivation of participants to invest in a Korean-speaking identity. However, some participants did invest in acquiring a relevant postgraduate EFL qualification and those who had not done so already indicated that they intended to do this. Such motivation appeared to be indicative of participants' realization that such a qualification was increasingly required to secure further employment in their workplaces, itself a response to globalization where increased competition would enable Korean employers to 'raise the bar'. In summary, participants' reactions to the apparent roadblocks established by their Korean hosts tended to reflect their native-English speaking status which was in reaction to Koreans' perceived expectations of them. While this could be viewed as participants interpreting that they were able to choose whether to invest, for example, in their workplace environment by learning Korean, it is equally plausible that their amotivation to do so was driven by the realization that any perceived return on such an investment would, at best, be regarded as marginal. Most participants attributed this to their belief in the Korean ability and desire to communicate in English, among those Koreans they largely interacted with (outside service industry encounters). When viewed from this perspective, the viewpoint of participants is more readily understandable.

### **7.2.2 Learning Korean: Who sets my agenda?**

Surprisingly, given the above, all participants had initially attempted to learn Korean upon arrival in South Korea. This was typically through one-on-one tuition, informal group instruction and formal instruction. Factors participants attributed their demotivation to in this regard revealed a striking dichotomy between the twelve participants who largely viewed their Korean instruction as a reflection of an agenda being set for them and the remaining two who had largely set their own agendas.

The only two participants to commit to learning Korean as a long-term goal were the only ones to readily admit that Korean was a difficult language to learn. While each did experience episodic, situational demotivation, despite the associated challenges of learning a second language, both largely persisted in this endeavour. For one, his initial motivation for learning Korean appeared to be indicative of international posture. In this way, he would learn the national language of his current host nation (of which South Korea had been his first) for one year and then to relocate to another to repeat this process many times over. However,

after sixteen years in South Korea, his motivation had become centred around mastering Korean only. For the other participant, her motivation was more integrative in intent, derived from a desire to move beyond the peripheral of her Korean communities to attempt to achieve a deeper and more fulfilling membership of them. Outside of her workplace, she only spoke Korean due to her motivation to integrate with Korean society through the acquisition of its language. In this, she was the sole participant to do so revealing a significant lack of corresponding vision among other participants in terms of a future ideal-L2 Korean-speaking self.

The remaining participants rationalized much of their lack of L2 vision by experiences that indicated they largely believed their agenda had been set by the actions and attitudes of South Koreans. Most significantly, participants tended to quickly form the view that Korean acquisition was largely not necessary for encounters with strangers in daily life where minimal verbal communication was sufficient for most simple encounters. However, in encounters where more complex communication was required, participants attributed the difficulties they experienced to Koreans' lack of exposure to English. As previously alluded to, participants believed this resulted in a lack of accommodation of them as accented second-language speakers of Korean and was used as evidence in support of their cases for demotivation or amotivation. However, most of these service-based encounters took place with strangers. Participants' experiences of not being accommodated were more pronounced outside the metropolitan cities, particularly in the regional centres where many of them resided. In these settings, participants felt that the Koreans they encountered either had further limited ability to communicate in English or feared using it. In these settings, participants also attributed the lack of accommodation towards them as second-language speakers of Korean to the Koreans they encountered having such limited exposure to hearing their first language spoken by a foreigner.

In everyday encounters requiring more complex transactions, such as banking, in most settings (regardless of whether it was in a metropolitan centre or not), it was often possible to communicate in English with the Koreans concerned, albeit in a very limited, however functional way. Participants noted that once they had conducted such a transaction once, they simply repeated it in the same way subsequently to reduce the need for communication or the possibility of miscommunication. When dealing with professionals, most notably health professionals, participants made the point that the level of English proficiency among the Koreans concerned was sufficient for most communication. Beyond this, for more detailed issues, such as dealing with insurance companies, participants drew on their networks of

Korean speakers who had some proficiency in English for assistance. These included administrative staff in their workplaces, and for those in relationships with Koreans, their partners. This interpretation that they were largely not accommodated as accented L2 speakers of Korean was seemingly used to justify a reliance on English-speaking Koreans when attempting to gain access to Korean communities. While this is understandable, participants, particularly with Korean spouses and partners, were also critical that the Koreans concerned preferred to deal with their partners in interactions, to the point of overlooking them. Correspondingly, participants also interpreted the greater desire of their Korean partners and friends to learn and use English as a demotivating factor to excuse their more limited opportunities to use and practice Korean. Beyond the workplace, participants' protestations about being denied entry to Korean communities beyond the peripheral was most noticeable when attempts were made to form friendships, with attitudes towards age gender and even hierarchy accorded friendship status with Koreans being seen as prohibitive. Examples cited included the importance accorded the strict hierarchical ranking in terms of family first followed by school and army friends second and then others.

Among the criticisms of those who did learn Korean in classroom settings was the formal nature of the language of this instruction and the resources used to teach it, reflecting aspects of the culture they believed were unnecessary and inappropriate. Participants who enrolled in formal Korean classes expressed three objections regarding this issue. Firstly, these participants objected to the way in which status and respect were encoded into Korean and secondly, they objected to the form of language they were taught not being inkeeping with that used in everyday life which was the form they believed applied to them and therefore wished to acquire. Thirdly, the methodology was considered alienating when compared to the communicative approach that many brought to their own L2 classroom practices.

In summary, participants used a two-fold rationalization to justify that their lack of motivation to learn Korean was an agenda largely set by their host nation. This was established by a lack of accommodation in daily life as speakers of Korean and enforced by a corresponding denial of entry to communities beyond the peripheral. The corresponding greater desire of Koreans in their networks to learn and use English, which they could use to combat these issues, was used as further evidence to support their cases for demotivation and amotivation regarding any perceived need to learn Korean. This analogy was then expanded and used by participants to justify their tendency to largely retreat into English-speaking

cocoons.

### **7.2.3 A South Korean L2 identity: imperative to invest?**

In the Korean communities that participants spent their most time in, and which they perceived to be their most important, they concluded that Korean proficiency was neither expected, or in some cases desired. This had a significant impact on their decision to invest in learning Korean. Nowhere was this more clearly articulated by participants than in their sentiments regarding their workplaces. There, it was widely accepted by participants that the use of Korean in the L2 communicative classroom was inappropriate. However, participants also believed their employers' discouragement of its use beyond the classroom was a deliberate strategy to deny them involvement in deeper aspects of decision-making, such as curriculum development and course design. Reaching such a conclusion then enabled participants to justify that even with proficiency in Korean, it would not be possible to seek further career advancement and/or promotion within this ascribed role or to expand into others in the EFL field in South Korea. In this way, the insider group could enforce its status in reaction to that of the perceived more dominant outsider (Edwards, 2006).

One way in which participants believed this strategy had been most effectively implemented was by the allocation of temporary employment contracts and work visas to foreign EFL instructors. Participants believed that such a policy accorded their Korean employers great power and flexibility. There is validity to this argument as such an approach to industrial relations is symptomatic of the globalized marketplace in which employment relationships become more individualized and more fluid (Darvin & Norton, 2015). In so doing, South Korean employers have largely insulated themselves from the potentially leaner future forecast for the EFL marketplace. Whether this has been by intent or simply in reaction to the following of government regulations and procedures is debatable. Also debatable is whether these regulations and procedures were established by the government in reaction to the prospect of a downturn in the need for EFL instructors. Nevertheless, the overall conclusion of these observations by most participants is that the perceived lack of commitment shown by their Korean employers to them provided the clearest evidence they needed against investing in learning the national language of a host nation that offered them no guarantee of permanency and therefore no commitment of investment in *them*. Given this rationale, it becomes easier to understand the lacklustre development of a strategy by participants to protect themselves against possible future employment vulnerability in South Korea and quite possibly beyond it by becoming proficient Korean speakers.

This perception is in stark contrast with that of non-English speaking individuals seeking permanent immigration by relocating to host nations where English *is* the first language and where high L2 motivation is characteristic as their futures depend on their ability to acquire a second-language identity. However, in common with participants, their attempts to be accommodated in daily life and in first-language speaking communities of practice can largely result in negative gatekeeping encounters (Norton-Peirce, 1995; Norton 1997). For these individuals, such obstacles could prove prohibitive in obtaining the second-language identity which is *imperative* for their accumulation of material and symbolic capital (Norton, 2013).

Despite some shared experiences, this stressful situation was not that of participants, for whom, to date, South Korea has not appeared to affix such an identity-related burden. The very nature of their native-English speaking status has worked to participants' advantage and in some ways and also to their disadvantage in others. On the positive side, as enough members of their Korean communities have been suitably motivated to learn the global lingua franca for their own instrumental reasons, a corresponding lack of perceived need to learn Korean has been experienced by participants in response. On the negative side, participants have understood that they have only ever been employed as temporary aliens, with an ascribed role in workplaces and communities in which they believe represent assignation to permanent placement on the periphery of South Korean society and its employment marketplace. The most significant way in which this was enabled was due to the ability of and desire by members of those communities to communicate in English. The drive to achieve permanent immigration that would so motivate the immigrant women in Norton's studies to learn English was therefore inapplicable to participants whose relationship with South Korea was purely based on their ability to disseminate the global lingua franca in a way in which participants believed allocated all the power to the host nation. Beyond that, participants believed South Korea largely had no interest in and therefore commitment to them.

#### **7.2.4 The ideal global self at a crossroads: integrate or relocate?**

One of my reasons for conducting this research was to enable me to more readily empathise with a situation that may have invited premature judgment for two reasons. Firstly, if living on the periphery of a host society was so unsatisfactory, why would an individual continue to do so for so long? Secondly, given that the same individuals possessed transferable skills and spoke the international lingua franca, why did they not relocate to more suitable host nations?

When viewed from the perspectives of participants, it is, thankfully, easier to



understand their apparent lack of a response to a changing landscape for two reasons. Firstly, many participants had become EFL instructors in South Korea largely as the result of a process that had begun by default and appeared to have continued in much the same way. Many participants were in possession of a general education and few specific skills to give them competitive advantage in their domestic marketplaces. There, the possibility of underemployment, or perhaps to a lesser degree unemployment, was a significant factor in their decision to seek employment, for which they were qualified, elsewhere. EFL instructing positions in South Korea, often with accommodation included, offered a pragmatic and attractive alternative to the possibility of a potentially difficult future life at home. Having not been motivated to be an EFL instructor, upon commencing work in South Korea they were then accorded what for many must have been a very unexpected and ego-boosting experience given the respect accorded educators there. It is therefore understandable that this may have then been added to their sense of being now largely immune from the very issues and related stress they had recently been able to remove themselves from and after a period of adjustment to their new role in South Korea, an emergent entitlement due to their native-English speaking status in a society driven by English fever. Therefore, in terms of forming EFL-related or alternative pathways forward, participants with no pre-determined career paths more readily interpreted their current situation by way of an understandably passive response.

Possibly more telling was the corresponding belief that few opportunities would be accorded bilingual English-Korean speakers outside South Korea, due to the smaller-language status of the Korean language. Interestingly, all American participants indicated that life in the United States would be far more difficult than that in South Korea due to the lack of employment opportunities in their home country. However, bilingual native-English speakers of Korean are consistently in demand by the United States military as translators and interpreters (Pyun, Kim, Cho, & Lee, 2014). While this information is widely-accessible, only one American and two non-American participants even mentioned the potential use of Korean proficiency in terms of employment outside EFL instruction. Only two Americans, one of whom was committed to acquiring Korean, mentioned the potential benefits of being a bilingual ESL instructor in the United States, however no participant, American or otherwise, was suitably motivated to learn Korean in reaction to perceived opportunities outside South Korea in any instrumental way. In summary, the same globalized landscape that also potentially accords non-native speakers of English opportunities by way of international posture may also provide native-English speakers similar, if not better, opportunities provided they possess sufficient motivation to access them.

### **7.3 Implications for EFL instructors living long-term in South Korea**

As previously explained, worldwide, the number of required EFL instructors is predicted to decline by 2020 as students who have been taught English in school begin to mature (Graddol, 2006). There is no reason to presume that this scenario will not occur in South Korea given the compulsory nature of English acquisition for all school children and university students and the growing number of courses being taught in English there. Secondly, participants' situations may well be further complicated by the fact that competition for the reduced number of places in this employment sector will be directly challenged by bilingual and even multilingual speakers, for whom English is a second language and who can draw on their own L1, or even an additional L3 and present as far more competitive applicants than those who possess only the global lingua franca (Ushioda, 2017). Paradoxically, it is individuals such as those that participants teach who are among the group who are redefining the globalized marketplace and in so doing potentially marginalizing those whose only language proficiency and associated status is due to being native-English speaking. These two developments therefore pose significant potential threats to the long-held status and role of native-English speaking EFL instructors.

A second significant challenge for participants comes from the Korean interpretation of globalization and its justifiable positioning of itself to preserve its national-language identity, while embracing the new world order. This has put participants in a predicament. Participants' interpretation of their perceived assignment to permanent outsider status tended to provoke two forms of defensiveness, often concurrently – retreat and entitlement. In this way, any defensive response by South Koreans towards their potential advances into their communities could be pre-emptively countered with the assertion that as speakers of the global lingua franca there was no need to further exert second-language motivational effort there, or anywhere else. Their further rationalization that in many of their communities, the motivation of Koreans to communicate in English was used to override any lack of desire to acquire a smaller national language.

In so doing, it is quite possible that many of the issues that defined their experiences would have been replaced with stories more inkeeping of individuals displaying the traits of those with integrativeness and even international posture. That participants largely chose not to integrate in any tangible way with South Korea by acquiring its national language appears to indicate that they were not in possession of either concept for intrinsic purposes. From a more pragmatic, or instrumental perspective, such investment may have accorded them

further symbolic and material resources, or more importantly, may do so in the future.

To conclude, globalization more clearly defines the need to acquire relevant additional languages for non-native English speakers, particularly for those whose national languages are smaller languages. For participants, being surrounded by an English ‘frenzy’ where their English native-speaker status accorded them seeming employment security and the ability to survive without the need for a second language may have lulled them into possibly a welcome, but perhaps false sense of security given their perception that their gatekeeping experiences in South Korea were in many ways negative. While this paradox is in large part due to their places in the larger equation of the globalization dynamic, changes in the globalized marketplace for EFL-instructors may well necessitate the formulation of an effective strategy in response, including the possibility of learning additional languages, regardless of any perceived and justifiable amotivation to do so.

#### **7.4 Limitations**

Many limitations of the present thesis have been discussed in previous chapters. However, largely due to the word-limit constraints of writing for publication, other considerations could not be fully explored. Therefore, I will reconsider some aspects of these limitations to show how they may be overcome in the future as upon completion of all the constituent papers, it was more possible to reflect upon its limitations of this thesis. I will also more fully address issues that emerged from that process in this sub-section.

Overall, the size of the research base, its make-up and aspects of the chosen methodology were the most significant limitations of this thesis. Firstly, with deep enough analysis, qualitative research may only require a small number of participants (Dörnyei, 2007). However, it is also true that many participants were current colleagues of mine when data was collected, or had been previously. While the selection of seven participants from seven different LECs, in addition to one other workplace setting, was intended to address the possibility that it may have been an atypical setting, the findings of which may have biased the resulting study, the fact remains, however, that half of the participants worked in the same language education centre. Connected to this concern is that despite some variation in age, experience and qualifications, generically all participants were similarly qualified and similarly employed in the same branch of the same industry. This potential limitation was evident in the findings which, in some ways, appeared to present a seeming uniformity of interpretations made by participants.

The other significant limitation regards aspects of the implementation of its chosen

methodology. One in-depth semi-structured interview per participant, with the option of keeping a two-week diary prior to this, may have been insufficient, given that the long, slow process of language acquisition is often characterized by accompanying inevitable ebbs and flows in the motivation required to sustain it. Aspects of the chosen methodological approach (discussed below) may have limited deeper exploration of relevant related themes. This became apparent during data collection of the year-long case study of one participant. While many of the issues she raised related to generic issues that were shared by most participants, some were not. Specifically, issues she raised related to her race and vulnerability in terms of being one of the lesser-academically qualified instructors at her LEC, her intent to leave EFL instruction upon completion of her contract, her level of student debt, her plans and related fears for her future and vacillation regarding returning to the United States.

On reflection, longitudinal studies of more, or even all participants would have provided a more broad-based, deeper and therefore more satisfactory means to ascertain which factors affected participants' motivation to learn Korean, over time. Moment in time recollections, by comparison, do not allow for participants to suitably relate ecological factors as they present themselves. There was a danger in utilizing one expanded longitudinal study to support the overall cross-sectional study because the evidence that the participant provided may not have been representative of the experiences of the wider group. For instance, as a single young person, her perspectives and priorities may well have differed from that of participants in committed relationships with Koreans, their associated family commitments and by extension possibly greater access to Korean-speaking support. However, pragmatic limitations rendered that course of desirable action unrealistic.

## **7.5 Future research**

This leads into the discussion of how the first of (one would hope) many such studies set in South Korea could be further built upon to subsequently best add to the literature. The findings of this thesis have identified some clear patterns. These can feed into further research of the experience into the motivation to acquire Korean among native-English speakers. Follow-up research would greatly benefit from offering comparative insight by examining the experiences of highly successful native-English speakers of Korean. These findings could be used to ascertain how such individuals achieved more successful results regarding their related motivation and, more importantly, why. In addition, further studies of larger and broader ranges of cohorts of native-English speakers in South Korea would enable a wider

representative interpretation. From this, it should be possible to more readily understand if the issues that affect the language-learning motivation of EFL instructors to learn Korean were shared by other cohorts also living there.

Numerically, the most significant of these other cohorts is the United States military which can station up to 30,000 personnel there at any one time. Their experiences may provide comparative insight into how their relationship with their host nation may impact on their motivation to acquire its first language, or not. In addition to these cohorts, a smaller, but growing number of native-English speakers are now employed in South Korea in the broader education-related industry, as well as in trade, commerce, the arts, entertainment and leisure-related industries. Research into their experiences and motivation to learn Korean may also offer significant further comparative insight. Demotivating issues that may emerge among participants from any of these further studies may then offer a more substantiated means to attempt to rectify them in the future.

In conclusion, to ascertain whether the perceptions of participants expressed towards certain aspects of their host nation's national language and community was culture specific to South Korea, or whether their lack of L2 motivation would be replicated elsewhere, further studies would benefit from being conducted in other host nations settings with their own first languages. Further comparative studies would benefit from being conducted in host nations where the national language of the host nation was more-widely spoken, for example, Spanish, Mandarin or Arabic. This would also assist in clarifying whether the status of the associated national language does have significant bearing on the motivation of participants to learn it. Finally, the value of this research lies in its focus on native-English speakers operating in a globalized environment. This multilingual and multicultural environment poses significant challenges for such individuals which this research has highlighted by its utilization of second language motivation theory. Such an approach could well inform future studies of similar cohorts in globalized environments.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1: Research Ethical Approval E-mail

Re: "Factors affecting the motivation to learn Korean by ESL professors living permanently in South Korea"

The above application was reviewed by The Faculty of Human Sciences Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee. The Sub-Committee wishes to thank you for a thorough and well prepared application. Approval of the above application is granted and you may now proceed with your research.

The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Dr Peter Roger - Chief Investigator  
Mr Nigel David Gearing - Co-Investigator

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).
2. Approval will be for a period of five (5) years subject to the provision of annual reports. Your first progress report is due on 1st August 2012.

If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report for the project.

Progress reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:

[http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how\\_to\\_obtain\\_ethics\\_approval/human\\_research\\_ethics/forms](http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/forms)

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Sub-Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).
4. All amendments to the project must be reviewed and approved by the Sub-Committee before implementation. Please complete and submit a Request



for Amendment Form available at the following website:

[http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how\\_to\\_obtain\\_ethics\\_approval/human\\_research\\_ethics/forms](http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/forms)

5. Please notify the Sub-Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project.

6. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University. This information is available at the following websites:

<http://www.mq.edu.au/policy>

[http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how\\_to\\_obtain\\_ethics\\_approval/human\\_research\\_ethics/policy](http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/policy)

If you will be applying for or have applied for internal or external funding for the above project it is your responsibility to provide the Macquarie University's Research Grants Management Assistant with a copy of this email as soon as possible. Internal and External funding agencies will not be informed that you have final approval for your project and funds will not be released until the Research Grants Management Assistant has received a copy of this email.

If you need to provide a hard copy letter of Final Approval to an external organisation as evidence that you have Final Approval, please do not hesitate to contact the Ethics Secretariat at the address below.

Please retain a copy of this email as this is your official notification of final ethics approval.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Peter Roger

Chair  
Faculty of Human Sciences  
Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee

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Faculty of Human Sciences - Ethics

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## Appendix 2: Information and consent form (all participants)



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MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY NSW 2109

**Phone: +61 2 9850 9650**

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Email: [peter.roger@mq.edu.au](mailto:peter.roger@mq.edu.au)

Chief Investigator's Name: Dr Peter Roger

Chief Investigator's / Supervisor's Title: Lecturer in Applied Linguistics

### Information and Consent Form

**Name of Project:** Factors affecting the motivation to learn Korean by ESL professors living permanently in South Korea

You are invited to participate in a study of English language teaching professionals, working in universities in South Korea. The purpose of the study is to explore the aspects of motivation that affect the second language acquisition (or not) of this group of people who live and work in South Korea. This study aims to understand some of the reasons why people in similar situations differ greatly in the degree to which that are motivated to learn the language of their host nation. The study aims to examine these reasons from a psychological and linguistic perspective.

The study is being conducted by Nigel David Gearing (email: [nigelgear62@gmail.com](mailto:nigelgear62@gmail.com); telephone, a distance student in the Department of Linguistics at Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia, to meet the requirements of the Doctor of Philosophy Degree, under the supervision of Dr Peter Roger (email: [peter.roger@mq.edu.au](mailto:peter.roger@mq.edu.au); telephone: 61 2 9850 9650).

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to participate in an in-depth, one-on-one, interview lasting one hour. This will be recorded on audio tape and transcribed. You will also be asked to keep a diary (for approximately two weeks) which notes your thoughts on your level of motivation to learn Korea and to bring this diary to the interview, as it may stimulate your thoughts during the interview. The interview questions will pertain to your experiences of learning Korean in Korea, and the factors that have affected (and may still affect) your motivation to learn Korean. The interview will explore your attitudes towards the Korean language and nation, in a globalised world, your attitudes to learning, and learning languages in particular.

If you are currently attending a Korean language class at the University of Ulsan, I (Nigel Gearing) would also like to observe your Korean class, for one two-hour lesson period per week over the course of one semester (16 weeks). No recording of any kind will take place in the classroom. I will silently

observe and take field notes. At the conclusion of each class, I will meet with the participants to reflect on specific issues that arose during that particular class session.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential (except as required by law). No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. Only Dr Peter Roger (the supervisor) and Nigel Gearing (the co-investigator) will have access to the data. A summary of the transcripts of the data can be made available to you on request to review and to delete any details you would prefer to have not used.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

---

I, *(participant's name)* have read *(or, where appropriate, have had read to me)* and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name: \_\_\_\_\_  
(Block letters)

Participant's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Investigator's Name: \_\_\_\_\_  
(Block letters)

Investigator's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (+61 2 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

**(INVESTIGATOR'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)**

### Appendix 3: Information and consent form (case-study participant)



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## Information and Consent Form

Name of Project: **Factors affecting the motivation to learn Korean by ESL professors living permanently in South Korea**

Name of Project: 'The factors that affect the motivation among English language professors, in Korea, to learn Korean as a second language.'

You are invited to participate in the case study section that follows on from the in-depth interview that you, and 15 other English language teaching professionals working in universities in South Korea, have already completed.

The purpose of this study is to fill a gap in the literature on what aspects of motivation affect the second language acquisition (or not) of a group of people who live and work in South Korea. As most universities in South Korea do not hire English language professors who have not worked as teachers in South Korea, in schools or language academies there first, this study aims to forge a link between the literature that explains why people in similar situations, adults learning a second language in a globalised world, succeed in acquiring the second language of their host nation, or do not, and, more importantly, why or why not? The study aims to examine these reasons from a psychological and linguistic perspective.

The study is being conducted by Nigel David Gearing, a distance student in the Department of Applied Linguistics at Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia, to meet the requirements of the Doctor of Philosophy Degree, Applied Linguistics, under the supervision of Dr Peter Roger, Senior Lecturer in Applied Linguistics in the Department of Linguistics, phone 61 2 9850 9650, fax 61 2 9850 9199.

If you decide to participate in this phase of the project (this time as a case study participant), you will be asked to participate in an interview once every six weeks, which will reflect on your progress as an on-line student of Korean. These interviews will be recorded on audio tape and transcribed.

Any information, or personal details, gathered in the course of this study, are confidential (except as required by law). No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. Only Dr Peter Roger (the chief investigator) and Nigel Gearing (the co-investigator) will have access to the data. A summary of the results of the data can be made available to you on request to review your transcript(s), and to delete any details you would prefer not to have used.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason, and without consequence.

---

I, *(participant's name)* have read *(or, where appropriate, have had read to me)* and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name: \_\_\_\_\_  
(Block letters)

Participant's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Investigator's Name: \_\_\_\_\_  
(Block letters)

Investigator's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone 61 2 9850 7854; email [ethics@mq.edu.au](mailto:ethics@mq.edu.au)). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

**(INVESTIGATOR'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)**

#### **Appendix 4: Semi-structured in-depth interview guide**

- How important, as a goal, is learning Korean to you? Why/why not?
- Why did you start learning Korean?
- If you have stopped learning Korean, why?
- If you have continued learning Korean, why?
- Is learning Korean something you have chosen to do, or do you feel it is something you ought to do?
- Do you feel social pressure to learn Korean? If yes, where does that pressure come from?
- Is learning Korean something you do for pleasure or a hobby or interest?
- Is learning Korean something you do because you believe it may provide some external benefit (s) in your life now or in the future?
- What might these external benefits be? Do they apply to you?
- In terms of goal-setting now, in this situation of one-year renewable contracts in a globalised environment, does learning Korean have to compete with other goals?
- If so, can you rank your short-term goals and long-term goals and place learning Korean in this context and explain why you ranked it where you did?
- Have your short and long term goals changed since arriving in Korea? If so, how and why?
- It has also been said that students who have no clear internalized purpose (learning for enjoyment) and no strongly felt externalized reason to learn another language (expectation, how well this relates to your present and future goals) are unlikely to expend the effort required. Do you agree with this statement? Why/why not?
- Do you believe you have much control over your own level of functioning in your life? For example, in an unfamiliar setting, or environment, do you see the challenge

of overcoming the obstacles in your path as something you can easily take in your stride, perhaps enjoy, or even find exciting, or, in such a situation, do you tend to feel burdened, or even overwhelmed?

- Do you have a belief system about yourself regarding learning languages, eg age, aptitude etc?
- What is your expectation regarding learning Korean, eg do you anticipate success? Why/why not?
- It has been said that goals that are hard and specific lead to the highest performance. To what extent would you agree/disagree? Do you feel that this ‘principle’ applies to learning Korean?
- In terms of formal learning and/ or classroom learning what obstacles have you experienced while learning Korean?
- What obstacles, if any, have you experienced when trying to use or experiment with Korean outside the classroom, in daily life?
- What other obstacles have you experienced while learning Korean?



## **Appendix 5: Longitudinal case study interview guide**

Why are you learning the language?

What comprised your previous L2 learning experiences and were they successful?

How much Korean have you previously learned and in what contexts?

Has this learning been successful?

How much time are you spending on Korean study?

What are the biggest obstacles to you learning Korean as a self-study student?

Why did you choose to do the Rosetta Stone self-study on-line course?

What are you enjoying most about your on-line course?

What, if any, are the negative aspects of a self-study on-line course?

Are you on-track with your self-study program?

Would the situation be any different if you were studying in a classroom situation or in a one-on-one class?

In terms of motivation, how does studying this way compare to your other language learning experiences?

Are your Korean friends a motivating factor in you learning Korean?

Have you tried to translate any of what you have learned into daily life, with strangers?

Do you have any strategies in place, or are planning to use, to solve any possible problems relating to your motivation to do this course and use what you have learned in the real world?

What 'daily life' issues are affecting your motivation to learn and use Korean?

Do you have any strategies in place to deal with these issues?

How have they (and any other) issues affected your motivation to learn Korean?

