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# L2 Learner's Perspectives of How Personal and Instructional Factors Influence Achievement in Online-incorporated Environment*

**Jeong-Yeon Kim**
(Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology)

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This study aims to identify how participants in online-incorporated English learning perceive interaction between achievement and factors of learning and personality. Using grounded theory analysis, this study attempts to generate a theoretical model depicting how the factors work with the L2 learners situated in the learning setting. A total of 231 college freshmen participated in online and offline EFL learning programs for the duration of one semester. In addition, all respondents completed a survey questionnaire on their learning experiences. In the investigation of the differences between low- and high-proficiency groups, audio-taped interviews with 20 selected students, 10 from each group, have revealed differences not only in the types of personal and instructional factors, but also, more importantly, in the interrelationship between these factors in each group's learning model. These models effectively explained the statistically significant differences in four questionnaire items, such as online learning and contributions of offline class sections to their L2 achievement. These findings entail L2 practitioners' shared understandings of their students' perspectives of learning in the specific L2 learning context.

**[Achievement/ grounded theory analysis/ instructional factors/ online English learning/ personality factors]**

## I. INTRODUCTION

Past two decades of English education in Korea have witnessed challenges for English

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teaching practices. The challenges have come both from within and from outside of an educational context. The challenge within an educational context, or the education-oriented challenge, corresponds to emphases on communicative and interactional aspect of the English learning and urges for changes in second language (L2) teaching practices in a classroom from predominantly teacher-centered instruction to more learner-centered pair or group work. In conjunction with the emphases, perspectives that L2 learners bring to a learning context have also drawn attention from many second language acquisition (SLA) researchers (Brown, 2009; Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Loewen, et al., 2009; Philips, 1992; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). In other words, it is now considered significant for successful L2 acquisition what learners do during learning L2 and how they perceive the process of learning as co-participants in the L2 meaning-making process.

The other challenge has come from outside the context of L2 education; the tremendous development and the spread of technology have continuously challenged classroom L2 teaching for improvement of English pedagogy. As a result, computer-mediated communication (CMC) has become increasingly popular as a learning tool in L2 classrooms over the past two decades. Researchers have attended to its effects on learning, ranging from enhancing to production of L2 motivation (e.g., Hansson, 2005; Warschauer, 1996, 1998). Hansson (2005) says that a virtual learning environment can be a positive or better environment for younger L2 learners because activities occurring online are based upon interaction and cooperation rather than competition and individualism. This favorable setting in turn facilitates learners' motivation for L2 learning activities.

Online communication in L2 has also been found to contribute to improving L2 production. Many studies on the effectiveness of online communication examined CMC from the interaction-oriented perspective (e.g., AbuSeileek, 2007; Blake, 2000; Pellettieri, 2000; Toyada & Harrison, 2002; Werry, 1996; Yates, 1996). Through participation in online chatting learners can best benefit from L2 interaction, which contribute to the development of L2 oral proficiency, ranging from the norms of structures to the norms of interaction (Chun, 1994; Kern, 1995; Pellettieri, 2000).

This study attempts to cope with the two challenges facing L2 educators. Given the contributions of online setting to the process and the product of language learning, this study seeks to understand how this online factor interplay with other learning or personal factors and affect the process and the product of L2 learning. Specifically, this study examines qualitatively and quantitatively how the participants in online-incorporated English class perceive the interplay between different personality and instructional factors and the specific learning context.

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## 1. CMC and L2 Acquisition

SLA researchers have rigorously investigated the effect of an online environment in terms of oral production, in comparison with conventional face-to-face interaction. For example, Ewing (2000) conducted a study on conversations of two groups of Indonesian EFL learners in a CALL environment. One was taught with the computer-mediated approach and the other studied in the conventional way. Ewing's results showed, "interactionally, students—in the first group—have more opportunity to speak and must rely on themselves rather than the instructor" (p. 333). Gu (2002) investigated the effect of a computer-based course on the development of a group of Chinese EFL learners' oral skills. He concluded that CALL class is a good environment for genuine interaction between learners who benefit from each other because they work cooperatively.

Recently, researchers interested in the topic of online communication have focused on different interactional settings possible in the CMC environment. AbuSeileek (2007) examined two different interactional settings in the CMC environment: collective and cooperative learning. In the collective CMC setting, the students' interaction is limited to the teacher, and thus, each student works on his own to receive the questions, listen to the text, think of the answer, and report it to the instructor. By contrast, the cooperative CMC setting divides students into small groups or pairs to perform a task through using the computer as a means for communication between the pairs or members of the groups. It was found that the use of the cooperative CMC had advantages over the collective CMC in terms of students' achievement and attitude towards using CALL in an L2 classroom.

The topic of online communication has received significant attention from researchers of Korean learners of English (e.g., Chu, 2006; Lee, 2006; Han, 2003; Hahn, 2007; Shim, 2007; Hwang, 2008), which has generated useful information regarding online-based interaction and its potential to enhancing L2 proficiency. Whereas synchronous online interaction, such as online chat, has been continuously found to affect positively students' oral proficiency (e.g., Chu, 2006; Lee, 2006; Shim, 2007) and knowledge of L2 discourse (e.g., Kim, 2009), asynchronous online interaction, such as emails and bulletin board, has been shown to contribute to promoting a richer lexicon and syntactically more complex output (Han, 2003; Hwang, 2008). In terms of linguistic characteristics, the two modes of online interaction have shown discrepancies in the participants' uses of discourse markers, such as "oh" (Hahn, 2007), showing different preferences, distributional patterns, and functional uses of the markers in the two modes.

What these studies have continuously showed in the examination of various L2 learning groups is that online learning environment can be a favorable place for learners'

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interaction. However, the focus of the research of online learning has been limited to interactions between participants; it has not been extended to learner-computer interaction. As Hémard (2006) indicated in his discussion of evaluation of online learning activities, researchers have paid little attention to how learners respond to different online activities. Since online learning has become popular as a part of L2 curriculum, the interaction between learners and activities offered in an online program need to be addressed in SLA research as well.

## 2. Models of Online Learning

Recently, online programs have been adopted by several American universities which offer large-size lectures such as foreign language classes and other required courses. The agenda behind this new way of teaching is mainly "cutting cost and improving the quality" of the instruction of the classes (Roach, 2009). By undertaking online and individual learning models, researchers have claimed, the universities have seen great reduction of cost for hiring instructors and at the same time improvement in learning outcome (Morgan, 2006; Roach, 2009; Twigg, 2003). According to Twigg, American institutions reduced costs for hiring instructors by about 40 percent on average, which has continuously inspired decision-makers of other institutions to introduce course redesign including online portion in it.

Morgan (2006) suggests five different models of utilizing online programs, which may be summarized in the following:

(1) Completely online courses in which all the class activities are conducted completely online.
(2) Buffet model in which students have options for classes and assistances (conferences with TAs and online tutorial etc.) and an online program is only one of them.
(3) Emporium model which focuses on uses of an online program in the environment of computer labs. Class meets in a lab in which students have access to the online program.
(4) Replacement or hybrid models in which an online program replaces a certain portion of class meetings and activities.
(5) Supplement models in which an online program is used only as an extra work for regular classes.

In Morgan's research, out of above five models, the replacement model was found to be most effective in learning and positively evaluated by the students in statistics courses. Similar findings have been reported regarding the effectiveness of incorporating replacement models into the large-size lectures (e.g., chemistry, biology and physics) for

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"cutting costs and improving the quality" (Roach, 2009; Twigg, 2003).

The studies, however, have little shown why a particular model is preferred in different subject areas. Moreover, few studies to date have addressed the use of a particular model in a foreign language curriculum.

## 3. L2 Learners' Perception of Learning Experiences

As indicated earlier, students are now considered active co-participants of meaning making process, and L2 learners are no longer passive consumers of what instructors pass on to them in a fixed classroom lecture. Since the L2 learners take the central role in their own learning, L2 researchers and practitioners are now more concerned with what the learners bring to L2 learning setting and how they perceive L2 acquisition. Their beliefs and perceptions, thus, have drawn much attention from SLA researchers. Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) showed a number of variables or factors that are correlated significantly with indices of L2 achievement. In their study, French learners perceived some variables critical to L2 learning and achievement: self-confidence with French; language learning strategies; motivation to learn French; language aptitude; and orientation to learn French. These factors, the learners perceived, were related 'functionally' to one another, and not mutually exclusive. Gardner and his colleagues emphasize that any model that displays the correlation between learner factors is subject to change or modification depending upon groups of learners and context of learning. In other words, learners' beliefs may vary in accordance with different contingencies of different learning contexts.

Some research studies have demonstrated differences in beliefs in L2 achievement between teacher and learners (Borg, 2003; Brown, 2009; Loewen, et al., 2009; Tomlinson & Dat, 2004). These studies have shown that teachers' and learners' beliefs may differ not only in perceived effective learning environment, but also in specific ways in which certain areas of competence, such as grammar and error correction, should be dealt with in a classroom. For example, Brown (2009) conducted an extensive study on differences in ideal learning setting between L2 teachers and learners. Through the surveys of 49 teachers and 1600 students learning various L2s (Spanish, French, and German as commonly taught languages and other less commonly taught languages), this study revealed that the two groups approached classroom L2 practices differently and learning outcomes. The participating teachers valued meaningful information exchange over grammar while their respective students preferred to have formal grammar instruction. This finding suggested that teachers need to explore their students' perspectives on concrete pedagogical practices in the classroom and share, selectively, their rationale and justifications for integrating certain activities, in order to inform and motivate their

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students.

The studies on L2 learner beliefs have demonstrated that the learners' perspectives or beliefs regarding learning process and achievement are central to effective L2 acquisition. These perspectives, thus, have been shown to correlate with strategy use, motivation, proficiency (Mori, 1999; Yang, 1999), learner anxiety (e.g., Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991b, 1991c; Philips, 1992; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Yan & Horwitz, 2008), and autonomous learning (Kalaja & Barcelos, 2003). The study of Yan and Horwitz (2008) examined the topic of learner beliefs extensively in terms of how anxiety interacts with other individual factors related to L2 achievement from the perspective of L2 learners. This study is noteworthy in that it used a qualitative analytic tool of interview, called grounded theory analysis, in order to investigate how Chinese English learners in China perceived interrelationship between language achievement and personal factors that might have influenced their anxiety. The analysis revealed that the college students learning English in China perceived anxiety as a result of other factors involved in their language learning. That is, foreign language anxiety was affected by the affinities such as a comparison with peers, learning strategies, and language learning interest and motivation as the most immediate source of anxiety in language learning. Other variables such as regional differences, test types, gender, class arrangement, teacher characteristics, parental influence, and language aptitude were considered by these students as more remote sources of anxiety. These factors were perceived to influence comparison with peers and language learning strategies, which in turn influenced anxiety.

## 4. Research Questions

The studies on L2 online communication and learners' perception of L2 learning have tremendously contributed to understanding the effectiveness of online communication for L2 learning and L2 learners' own evaluation of their learning experience. However, it is not relatively well known how a particular online learning model in a real-life curriculum may affect learner's achievement in Korean EFL setting. Furthermore, it is still not known how learners taught through an online model may perceive the relationship between personal factors and instructional factors in their pursuit of L2 development.

In this project, I aimed to respond to the needs of the inquiry, and attempted to generate a theoretical model depicting how different factors work with the L2 learners situated in the virtual space. The following research questions guided the project.

(1) What factors do online learners associate with foreign language achievement?

(2) In what ways do learners perceive the factors to affect their achievement?

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(3) What are the differences in the identification and the relationship of different factors between low- and high- level of students' L2 proficiency?

In examining the research questions in the virtual context in Korea, this study focuses on factors related to L2 achievement to English as a foreign language (EFL) context. Because English is a required course in higher educational institutions in Korea, it is especially important to examine the relationship between the factors as the learners perceive.

## II. METHOD

### 1. Participants

A total of 231 college freshmen taking English I or English II participated in this study. At the time of the research, the participants were enrolled in a large research-oriented university located in a metropolitan city in Kyungsang province, South Korea. All of the participants were pursuing majors in science, engineering, or business management. The data were collected in the fall semester of the year of 2009. Before the beginning of the spring semester, students took a placement test through which they were assigned to English I (85 students) or English II (146 students). The test included items on listening, reading and grammar in multiple choice questions, 15 items per each area. Thus, students answered a total of 45 questions online. The cutting score between the low- and high-proficiency group was 75%, which was correspondent to 750-800 of Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) according to the program provider's explanation.

English I consisted of 3 sections taught by two female Korean instructors. They spoke only English in offline class meetings although students were allowed to ask questions in Korean if they preferred after the class meetings. English II consisted of 6 sections taught by two male native English speaking instructors. The maximum number of the students in each section was restricted to 25, and the size of offline class meetings ranged from 11 to 25 students.

### 2. The Organization of the Classes

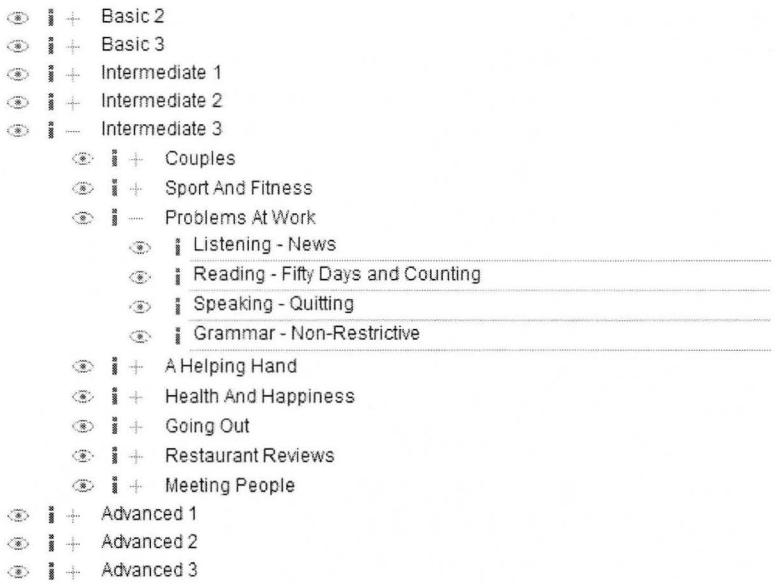
The English courses investigated in the study represent the replacement or hybrid model according to Morgan's classification of online learning models (2006). The students taking the courses were instructed to complete the online program according to the weekly schedule (1-2 chapters each week), and to attend 60-minute long weekly offline class. The weight of class, therefore, was divided evenly between the online and the offline session.

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The online program used for instruction aims to improve students' general English competence in listening, reading, speaking and writing. Each unit represents a topic, such as "going out", under which related sub-topics are presented in the form of a text, audio, or visual materials as shown in Figure 1. The listening section includes audio and visual materials with a text. The reading section includes a text with native speaker's voice recording of the text. In the speaking section, the students are able to record their voice on the computer which is reproduced so the students can listen to their oral production in comparison with a native speaker's. Finally, the writing section is mostly the grammar explanation of the listening and reading texts. Each of the four sections has a short formative test that assesses students' learning of the section.

**FIGURE 1**

**Components of Each Unit of the Online Program**




The online material was intended for students' autonomous learning, and any support for their learning was provided on demand during their instructor's office hours. Although students were not required to interact with other students online, they were able to discuss the materials in the program's website, called online forum. In the weekly class meeting, students participated in the activities based upon the online materials. The course covered the total of 24 topics or units in the fall semester and included the in-class midterm and final exams.

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## 3. Procedure

A questionnaire survey was conducted in order to incorporate all the participating students' responses to the different constructs relevant to L2 development. All the 231 participants completed the questionnaire between the tenth week and the thirteenth week of the semester. Then, 10 students from each proficiency group were sampled, 20 in totals for an interview with the researcher. The selection of the students was made based upon their achievements on the mid-term exam, such that their scores on the test would correspond to the 70-85 % range. The interview was conducted in Korean for 25-30 minutes with each student. The audio-recorded interview was transcribed for qualitative examination of personal and instructional factors that they thought relevant to their achievement in the English class.

## 4. Data Analysis

I created the questionnaire survey based upon the questionnaires used in the studies of learner belief and anxiety (Horwitz, 1988; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). The adjusted questionnaire generated 14 questions in Likert scale (1-5), each of which addressed different contingencies implicit in the setting of online-incorporated classes under the investigation (See Appendix). The students' responses were then coded and examined by means of t-test for the significance of differences between the low- and the high-proficiency group.

For the qualitative examination of the relationship between various factors that students identified, the present study conducted the semi-structured interview following the procedure of Grounded Theory Analysis (GTA), a qualitative method of analysis that focuses on deriving meaningful, data-based categories (see Northcutt, 1999; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Stauss and Corbin (1998) define GTA as "a general methodology for developing theory that is grounded in data systematically gathered and analyzed" (p. 158). Although GTA approach has been modified over time, "essentially, grounded theory methods consist of systematic inductive guidelines for collecting and analyzing data to build middle-range theoretical frameworks that explain the collected data" (Charmaz, 2000, p. 509). The strength of this qualitative method is that it overcomes most of the limitations in the interview by reflecting participants' own inputs, not answers to researchers' prepared questions. Therefore, the elicited data are grounded on the participants' own experiences that are meaningful to them.

The analytic framework of GTA, as Northcutt (1999) suggests, consists of three steps as in the following.

Step 1: Thematic analysis. This step represents a coding procedure. The level 1 coding

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includes reading the transcripts of the interviews intensively and then organizing the data into small units of basic ideas. Each basic idea unit along with the original quotations of the interviewees is documented, and preliminary codes are assigned to all the ideas related to the research questions. In the level 2 coding, patterns are identified through comparisons of the basic ideas, and similar themes are grouped together. Labels are then assigned to the divisions and subdivisions of each theme. Finally, in the level 3 coding, the themes generated from level 2 are converted to higher, more abstract, theoretical constructs through cross-category comparisons.

Step 2: Generation of variables. In this step, the results from Step 1 are further organized into thematically defined clusters referred to as variables.

Step 3: Interrelationship diagraph analysis. In this step, connections of each construct are identified through a rereading of the original data, and directional relationships among variables are decided upon based on comments that had "correlational" or associative connotations.

The current study followed the GTA procedure in a precise manner. First, I reviewed the scripts of the interviews with the 20 students and coded different construct as commented by the students. Among the participants, 12 were solicited to a separated meeting to answer follow-up questions regarding their interview responses. In the next step, themes were generated and reconfirmed as solid constructs, either personal or instructional, which would affect students' achievement. Finally, in step 3, I re-read the data and identified the interrelationship between the constructs in order to create interrelationship diagraph.

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section of the paper presents the results of the qualitative analysis, i.e., GTA in the order of the three-step analytic method. Discussions will follow the models of the relationships between the personal and instructional factors identified by the two proficiency groups. The results of the questionnaire survey are, then, presented and discussed in references to the models generated from GTA.

### 1. Personal and Instructional factors

As the first and second steps of GTA, I conducted the semi-structured interview with the selected 20 students from the two proficiency groups, 10 per each. Before the interviews, I had a meeting with all the interviewees and asked them to talk about in an informal manner what they had experienced while working online and offline for the past 9 to 10 weeks of the semester and how they evaluated their performances in learning English in the course.

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The interviews with the participants were conducted in Korean.

I created interview questions based upon the constructs that the students addressed during the meeting. The questions included five major themes: 1) strengths and weaknesses of this blended learning environment; 2) The most challenging tasks that students have experiences while completing online and offline tasks; 3) Their experiences with offline class sections in relation to online learning; 4) Anxious moments in online and offline performances; 5) Students' suggestions for the course.

The interviewees' responses to the questions were coded into different factors, and their relationships with other factors were then coded according to whether they affect, or are affected by, each of other factors. The examination generated the following results from the two groups.

1) High Proficiency Group

The analysis of the high proficiency group's responses during the interviews generated 10 major factors which were addressed in relation to their L2 learning experience and achievement. The identified factors are as in the following.

Factor 1: On-line materials

The students addressed the contents and the tests included in the program as a major factor for L2 achievement. For example, several students said, "Since I have a weekly assignment (Factor 6), I have to log onto the program and work on listening and reading (Factor 1)." [H06] Other students also said, "I study online program very hard (Factor 1) and make a note of what I can't really understand. Then, I ask questions regarding those, which I think is good for learning (Factor 6)." [H04]

Factor 2: Off-line class management

This factor has been generated based upon what the participants addressed around offline weekly section. This instructional variable, thus, represented various class activities and interactions, uses of textbooks and other materials, student-teacher ratios, and seating arrangements. A student, for example, said "Since class activities do not always focus on online reading materials (Factor 2), students (including me) oftentimes find themselves skipping online reading parts (Factor 1)." [H04]

Factor 3: Workbook assignment

This factor represents the weekly assignment that students were expected to complete and submit before an offline class begins. Many students, for example, associated this factor with other factors in such a way as to be affected by time constraints (Factor 4). One of the students, for example, said, "I find myself in a hurry every class time because of the due date of the weekly (workbook) assignment (Factor 4)." [H01]

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Factor 4: Time constraints

Time constraints include online and offline deadlines imposed in the course and classroom setting. This factor was often addressed in relation to the others, e.g., "Because of the due dates (Factor 4), I always try to finish the homework in time (Factor 3) which is not always easy to do. But it helps me stay tuned into the course (Factor 9)." [H05]

Factor 5: Teacher characteristics

According to students' responses, instructor is a major factor that affects other factors. One of the most commonly addressed teacher characteristics is the nativeness of the instructor such that, as one student mentioned, "I feel like being pushed into participating in the class activity (Factor 2) since my instructor is a native speaker and does not understand me if I speak Korean (Factor 5)." [H06]

Factor 6: Language learning strategies

This factor has been addressed by the participants as associated with different class activities. The students expressed how they dealt with different tasks in a classroom which affected how they dealt with their online materials. One of the students said, "Since my instructor usually gives us an activity from a workbook assignment (Factor 2), I focus on only first few items on the workbook and I can get away with it all the time (Factor 6)." [H09]

Factor 7: Comparison with peers

Yan and Horwitz (2008) presented this factor as a major construct that primarily drove other factors to work in the learning model of Chinese English participants. This study also found this factor significant as it was often related to others such as a class activity. For example, a student said, "While doing an activity in a classroom (Factor 2), I see my classmates speak English much better than me (Factor 7), which makes me really nervous (Factor 8)." [H06]

Factor 8: Foreign language anxiety

According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), foreign language anxiety affects students' learning experience as a separate and distinct phenomenon. The participants in the present study often expressed "how stressful" they had been while trying to complete workbook assignments in time. Interestingly, the participants of the high-proficiency group also associated this anxious feeling with their English learning interest and motivation. For example, one student said, "I really want to improve my English and get a good grade (Factor 9), which makes me feel so stressed out (Factor 8)." [H03] Other students also identified this factor as a negative influence on their learning, such that "I feel nervous speaking English, and I become stressed out (Factor 8) and very discouraged to study English (Factor 9) because I feel like I can't express myself." [H08]

Factor 9: Language learning interest and motivation

Many students addressed English learning interest in relation to motivation. As Yan and

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Horwitz indicated, these two seemed to be inseparable to the students who had to take this course as a requirement. The participants in this study were in the environment in which English was a major means of communication in other subject courses, and, thus, felt to be in need of interest and motivation. Most of the constructs, therefore, were addressed either to raise or to reduce their interest in learning. For example, during the interview, some students said, "Online listening has interesting conversations from a drama and a radio quiz show (Factor 1), and I think it's very enjoyable to listen to. I feel like studying them more (Factor 9)." [H10]

Factor 10: Achievement

This factor refers to English learning outcome as perceived by the students. The participants addressed this factor in terms of speaking fluency, getting a good grade, or talking to a native speaker to their satisfaction. Therefore, their perceived achievement was not equal to the results from objective measures. One of the students, for example, said, "Whenever I find my classmates doing better (than me) in the classroom (Factor 7), I feel envious and nervous (Factor 8). I may end up with B (Factor 10), which is how I feel." [H08]

Following the method of GTA (Northcutt, 1999; Yan & Horwitz, 2008), the above ten factors were then cross examined to see the interconnectedness between the factors. The students' responses during the interviews provided the bases for the interconnectedness of causal relationship between two factors. One of the student's responses is presented in the following excerpt.

Excerpt (1) (I: interviewer; S: student [H08])

S: I really want to improve my English and get a good grade in this class. I need to keep my scholarship. But I want to speak English better

I: So do you like learning English and working online too?

S: Yes, I do. But I feel so stressed out as well.

Here, the student indicates her motivation to learn English (Factor 9), which also causes her anxious feeling (Factor 8). Her response is then translated into factor 9 affecting factor 8, i.e., 9 → 8. Thus, as shown in Table 1, the arrows mark whether a particular factor is influencing (→), or influenced by(←), another factor under comparison. In cases where two factors were influencing each other in both directions, the arrow, ↔, was employed to mark the interrelationship between the factors.

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**TABLE 1**

**Interrelationships between Factors (High-proficiency Group)**

| Factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | | ← | ← | ← | | → | | → | → | → |
| 2 | → | | ↔ | | ← | ← | → | | ↔ | → |
| 3 | → | ↔ | | ← | → | | | → | → | → |
| 4 | → | → | → | | | | | → | → | → |
| 5 | | → | | | | | | → | → | → |
| 6 | | → | | | | | | | | → |
| 7 | | ← | | | | | | → | → | → |
| 8 | | | ← | | ← | | ← | | ↔ | → |
| 9 | ← | ↔ | ← | ← | ← | | ← | ↔ | | ↔ |
| 10 | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ↔ | |

**Legend** 1. On-line materials; 2. Off-line class management; 3. Workbook assignment; 4. Time constraints; 5. Teacher Characteristics; 6. Language learning strategies; 7. Comparison with peers; 8. Foreign language anxiety; 9. Language learning interest and motivation; 10. Achievement

**TABLE 2**

**Interrelationships Diagraph Analysis (High-proficiency Group)**

| Factors | outs | ins | Outs-ins | Functional Category |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 4 | 3 | 1 | Mediating driver |
| 2 | 5 | 4 | 1 | Mediating driver |
| 3 | 6 | 2 | 4 | Primary driver |
| 4 | 6 | 0 | 6 | Primary driver |
| 5 | 4 | 0 | 4 | Primary driver |
| 6 | 2 | 1 | 1 | Mediating driver |
| 7 | 3 | 1 | 2 | Mediating driver |
| 8 | 2 | 4 | -2 | Mediating outcome |
| 9 | 3 | 8 | -5 | Mediating outcome |
| 10 | 1 | 9 | -8 | Primary outcome |

**Legend** 1. On-line materials; 2. Off-line class management; 3. Workbook assignment; 4. Time constraints; 5. Teacher Characteristics; 6. Language learning strategies; 7. Comparison with peers; 8. Foreign language anxiety; 9. Language learning interest and motivation; 10. Achievement

The factors were then ranked according to their capacity for influencing other factors. The degree of influence was determined by the difference between the number of outgoing arrows (→), and the incoming arrows (←). The balances from outs-ins were then categorized into four functional terms: primary drivers (highest positive numbers); mediating drivers (medium positive numbers or zero); mediating outcomes (medium

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negative numbers); primary outcomes (highest negative numbers).[1] Table 2 displays the categories created based upon the ranked from the outs-ins balances.

2) Low Proficiency Group

The same analytic method, GTA, identified 13 major factors for the low proficiency group, 3 more factors than the high-proficiency group. The factors are explicated in the following.

Factor 1: Online program (contents)

Most of the low-proficiency group addressed online contents separately from online tests during the interviews. Although they were supposed to have completed online units before offline class sections, they were found to select online contents based upon what they had done in the previous offline sections. One of the students said, "When my instructor gives us a lot of activities from online listening part (Factor 4), I then pay attention to listening, and skip things in the other parts. (Factor 1)" [L05]

Factor 2: Online program (test types)

The test type of different units was found to be another instructional factor that affected students' learning. Most commonly addressed regarding the test types of the program was the repetitive pattern of the tests in listening and reading that they perceived to influence negatively on maintaining their interest (Factor 12). Another common response included test types in different sections, and one of the students said, "Because the test of grammar in the online program is different from listening, I think I spend more time in the grammar section (Factor 8)." [L07]

Factor 3: Online time management

Unlike the participants of high-proficiency group, the low-proficiency group students indicated how difficult it was to follow the online weekly schedule in a timely manner. They said, "It helps that the instructor pushes us to do whatever we have to do online (Factor 7)." [L05] But some students said their language learning strategies, such as watching American dramas online, can distract them from staying in the learning program (Factor 8).

Factor 4: Offline class management

This factor was found as significant as it was in the high-proficiency group. Interestingly, students in this group perceived class activities were enjoyable because of the ways that

[1] These four functional categories and the way how they are determined presented in the current study are from Northcutt (1999) and Yan and Horwitz (2008). These categories are useful to describe interrelationship between different constructs and effective to the systematic workings of the collected data.

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their Korean instructors presented the materials and organized activities (Factor 7). One of the students, for examples, said, "I really like the handouts with pictures and drills that my instructor brings to the class (Factor 4). The activities are fun, and she makes it comfortable to work with my friends. She says that the activity is from the workbook, and I think I should work harder on my assignment (Factor 5) in order to do better than my friends in the classroom (Factor 9)." [L01]

Factor 5: Workbook assignment

As this factor represents the weekly assignment, it is often associated with time constraints such as due dates (Factor 6). In this group, this factor affects the ways the students deal with online contents (Factor 1) and tests (Factor 2) as indicated above. One of the students said, "I don't think I would even open the online program (Factor 1) if it were not for the weekly assignment (Factor 5). Not that I like it, but it's a positive push, I think." [L02]

Factor 6: Time constraints

Factor 7: Teacher Characteristics

Regarding characteristics of two Korean instructors, many students addressed their instructors' ways of eliciting students' oral productions in different pair and group activities. For example, a student said, "I like being in the classroom because I feel like I can speak English with my instructor and my classmates. Activities are fun and the instructor is very encouraging (Factor 12)." [L10]

Factor 8: Language learning strategies

Many students in this group addressed this factor in relation to other factors. Their learning strategies, however, hardly facilitated their learning process. For example, one of the students said, "I know my style of learning English. I like doing everything inside the class. I can concentrate on class and do all the work. But I don't like learning outside the classroom such as workbook assignment or online materials (Factors 5 and 1)." [L02]

Factor 9: Comparison with peers

As shown in the high-proficiency group, this factor was closely associated with offline class management (Factor 4). Students in this group also said, "In a classroom (Factor 4), I see my friends speak English, and realize my level of English. This actually motivates me to study English conversation (Factor 12)." [L03]

Factor 10: Language aptitude

Many students in this group addressed their own characteristics that interfered with their English learning. For example, one of the students said, "You should be diligent in order to improve foreign language. But I'm not. I don't like memorizing words and sentences, which makes it difficult to improve my English (Factor 13)." [L03]

Factor 11: Online language learning anxiety

Unlike the high-proficiency group students, the participants in this group addressed

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anxiety closely related to online learning. In other words, their anxiety centered on the online language learning experience, which was influenced by other online factors such as online content and online time management (Factors 1 and 3). One of the students in this group said, "I don't know why but I always feel bad or nervous whenever I have to work online (Factor 11). I don't like learning English from the machine, I guess. I don't enjoy the reading and the speaking sections either. In fact, I have never tried recording my voice on the speaking section yet (Factor 1)." [L02]

Factor 12: Language learning interest and motivation

Factor 13: Achievement

The above 13 factors were then cross-examined to see the interconnectedness between the factors using the same method for the analysis of high proficiency group data. The causal relationship between the pairs of the factors was then determined based upon the students' responses. Following is an excerpt from a low proficiency group student.

Excerpt (2) (I: interviewer; S: student [L04])

S: It is so difficult to open the program. As soon as I click on Internet, I have to check other websites.

I: What websites? You mean emails?

S: Yes. That too. And others like online shopping malls, webpages like cyworld of my good friends. Then I get lost. It takes hours to log on to the program and do the homework.

I: What do you think is the problem then?

S: I don't know. I think-I really think it's me. I know I have to focus more and quickly get started when I have to work on the program and to do the homework.

The student here mentions the time management (Factor 3) which he also relates to his lack of learning strategy (Factor 8) in this online setting. His response then is transformed into Factor 8 → Factor 3. In this way, all the 13 factors' interrelatedness has been identified, which is shown in Table 3.

The 13 factors were then ranked according to their capacities for influencing other factors. According to the degree of influence, one of the four functional categories was assigned to each factor as displayed in Table 4.

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**TABLE 3**
**Interrelationships between Factors (Low-proficiency Group)**

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | | | | ← | ← | | | | | ← | → | → | → |
| 2 | | | ↔ | | | ← | | → | | | → | → | → |
| 3 | | ↔ | | | | | ← | ← | | | ↔ | | → |
| 4 | → | | | | ↔ | | ← | | → | | | → | → |
| 5 | → | → | | ↔ | | ← | | ← | | ← | | → | → |
| 6 | | | | | → | | | | | | → | → | → |
| 7 | | | → | → | | | | | | | | → | → |
| 8 | | | → | | → | | | | | | | → | → |
| 9 | | | | ← | | | | | | | | → | → |
| 10 | → | | | ← | → | | | | | | → | → | → |
| 11 | ← | ← | ↔ | | ← | ← | | | | | | ↔ | → |
| 12 | ← | ← | | ← | ← | ← | ← | | | | ↔ | | → |
| 13 | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | ← | |

**Legend** 1. Online program (contents); 2. Online program (test types); 3. Online time management; 4. Offline class management; 5. Workbook assignment; 6. Time constraints; 7. Teacher Characteristics; 8. Language learning strategies; 9. Comparison with peers; 10. Language aptitude; 11. Online language learning anxiety; 12. Language learning interest and motivation; 13. Achievement

## 2. L2 Learning Models of Two Proficiency Groups

As presented in the previous section, the factors were interrelated to each other in a particular direction, which has revealed that the degree of influence was different across the factors. Based upon the direction and the degree of influence, a model of learning was formulated to each group. The models show how instructional and personal factors in this online setting interact with each other and affect achievement (Figures 2 and 3).

### 1) High Proficiency Group

The factors included in the model of high-proficiency group are assigned to one of the four categories from left to right as shown in Figure 2. The first category, i.e., primary driver, includes four factors that the students perceive to exert direct or indirect influence on other factors: workbook assignment (Factor 3); time constraints (Factor 4); and teacher characteristics (Factor 5). The second category, i.e., mediating driver, consists of four factors that are driven by the primarily driving factors but at the same time generate or drive outcomes in the third category: online materials (Factor 1); offline class management (Factor 2); language learning strategies (Factor 6); and comparison with peers (Factor 7).

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The third category then represents the outcomes rather than drivers of other factors and includes two factors in this model: foreign language anxiety (Factor 8) and language learning interest and motivation (Factor 9). At the far right-hand side of the model is placed achievement (Factor 10) which the students perceive to be driven or influenced by all the other factors.

**TABLE 4**
**Interrelationships Diagraph Analysis (Low-proficiency Group)**

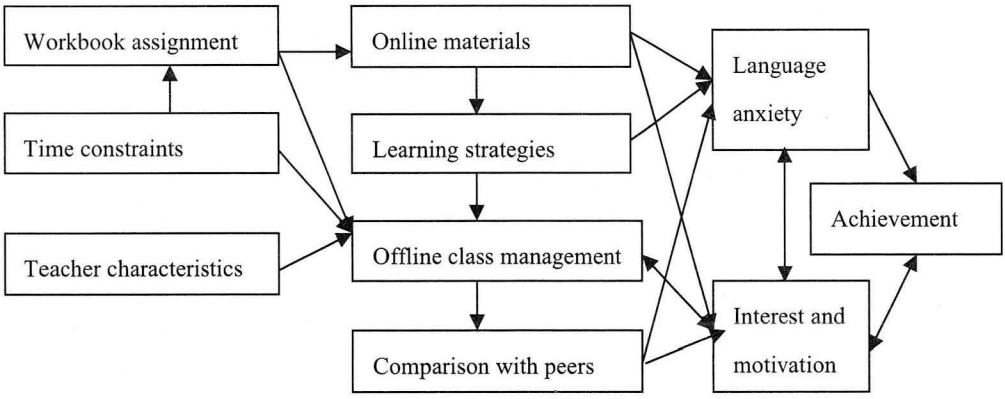
| Factors | outs | ins | Outs-ins | Functional Category |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 3 | 3 | 0 | Mediating driver |
| 2 | 5 | 2 | 3 | Primary driver |
| 3 | 3 | 4 | -1 | Mediating driver |
| 4 | 5 | 2 | 3 | Primary driver |
| 5 | 4 | 4 | 0 | Mediating driver |
| 6 | 5 | 0 | 5 | Primary driver |
| 7 | 4 | 0 | 4 | Primary driver |
| 8 | 4 | 0 | 4 | Primary driver |
| 9 | 2 | 1 | 1 | Mediating driver |
| 10 | 4 | 1 | 3 | Primary driver |
| 11 | 3 | 6 | -3 | Mediating outcome |
| 12 | 2 | 7 | -5 | Mediating outcome |
| 13 | 0 | 12 | -12 | Primary outcome |

**Legend** 1. Online program (contents); 2. Online program (test types); 3. Online time management; 4. Offline class management; 5. Workbook assignment; 6. Time constraints; 7. Teacher Characteristics; 8. Language learning strategies; 9. Comparison with peers; 10. Language aptitude; 11. Online language learning anxiety; 12. Language learning interest and motivation; 13. Achievement

In this model from high-proficiency group, the online material factor served as a mediating driver, not as a fundamental influence on the learning process. Thus, its degree of influence was not as significant as the three primary driving factors, i.e., workbook assignment, time constraints, and teacher characteristics. The online materials, according to them, were affected by workbook assignment; one of the students said, "Because I have to finish the assignment, I work on the online materials." The online materials influenced how the students tackled the L2 learning, and the students, thus, adjusted and changed their learning strategies according to the online learning environment. Therefore, one of the students said, "I usually write down expressions that are new from the online program, and try to ask questions in the classroom (Factor 6: learning strategies)." [H01]

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**FIGURE 2**
**Learning Model of High-proficiency Group**




Online materials also influence students' language learning anxiety. However, their responses are completely different from one to another. On the one hand, students commented working online as a condition that was less stressful. On the other hand, others felt uncomfortable working online because the materials available online were not indexed like a book. Therefore, these contrasting responses generated beneficial or adverse condition for interest and motivation for studying English.

What is interesting in this model is the primary driving function of the factors of workbook assignment, time constraints, and teacher characteristics. These factors, taken together, affected offline class management. Therefore, participants of this group were more concerned about tasks, their native English speaking teacher, and the time constraints than the online learning setting itself.

In this model, some of the factors are not unidirectional, but bidirectional, such that their influence on each other is equal or reciprocal. For example, the students in this group said that offline class management not only contributes to enhancing motivation and interest, but also is affected by the level of interest and motivation that they bring to the classroom. Likewise, the primary outcome, i.e., achievement, interacts with and the mediating outcome, i.e., interest and motivation and language learning anxiety, in the bidirectional manner. Therefore the students ascribed achievement to increased motivation and interest in learning the language and vice versa.

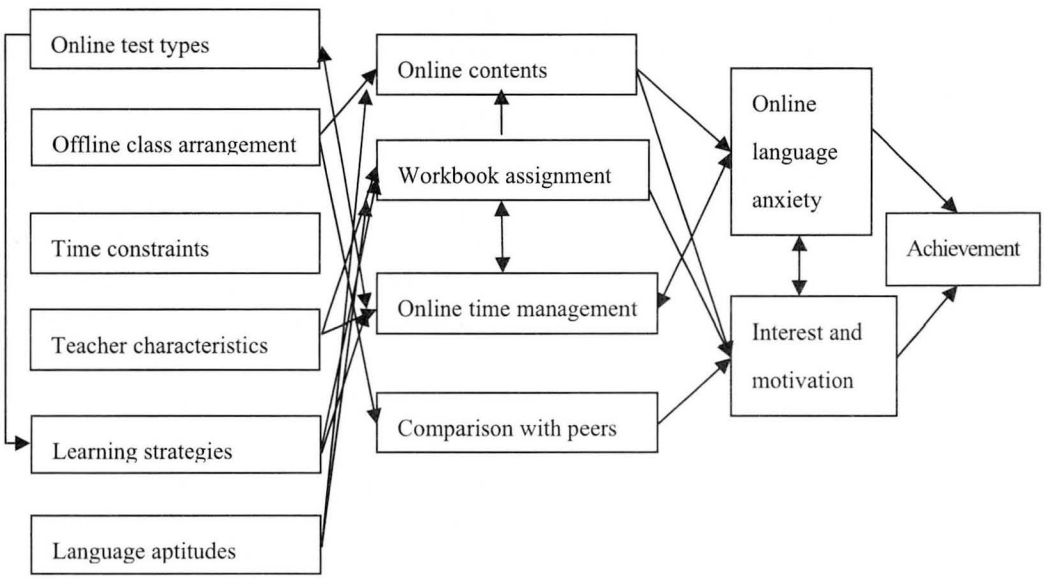
2) Low Proficiency Group

Based upon the interrelationship diagraph analysis (Table 4), a learning model of low

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proficiency group has been generated as shown in figure 3. The primary drivers, located in the far left-hand side of the model include six factors: online test types (Factor 2); offline class arrangement (Factor 4); time constraints (Factor 6); teacher characteristics (Factor 7); learning strategies (Factor 8); and language aptitudes (Factor 10). These primary drivers influence the second category, i.e., mediating driver, which encompasses four factors: online contents (Factor 1); workbook assignment (Factor 5); online time management (Factor 3); and comparison with peers (Factor 9). The immediate outcomes from these mediating drivers include two factors in this model, i.e., online language anxiety (Factor 11) and language learning interest and motivation (Factor 12). Like the model of the high-proficiency group, achievement (Factor 13) is the ultimate outcome that is mostly likely to be influenced by the factors in the preceding categories.

**FIGURE 3**
**Learning Model of Low-proficiency Group**




The model displays how complicating the interrelationship between the personal and instructional factors can be, as perceived by the members of this group. First of all, according to students' responses, the online material affected their learning on two different dimensions: test types and contents, such that "because the test of grammar online is different from listening or reading, I think I spend more time in grammar section." Online contents, by contrast, were affected by other primary drivers, e.g., offline class management. One of the students said, "Since my instructor sometimes does things that are

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not related to the online materials I don't really worry too much about what's on the program." [L05] Other students also said, "When my instructor gives us a lot of activities from online listening part, I then pay attention to listening, and skip things in the other parts." [L06]

Offline class activities with their instructors and classmates primarily affected other factors in the learners. In other words, what the learners experienced in the classroom affected their work on the online program, choice of the contents of the program. Through their interactions, students also compared their performances with their peers, which affected the level of interest and motivation of learning.

One of the primary drivers, language aptitude, revealed how conservative the students of this group were in terms of adjusting to the new learning environment. They brought their own language aptitude which affected other factors in the process of learning, as one of the participants said, "I learn the language normally by watching American drama with subtitles. I think that's the best way to learn the language. Since I'm watching it on my computer all the time, I get distracted to it whenever I log on to the online program." [L10] While this factor was not significant in the high-proficiency group, the low proficiency group perceived this factor to influence substantially the other factors such as online contents.

Online time management was also addressed as a significant factor that was interacting with the participants' degree of online language learning anxiety. This factor was one of the most challenging parts that they had to deal with since many found it difficult to spare time for the online portion of learning. However, when their teacher intervened and pushed the students to work online (teacher characteristic), they perceived managing time online was not as difficult as the context without the outside control. In the same vein, their anxiety centered on the online language learning experience, which was influenced by other online factors such as online contents and online time management. Interestingly, this online language anxiety had a counter effect on the online time management.

In sum, the differences in the learning models between the high- and low-proficiency groups are significant in various aspects. As more factors are addressed in learning English in this online-incorporated setting, the participants of the low proficiency group perceived the learning process more complicating. This result indicates that they need to cope with more factors than the high-proficiency students. The model of the low proficiency group also highlights that the online portion of the learning charges more challenges to this group than to the high proficiency group, since it includes more online-related factors, i.e., online contents, test types, online time management, and online language anxiety. In other words, online-related factors influence or are influenced by other factors, which in turn contributes to how they perceive L2 learning to occur.

Brown (2009) showed in his study of L2 learning college students' belief of effective L2

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teaching practices that the students displayed discrepant needs for L2 instructors' expertise according to their experiences with the classes and to the target language that they were enrolled in. For example, students learning a less commonly taught foreign language (e.g., Arab, Japanese, or Korean) felt more strongly than those learning a commonly taught language (e.g., Spanish) about the need for effective L2 teachers to be just as knowledgeable about the culture as about the language. Brown justly maintained that students' ideals for different L2 teaching strategies should change from their first to second year of L2. The results of the present study, as revealed in the two learning models from the different proficiency groups, demonstrated the discrepancies in the perceptions of L2 learning according to the levels of proficiency. The high proficiency group was found to be less affected by the online portion of the course and to be more capable of adjusting to the new learning setting. Therefore, their understandings of the paths to L2 achievement were significantly different from those that low-proficiency group students carried. This is an interesting finding considering that both groups had almost the same amount of exposure to the online learning, i.e., only a few hours of orientation to the program at the beginning of the semester and the hours of time each student spent at the time of the research. The low–proficiency students, thus, were shown to have the needs for enhanced instruction regarding the use of online program and online learning itself.

## 3. Significance of Differences from the Survey

Along with GTA method to qualitatively examine the participants' perceptions of learning, this study investigated quantitatively how they perceived different instructional and personal constructs. In comparing the two groups' responses, t-tests were run on each questionnaire item. Of the 14 items, 4 showed significant differences between the high- and the low-proficiency groups. Table 5 displays the means of the two groups and p-value from t-tests of the items that carried significant differences.

What is striking from the results of the questionnaire is that two items of the four items are related to online learning experience. First of all, the two groups showed different responses regarding the online tests such that high-proficiency group appeared more comfortable than low-proficiency group (Question 7). The difference was also outstanding in the item asking how they felt about using online tools used in the courses (Question 12). Again in this item, students with high proficiency had less resistance to logging into the program and using Blackboard, another station used to support the delivery of the class.

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**TABLE 5**

**Comparison of High- and Low-proficiency Groups From t-Tests**

| Questionnaire item | High-P. group's means | Low-P. group's means | p |
|---|---|---|---|
| Q 7 I feel more comfortable taking online test than in-class test. | 3.86 | 2.42 | .000 |
| Q 8. I have begun to get worried about passing the course. | 3.70 | 2.32 | .000 |
| Q 12 I log onto the online program and Blackboard often and feel comfortable online. | 3.40 | 2.47 | .003 |
| Q 14 I don't think it is necessary to have more offline class sections to improve my English. | 3.89 | 2.45 | .000 |

Interestingly, the two groups showed significant differences in general anxiety regarding English learning in the class. Students with low proficiency were less anxious about passing the course than those of high proficiency (Question 8). The less proficient students, by contrast, were found to feel strongly about having more offline class meetings, which they perceived would help enhance their English learning (Question 14).

Whereas the questionnaire result quantifies the degree of differences in several factors between the two groups, GTA explains where the differences originate from. For example, in the GTA model of low-proficiency group, online portions function in different terms and in complex ways: online test types; online contents; online time management; and online language learning anxiety. Their influences are also different in terms of its degree of influence as they work as drivers or outcomes. By contrast, high proficiency group shows less dependence on the online environment and on the offline class activities as they function as the mediating drivers rather than the primary drivers. These factors work in the model in conjunction with time constraints and teacher characteristics, not as the fundamental factors for learning to occur. Therefore, their contributions are not as significant as those of the low proficiency group.

The results from the questionnaire then accord with the learning model generated from GTA. While the numerical t-values accounts for the degree of differences in the four items between the two groups, they only present the differences in some factors rather than detailed elucidation of what lead to the differences as perceived by the participants. The qualitative analysis in the preceding parts of this paper, i.e., GTA models, therefore, attenuates the limitation and provides accounts for what works behind the revealed significant differences.

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## IV. CONCLUSION

The overriding purpose of this study was to achieve explanatory models of online-incorporated L2 learning as perceived by L2 learners. Through the GTA of the audio-recorded interview data and the quantitative examination of the survey questionnaires, this study has answered the three research questions as summarized below.

The participants in the study associated various personal and instructional factors with English achievement. During the interviews conducted for GTA, the selected 20 students identified factors that they perceived critical to their learning experiences in the online-incorporated courses. On the one hand, both proficiency groups presented common personal and instructional factors that influence L2 achievement: workbook assignment; time constraints; offline class activities; language learning strategies; teacher characteristics; comparison with peers; interest and motivation. On the other hand, they showed a discrepancy in ways to cope with online-related activities. The low-proficiency group identified the online contents and the online tests separately in relation to other factors and addressed online time management and online-specific anxiety that affect achievement in a crucial manner. As a result, the learning model of the low-proficiency group displayed 13 different factors in comparison with 10 of the high-proficiency group.

Given the identified factors, GTA has created two different models of learning according to the two levels of L2 proficiency. As presented in the Figures 2 and 3, the two groups perceived the workings of the factors to L2 achievement differently. One of the most significant differences rested on their dependence on offline class sections. While this factor, in the high-proficiency group, was located in the middle of the models as a mediating driver, its degree of influence was more powerful as a primary driver in the low-proficiency group. The members of low-proficiency group also depended upon their own language aptitude and showed difficulties with adjusting to this new online learning environment, and, thus, displayed increased anxiety due to online learning setting.

The quantitative part of this study supported the differences in online learning and offline class management between the two proficiency groups. The statistical procedure of t-test revealed significant differences in the items addressing the factors. The findings were largely supported by GTA in terms of what lead to the notable differences. The interrelationship between the factors and their degree of influence corroborated the differences between the two groups revealed in the t-test.

SLA researchers have shown that learner beliefs influence teachers' classroom activities (e.g., Borg, 2003), and unrealistic beliefs or misconceptions about language learning can impede the learning process (Loewen, et al., 2009). The findings of this study clearly indicate how important it is for L2 educators to understand learners' perspectives of learning. Although different in weights that the learners place on the

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function of online setting, the online portion of the learning does influence other personal and instructional factors in particular ways. The proficiency levels are shown to be critical as they differently handle the common factors, such as offline class management and language learning strategies. In other words, they have their own understandings of what factors contribute to increasing their L2 learning interest and motivation, reducing anxiety, and ultimately achieving L2 proficiency. This is an interesting finding, which reveals varied beliefs that different groups of learners have towards a certain instruction. This finding, thus, supports what Loewen and his colleagues demonstrate in their study of learner beliefs (2009), i.e., different beliefs existent in learners' perception of learning in accordance with differences in learners such as proficiency levels of this study.

The differences in perspectives between the two groups, therefore, need to be shared with educators and curriculum designers who plan and implement online-incorporated English learning. As Brown (2009) claims, teachers need to explore their students' perspectives on concrete pedagogical practices in the classroom and to share, selectively, their rationale and justifications for integrating certain activities, in order to inform and motivate their students. Through the qualitative and quantitative examination of L2 learning in an online learning setting, this study strongly supports his idea of shared understanding of L2 learning.

This study has limitations that restrict the generalizability and interpretability of its results. The principal limitation lies in the nature of English learning environment of the study, i.e., the online learning model and the instructors who met the participating students in offline sections. Since this study examined only one model of online learning model, i.e., a replacement model, the findings are bound to this setting that includes both online and offline learning, and cannot be generalized to entirely online learning environment. Also beyond control was a discrepancy in instructors, i.e., nationality, gender, and teaching experiences. Two Korean female instructors taught offline sections of the low-proficiency group, while two male native English-speaking instructors met the students in their offline classes. Their years of teaching experiences were different as well. These uncontrolled variables may have affected the participating students' perception of teacher characteristics and function of this factor, which need to be interpreted in a cautious manner in applying the findings to classrooms taught by instructors from different backgrounds and with varying expertise. These limitations encourage the future researchers to extend the scope of online learning environment and cross-examine the differences according to various online L2 learning environments. Also promising is to research what specific contributions different qualities of classroom teachers can make in the online L2 learning environment. As we have more information accrued on these issues, we can provide practical and effective supports for L2

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classroom, which in turn helps properly cope with the challenges that L2 classrooms face currently and in the years to come.

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## APPENDIX

Questionnaires

해당되는 숫자를 고르세요.

| 매우 그렇지 않다 | 그렇지 않다 | 보통 | 그렇다 | 매우 그렇다 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

1. 나는 영어로 말해야 할 때 자신감이 없다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
2. 나는 영어로 말할 차례가 되면 불안감이 생긴다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
3. 1 주일 한번씩 교실에서 만나는 수업을 하면서 영어에 대한 자신감이 생겼다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
4. 나는 온라인 영어 수업을 하면서 다른 생각을 하고 있을 때가 많다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
5. 나는 교실에서 영어 수업을 할 때 다른 생각을 하고 있을 때가 많다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
6. 나는 다른 학생들이 나보다 영어를 더 잘한다고 생각한다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
7. 온라인으로 시험을 볼 때 교실에서 시험을 볼 때보다 마음이 더 편하다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
8. 나는 영어 수업에 통과하지 못할까 봐 걱정이 되기 시작했다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
9. 수업시간에 영어에 자신이 없어 영어로 손들고 답하는 일이 거의 없다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
10. 강사(교수님)와 영어로 대화해도 별로 불안하지 않다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
11. 내가 아무리 영어 발표 준비를 잘해도 나는 늘 영어로 말하는 게 불안하다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
12. 나는 online program 이나 Blackboard 를 힘들지 않게 자주 사용하고 있다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
13. 나는 온라인 프로그램에서 speaking 이 가장 재미 있다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)
14. 나는 교실 수업 더 많아져야 영어를 더 잘하게 된다는 생각이 든다.
(매우 그렇지 않다)1 2 3 4 5 (매우 그렇다)

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**Examples in: English**
**Applicable Languages: English**
**Applicable Levels: College**

Jeong-Yeon Kim
Department of General Studies
Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology
100 Banyeon-ri Eonyang-eup Ulju-gun
Ulsan, Korea
Tel: 52-217-2013
Email: jkim@unist.ac.kr

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