CONVERSATIONS BETWEEN ADULT LEARNERS OF KOREAN AND THEIR NATIVE KOREAN-SPEAKING CONVERSATION PARTNERS: MOTIVATION OF HERITAGE LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND NON-HERITAGE LANGUAGE LEARNERS

by

JEONGYI LEE

(Under the Direction of Don Rubin)

ABSTRACT

The growth of immigrant groups in the United States has affected the teaching and learning of additional languages in several ways. The demand for classes in less frequently taught languages, such as Korean, is increasing. In addition, large numbers of learners are now seeking to acquire or improve their competence in their heritage languages (HLs), that is, languages identified with their families' ethnic or national backgrounds. In spite of growing recognition of the special status of HL learners with respect to motivation for learning and prior cultural competence in the target language, little research on learning HLs has been conducted, and few models for HL instruction have been tested, especially for less frequently taught languages at the postsecondary level. The present study is attuned to issues of learner motivation and identity is rooted in a sociocognitve perspective that highlights the role of interaction in language learning. Accordingly, this study examined how the complex linguistic, ethnic and social

backgrounds of HL and non-HL learners were associated with their motivations and interactions with native Korean speaking conversation partners.

Demographic and motivational questionnaires were collected from 141 college students studying Korean at three class levels. Ten dimensions of language learning motivation were derived from previous research. In addition, conversations of 16 Korean language learners with their native Korean-speaking conversation partners (CPs) were both quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed to distinguish HL learners' conversational patterns from those of non-HL learners. In addition, elements of CP interactions were linked to both learner background variables and to motivational factors.

Findings revealed that learners of Korean as a HL exceeded non-HL learners in all dimensions of learner motivation with the single exception of value motivation. Moreover, in the analysis of learner conversations with CPs, HL learners exceeded non-HL learners on the total number of Korean words produced as well as on Korean code-switching initiatives, whereas non-HL learners exceeded HL learners on English code-switching initiatives. The associations of heritage-oriented motivation and identity motivation with the conversational features were predictive of learner's production of words and code-switching initiatives. The qualitative analyses of conversational discourse and learner diary entries complemented the findings from the quantitative analyses, suggesting that to HL learners, code-switching played a role in the development of shared norms and the establishment of solidarity with their CPs. To non-HL learners, code-switching functioned more as a conversational management resource. This study supports a conception of heritage language status as a continuum rather than as a

dichotomy. By the same token, learner motivation and conversational activity are show to be linked in a multidimensional fashion.

INDEX WORDS: Code-switching, Conversation partner, Conversational discourse analysis, Foreign language education, Heritage language, Korean language teaching and learning, Motivation, Turn-taking

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by

JEONGYI LEE

B.A., Seoul National University of Education, South Korea, 1990

M.A., The University of Texas at Arlington, 2000

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JEONGYI LEE

Major Professor: Don Rubin

Committee: Linda Harklau
William Kretzschmar
Hyangsoon Yi

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
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DEDICATION

In gratitude for their love and in apology for my selfishness, this dissertation is especially dedicated to my family: mom and sisters living with me on earth and, in memoriam, to dad, brother and sister watching over me in heaven. I hope this dissertation unites my family in heaven and earth as one again.

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In this dissertation I studied motivation and I have thought about what motivated me to complete my dissertation. I had two major motivational individuals for this endeavor: My mom and Dr. Rubin. I might sound too emotional and rude to many individuals who deserve acknowledgements in this first place, but I would like to begin to acknowledge my mom's sacrificial love, never-ending support, tear-filled prayers, and never-faltering faith in me. She has always been with me throughout the years of this journey, going through all the hardship that I have been through. She brought her old, tiring body all the way from Korea cross the Pacific ocean to cook and do house chores for me, take my assistantship duties, wait and pray for me, and take care of me. I do not know how I could pay her back for what I have received from her. This dissertation would not have been completed without her time, efforts and tears. Although she does not understand what I have done in this book at all, I nonetheless hope this book can give her some comforts and peace in her. The other motivational individual, Dr. Rubin, is my major professor, mentor, advisor, and supporter. I am much blessed and thankful to God for giving me the chance to meet him and have his inspiration, guidance and expertise. This dissertation would not have been completed without his generous being, unceasing patience, immense support, kind words, warm heart, as well as his challenging and provoking questions. I am so emotional that I burst into tears in front of him several times and must have embarrassed him. Nonetheless, he did not give up on me and my study. He is such a man of tolerance and the greatest teacher I have ever had. These two individuals,

one familial care-giver and the other academic inspiration-giver, indeed made this accomplishment happen.

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the influence of my late sister, Kumyi (금ㅇ이), on who I am now that resulted in this dissertation. She received so much jealousy and hatred from me, simply because she was the smartest and nicest girl and called everybody's attentions. She shaped my adolescence, motivating me to try to be a good girl out of jealousy, and her sudden death while pursuing her doctoral degree at the University of Wisconsin at Madison served as a reason to finish this dissertation. I had to compensate my family for her unfinished studies. In numerous ways, she was, and still is, my hero. Most of the statistics knowledge I used in this study was from her teaching and I try to help people in need as best as I can to follow her humanitarian spirit. I hope she can hear my voice of deep gratitude and sincere apologies in heaven. My other sisters, Hyunyi (현ㅇ이), Myungyi (명ㅇ이) and Seungyi (승ㅇ이), have been showing me greatest love and encouragements that were essential for me to finish this journey. I am grateful to Hyunyi for her academic interests in my field of study and taking care of mom as a first child, Myungyi for her caring spirit to come all the way from Sydney, Australia and stay with me at the last stage of my dissertation, and Seungyi for her sacrifice to send her adorable daughter to the US to entertain mom and myself. Not to mention, their husbands' supports also made this journey possible.

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his wife due to my studies, and as “the two shall become one,” now it is time for us “to live together to a happy old age.”

The greatest obstacle to this journey was my ignorance and lack of capability, but thanks to all the individuals mentioned above and many more not recognized here I overcame it and survived this journey. Thank you very much.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

> *Even though I haven't really heard the [Korean national] anthem before, I didn't understand a lot of the vocabulary in the song, and I'm probably more American than I am Korean, hearing the anthem filled me with such Korean nationalism.… A lot of my friends jokingly tell me that I am "whiter" than they are, but if my white friends heard the Korean anthem, they wouldn't feel the same about it if it was the Star Spangled Banner. So I guess even though I behave as a "white" person would, I realized that I most definitely identify myself as a Korean in America. This isn't just because of my physical appearance but my emotional state as well. (Yu's third diary).*

This individual, who is visibly identifiable as "non-American" and yet behaved as "American" identified herself as a Korean in America in the process of learning her heritage language (HL hereafter) at a university. The struggle with identity that this HL learner showed in her personal dairy entry may be similar to what many other HL learners in the US have confronted.

In the year 2000, one out of every five students under age 18 in the United States, a total of 14 million, was either an immigrant or a child of immigrant parents, and nearly 18% of the US residents age 5 and older spoke a language other than English at home (US Census Bureau, 2000). Korean was among the top 10 most widely spoken languages: it ranked number 8, with nearly 900,000 speakers (US Census Bureau, 2000).

What is striking is the way in which the distribution of non-English speaking residents of the US does not fully correspond to current foreign language (FL

hereafter) teaching trends in the country. Of the 162 FLs for which enrollment data were reported in a recent survey (Welles, 2004), Korean was marked as the fifteenth. Although only 0.4% of all modern FL students (5,211) were studying Korean during the fall of 2002, the number of students studying Korean at US universities has increased by more than three thousand percent since 1960; more recent increases include a doubling of Korean language learners (KLL hereafter) between 1990 and 2002 (Welles, 2004). Therefore, while overall number of students taking Korean language courses is still comparatively small, enrollments are rising. In addition to the report on how many US college and university students studying each modern FL, it would be interesting to further examine demographic information on who studies each language, especially those comparatively less commonly taught languages, and why they have decided to learn the language. Little attempt to integrate these two perspectives—that is, the demographic and the motivational—has been made with respect to learners of such languages.

The growing interest in the U.S. over the past several decades in the study of HL learning reflects the particular demands on first (L1) and second language (L2) development of HL learners, especially learners from immigrant backgrounds. However, in spite of growing recognition of the special status of HL learners, little research on HLs has been conducted, and few models for HL instruction have been tested, especially at the university level. (Kono & McGinnis, 2001).

The prevalence, special needs, and special resources of heritage learners of Korean language have all impinged directly on my own career as a teacher of Korean. When I was first invited in the year 2002 to initiate classes in Korean at the Georgia Institute of Technology, the impetus for those classes came from a vocal group of Korean Americans who lobbied for Korean classes to be offered on their campus.

These students were so motivated to begin study of their HL that they helped arrange for external funding of the classes through Korean American business owners. Over the following three years that single class has grown to five classes at three levels of proficiency. While the classes are populated by both HL and non-HL learners, the drive to expand the program is fueled primarily by the strong motivation of the former.

This study is an initial attempt to investigate one aspect of the learning processes that may affect HL learners differently than non-HL learners. It looked closely at conversational strategies during one particular form of L2 interaction, conversation partners (CP hereafter) meetings outside the classroom. CPs in this context were native speakers of the target language who agreed to provide practice for learners in informal speaking and listening. Examining the process of learning a L2 through these interactions, this study considered how the complex ethnic and social identities and motivations of HL and non-HL learners were revealed in FL/HL interactions. Particular attention is given to motivational and identity aspects of L2 learning that may affect, and be affected by, CP interactions. It is anticipated that this study may provide empirical as well as theoretical grounds for FL/HL education processes that are especially attuned to issues of learner motivation and identity, and especially directed toward exploiting the potential of relatively unstructured interaction between native speakers and language learners.

Statement of the Problem

The problem that prompted this study is twofold: (1) There is still little attention paid to HL learners, even though the number of HL learners exceeds that of FL learners in some school and college language departments (Peyton, Ranard & McGinnis, 2001) and (2) the practical challenges that educators and policymakers

face as they attempt to develop effective HL programs and/or to improve the quality of HL teaching/learning such as motivational difference between HL and non-HL learners and its effects on interactional language learning have been rarely recognized or empirically examined.

In fact, more than 175 languages other than English are spoken in the US (Brecht & Ingold, 2002). Ironically, while the number of residents speaking a language other than English at home is on the rise, their shift to English dominance appears to be proceeding even faster. Much of that bilingualism appears to be subtractive rather than additive. That is, the acquisition of the second language (English) replaces the first language that is spoken at home (Romaine, 1995). Indeed, English proficiency among first and second generation Americans are generally accompanied by loss of HL competence (Valdes, 2001). This trend away from HL competence and toward host culture language is quite evident in Korean immigrant families (Cho, 2000; Cho & Krashen, 1998, Jo, 2001; Lee, 2002). There is a growing recognition among language professionals and policymakers that the nation's non-English languages and their speakers are valuable resources for assuring diverse types of knowledge and values (Brecht and Ingold, 2002; Wang and Green, 2001). HLs in the US must not be permitted to become obsolete.

Applied linguists and educators emphasize the special language behavior and needs of HL learners (e.g., Krashen, Tse, & McQuillan, 1998; Peyton, Ranard, & McGinnis, 2001; Webb & Miller, 2000). For example, the motivation and identity of HL learners are intrinsically related to the two cultural systems—heritage culture and target culture—whose values may be bipolar (Cho, 2000; Hinton, 1999; Jo, 2001; Lee, 2002; Ryu Yang, 2003; Tse, 1998a, 1998b). HL learners often experience particular struggles with their ethnic identity formation and transformation (Maloof, 1998; Syed,

2001; Tse, 1998a). Many HL learners decide to learn their HLs out of a motivation to realize their ethnic identity or to recover the roots of a neglected cultural heritage (Kagan & Dillon, 2003; Kim, 2002; Lee, 2002; Syed, 2001; Ryu Yang, 2003).

Besides complex issues regarding identity loss and recovery, HL learners are characterized by unique configurations of language knowledge. Even if not fluent themselves, many HL learners often recall some residue of idioms or expressions, or are familiar with at least the phonology of their HL (Brecht & Ingold, 2002; Jo, 2001; Kagan & Dillon, 2003; Lee, 2002; Valdes, 1995, 2001). By the same token, HL learners are more likely than non-HL learners to be familiar with some of the cultural information that typically constitutes a portion of L2 curriculum (Boxer & Cortes-Conde, 2000; Hall, 2001; Saville-Troike, 1985). HL learners thus possess a variety of distinctive characteristics, needs and expectations for learning the target language that differ dramatically from those of non-HL learners. Nonetheless, only limited empirical research actually examines differences in linguistic skills as well as socio-cultural and psychological differences between HL learners and non-HL learners at the university level.

HL status is likely to exert very powerful effects on L2 learners' motivation, and motivation has been demonstrated to be a strong predictor of proficiency among all learners. Earlier research on motivation in language learning examined only a limited set of motivational variables, primarily instrumental versus integrative (Gardner, 1985a). More recently, however, language education researchers have nominated and investigated a much larger range of motivational variables (Jacques, 2001; Schmidt et al, 1996; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001). These include, but not limited to:

a. intrinsic motivation--reasons of personal fulfillment, such as challenge, curiosity, expertise, and enjoyment of language learning itself;
b. instrumental orientation-- the external reasons such as financial, social, or other benefits for learning a language for practical gain;
c. integrative orientation—the external reasons such as being able to interact with members of another cultural group;
d. expectancy motivation—a learner's belief that he/she will do well and receive a good grade in the course;
e. competitiveness—the desire to do better than other students and to obtain top grades;
f. cooperativeness—the gratification inherent in relationships with other learners and the teacher and in learning in a cooperative environment;
g. motivational strength—learner's intention to put his/her best effort into learning the language, keep up with the course, etc;
h. heritage language orientation—learners' attachment to the language as part of their own cultural heritage;
i. aptitude—learner's perceptions of language aptitude;
j. anxiety—learner's nervousness about language testing, speaking, and learning.

No doubt motivation to learn a L2 is related (bi-directionally) to learner interaction or conversation strategies in that target language (e.g., Matthews, 2001). Academic interest in conversation/discourse analysis in L2 and FL learning has grown among applied linguists and educators with the recognition of the value of interaction in promoting language learning (e.g., Cazden, 2001; Hall, 2001; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; Larsen-Freeman, 1980; Rivers, 1987; van Lier, 1996). Much discourse analysis

of learner interactions, however, focuses either on teacher-student or student-student conversations within conventional classroom settings (e.g., Allwright, 1980; Celce-Murcia, 1980; Schinke-Llano, 1994). Other analyses of language learner talk examine naturalistic second language acquisition (SLA) in informal, social contexts (e.g., Barraja-Rohan, 2003; Gaskill, 1980; Mori, 2003; Peck, 1996; Schwartz, 1980; Wong, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c).

One interactional language learning context that has received little analysis is that of formally assigned CPs. CP interaction is a mainstay in FL classes (Mori, 2002; Rivers, 1987; Strevens, 1987). The pedagogical presumption is that through CP interactions, FL learners can be exposed to authentic input that is inherently of interest. Nevertheless, relatively little systematic attention has been paid to this form of institutionally sponsored yet communicative social interaction intended to enhance language learning. For example, it is likely that the interpersonal power differential between nonnative language learner and native CP is a good deal narrower than the status gap between student and teacher (Candela, 1999; Drew, 1991; Kramsch, 1987; Kurhila, 2001; Manke, 1997; Orellana, 1996; Wong, 2000a). The reduced interpersonal or power differential in the case of CP interaction may promote certain discourse characteristics that might be advantageous to learners, for example expectation of equal distribution of speaker turns. On the other hand, some CP interactions may be more marked by power differentials than others. Currently we know little about how L2/FL learner turn-taking patterns in the target language might be affected by degrees of discrepancy in interpersonal power.

Besides the discourse consequences of power differentials on turn-taking in CP interactions, another promising area of inquiry about discourse pertains to code-switching (Burt, 1992; Heinz, 2003; Hinkel, 1996; Myers-Scotton, 1992; Scotton,

1983, 1988; Yoon, 1996). Lacking native-like communication competence, non-native speakers must quite frequently be in need to switch code to their preferred and competent language in terms of displaying proper deference, and in terms of maintaining a cordial and coherent flow of discourse. It is likely therefore that in conversations between native CPs and L2 learners of a language, most code-switching to the target language would be initiated by the language learners, not by the native speaker, since they are the ones who need their L1 support. When some of those learners are HL learners, however, a number of factors might militate to increase their willingness and ability to assume code-switching initiative. Thus, HL learners who feel more comfortable in conversation with L1 speakers of the target language or who have some confidence beyond that of non-HL learners might be expected to show relatively stronger levels of code-switching initiative to the target language, compared to non-HL learners.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study, then, was to examine language learner interactions with CPs from a linguistic and sociocultural perspective. Particular emphasis was placed on those discourse features likely to distinguish HL learners from non-HL learners' conversations. The language learning context examined was a relatively less frequently taught language—Korean. It utilized audio-recordings of both HL and non-HL learners' interactions with their CPs who were native speakers of Korean. The study also administered questionnaires to a larger group of students to ascertain HL and non-HL KLLs' prior exposure to Korean language and culture, identity entailments with this target language, and learner motivation. In that way, the behaviors of the smaller set of KLLs who were studied in interaction with CPs can be understood in context of KLLs in general. Finally, this study sought to link learner

background variables such as exposure to the target language to both CP interactions and to motivational factors.

Methodologically, by grounding this research in carefully sampled discourse produced during interactions, it served to shift the empirical research paradigm regarding HL away from exclusive reliance on self-report questionnaires, or on interpretative ethnographic work, action research, or introspective measures. In sum, this study investigated how student language/social/ethnic background was associated with their motivation and conversational interactions.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This investigation focused on four specific research questions which were evaluated through the use of appropriate quantitative as well as qualitative analyses.

Research Question 1. How do general learner demographic background variables—especially heritage language learner status—affect learner motivation and affect variables?

A. Is HL status related to (i) value, (ii) heritage orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, and (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity?

B. Are (a) age, (b) gender, (c) level of study, (d) birthplace, (e) first language, (f) parent birthplace, (g) parent first language, (h) self-assessed proficiency of Korean, and (i) amount of exposure to Korean in youth related to (i) value, (ii) heritage orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness,

(viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, and (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity?

Research Question 2. Are conversation analysis variables such as (a) number of words, (b) number of words in Korean, (c) frequency of turns, (d) Korean code-switching initiative, and (e) English code-switching initiatives related to participant variables such as (1) heritage status of learner, (2) scope of relationship between partners (acquaintanceship precedes and extends beyond conversation partner meetings or initiated with and limited to conversation partner meetings), and (3) gender of partner (male- or female-partner)?

Research Question 3. Are conversation analysis variables such as (a) number of words, (b) number of words in Korean, (c) frequency of turns, (d) Korean code-switching initiative, and (e) English code-switching initiatives related to meeting variables such as (1) segment of meeting (beginning, middle, or end) and (2) sequence of the meeting during the term (first, second, third, or fourth)?

Research Question 4. In the context of Korean language CP interactions, how do learner motivation and affect variables including (i) value, (ii) heritage language orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity affect conversation analysis variables including (a) amount of words, (b) amount of words in Korean, (c) frequency of turns, (d) Korean code-switching initiative, and (e) English code-switching initiative?

In light of these questions, seven research hypotheses were posed:

Hypothesis 1. HL learners, relative to non-HL learners, will manifest higher levels of learner motivation and affect variables including (i) value, (ii) heritage language orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, and (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity.

Hypothesis 2. Personal and background variables of KLLs including (a) age, (b) gender, (c) level of study, (d) birthplace, (e) first language, (f) parent birthplace, (g) parent first language, (h) self-assessed proficiency of Korean, and (i) amount of exposure to Korean in youth will predict learner motivation variables including including (i) value, (ii) heritage language orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, and (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity.

Hypothesis 3. Male CPs will dominate the conversational interactions, whereas female CPs will permit more equitable distribution of talk with the KLLs.

Hypothesis 4. Prior relationships between CPs and their KLLs will facilitate conversation, increasing output and equitable turn-taking.

Hypothesis 5. HL learners, relative to non-HL learners, will share more equitable distribution of turns of talk with their native Korean-speaking CPs.

Hypothesis 6. Over the four CP meetings, KLL conversational competence will evince increases in number of total words, Korean words, turns, and code-switching to L2.

Hypothesis 7. Learner motivation and affect variables including (i) value, (ii) heritage language orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, and (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity are all positively correlated with the amount of interaction between conversation partners. In other words, the more motivated learners are, the more actively they get involved in interactional conversations by manifesting higher levels of production of total words and Korean words, taking more turns, and using more L2 over L1.

Significance of the Study

This study has significance for its unique contribution to the field of HL. Despite its strong relevance in the contemporary US, research on HLs is still at the early development stage (Draper & Hicks, 2000). Moreover, most research in this topic within the US has been done in relation to Spanish. (See Valdes, 2001 for her review of research conducted on Spanish as a heritage language. Also, see Peyton, Ranard, & McGinnis, 2001 for summaries of research in the field of heritage language education.) The present study helps extend the HL paradigm to less commonly taught languages.

Moreover, this study investigated an important instructional and interactional process that has not often been addressed empirically: heritage and non-heritage KLLs in learning conversations. Though the use of CPs in all types of second language learning (including ESL—see, Wilson, 1993) has been much encouraged, little was known prior to this study about what actually transpires in such interactions. The power of this study lies in its analysis of dyadic conversations between leaner and

native-speaking CP. It also documented the motivational profiles of heritage KLLs in comparison with those of non-heritage KLLs.

In addition, this study is significant for its utilization of mixed methods data analysis

(Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Johnson, B. & Turner, A., 2003; Onwuegbuzie, & Teddlie, 2003; van Lier, 1988). Sources of data for this study included questionnaires with numeric rating scales, interaction diaries, and conversation transcripts. This diversity of data types constituted a deliberate attempt to connect qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collection and analyses (e.g., Itakura, 2001). Quantification of the data collected from questionnaires provided in-depth understanding of a relatively large group (N = 141) of KLLs' social, ethnic, and linguistic stratifications in relation to their motivation. The transcript data collected from the KLL/CP dyads were utilized quantitatively as well as qualitatively. A number of conversational features such as number of words and turn-taking, found in transcripts were computed. Also, the in-depth discourse-based interpretation of some segments of the transcripts gave a detailed discussion about some conversational aspects such as code-switching. In addition, diaries kept by learners were one of the qualitative data sources in this study, providing opinions and perceptions important to the learners. The quality of diary entries collected in this study varied from rich accounts consisting of several pages to sketchy reports of just a few lines. Despite the inconsistency of diary data in terms of depth, however, the analysis of the diary data in this study helped provide in-depth understanding of language learning variables from the learner's perspective. By this method, this study treated qualitative and quantitative issues of data collection and analyses as continua rather than as dichotomies.

Terminology

Motivation

Due to its multifaceted and complex nature that represents multiple perspectives, the manner in which the concept of motivation is used frequently in the literature can easily lead to different interpretations. In this study, therefore, the concept of motivation is limited to the second/foreign language learning context, referring to the learner's orientation toward the goal of learning a second/foreign language. By definition in the context of the second/foreign language learning, motivation is "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language (Gardner, 1985a, p. 10)." In the Gardner's (2001) model, attitudes toward any aspect of the situation in which the language is learned influence motivation, and attitudes and motivation together influence language achievement, which in turn has an influence on subsequent attitudes and motivation. Motivation does not only affect the generation of an incentive goal but also the transformation of the goal into significant action (Schumann, 2001). This learning situation-specific motivation in the L2 field is widely agreed as one of the key determinants of language learner's success or failure.

Heritage Language

There is little consensus on what it is meant by the term heritage language (Kondo-Brown, 2001). Ostensive definitions encompass all non-English languages for some authorities (Valdes, 2001; Wiley, 2001), while the concept of heritage language is reserved for ancestral languages for others (Fishman, 2001). In this study, heritage language is defined as the language of one's home or ethnic community that is not the majority of high status language in a particular national context.

Heritage Language Learner

The term HL learners refers to "learners with a home background in the target language" (Gambhir, 2001:208). Considering the nature of the American HL-learning population, an attempt to define HL learners should be made in a multivariate and nuanced manner. By far, within the context of the American Korean-learning population, the largest group of Korean HL learners is made up of Korean-Americans, both those who were born in the US and raised by their Korean-speaking parents and those who were born in Korea but immigrated to the US, often at a young age (Silva, 2004). Besides these learners, a small number of learners who are of mixed parentage (Korean and non-Korean) may be considered heritage learners. In this regards, this study considered three personal factors on the assumption that they collectively reflected learner's heritage status. The three factors were (1) first language backgrounds of the parents, (2) parental birthplace, and (3) patterns of Korean language use in childhood and adolescence. For the purposes of this study, the term HL learners was understood within the following three levels of intensity: (1) high-HL learners with active Korean language use histories who had both parents born in Korea as native speakers of Korean, (2) moderate-HL learners who had one parent born in Korea as a native speaker of Korean, and (3) no-HL learners who had passive Korean language use histories in their youths, and their parents born outside Korea were not native speakers of Korean.

Non-Heritage Language Learner

Non-HL learners as opposed to their counterpart HL learners refer to those traditional learners of a FL without any home or ethnic background related to the language. As true novices, their desire to learn the FL typically springs from a wide range of factors.

Turn-Taking

The notion of turn-taking can be understood within the context of conversation management. By a successful turn-taking, one interlocutor takes the floor and continues the interaction. Backchannel responses such as *uh huh,* and 네 'yes', were regarded as a part of the turn-taking system in this study. While one speaker has the floor, by providing appropriate backchannel responses turn-taking occurs and the other interlocutor holds the floor. Also, in addition to the verbal messages, turn-taking occurred through nonverbal messages such as laughter.

Code-Switching

In this study, the investigation of conversation functions was accomplished in association with code-switching that is treated as a contextualization cue in bilingual conversation (Auer, 1995). Generally, it refers to the alternate use of two or more varieties in conversation. From a structural point of view, three different discourse levels are possible: (1) two speakers using different languages in consecutive turns; (2) a single speaker switching code at sentence-utterance boundaries within a turn referred as inter-sentential code-switching; and (3) different constituents within a sentence-utterance being coded in different languages referred as intra-sentential code-switching (Li Wei & Milroy, 1995). For the purposes of this study, however, the particular focus of this study was intra-sentential and inter-sentential code-switching instances within a learner participant's turn at a micro-level, and did not take into account the sequential organization of language choices by the other native CP participant.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study follows as a theoretical basis the sociocultural perspective of learning process, deriving in part from the concepts of Vygotsky (1978, 1986), which illuminates the role of social interaction in creating an environment for learning. Since the sociocultural perspective examines interaction within a broad social and cultural context I found this framework useful for understanding the benefits of classroom interaction. Within and beyond this perspective, motivation is the theoretical basis for a research agenda for the investigation of this study. This chapter, therefore, is designed to provide background information on the theoretical framework of this study.

I first review relevant literature to this study that has provided concepts and theories of motivation in language learning contexts. The second section addresses Vygotsky's notions of internalization and the zone of proximal development within the sociocultural perspective. Then, I review one of the theoretical perspectives and analytic approaches to discourse analysis that guides this study, conversation analysis. While illustrating the theoretical positions of conversation analysis for this study, the section provides significant empirical studies with a special focus on code-switching. The last section of this chapter provides an overview of research into dichotomies of heritage and non-heritage in language learning contexts, followed by the review of literature related to heritage language learning.

Motivation and Language Learning

It has been widely accepted that motivation is one of the key determinants that influence the success of second language/foreign language (L2)[1] learning, and there has been a great deal of L2 motivation research among applied linguists and educators during the past decades (Dornyei, 1994a, 1998, 2001c; Jacques, 2001; Oxford & Shearin, 1996). Although second and foreign language learning shares considerable theoretical similarities, learning a second language is a different process from learning a foreign language in terms of motivation: the urgency for learning a second language is not there to the same extent as it is in a foreign language, and the learners' needs and motivations for learning can therefore not be taken for granted in the same way (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; van Lier, 1996). Also, it is clear that in language learning, learners are motivated in different ways and to different degrees (van Lier, 1996). However, there has been no absolute, straightforward and explicit concept of or general agreement on definitions of motivation in relation to other concepts (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1998). In what follows, the overview of motivation research will start with the discussion of the basic issue of what motivation is, looking at various conceptualizations in mainstream L2 contexts over the past several decades.

Motivation, a L2 Research Agenda

Nobody could deny the importance of motivation to L2 learning. However, it would be naïve to assume any simple and straightforward answer to the basic issue of what motivation is. Rather, it is surprising how little agreement there is among L2

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[1] The term "second language" (L2) refers to an additional language for those who need to learn the language in in highly fluent and competent fashion in order to succeed academically and socially while immersed in a non-native culture (e.g., English in school programs in the U.S. for immigrant students). The term "foreign language" (FL) refers to an additional language for those who learn the target language for various instrumental and integrative reasons, but who expect a lesser degree of immersion and more constrained contact (e.g., German for English-speaking students who wish to read German philosophy in the original). In the present study, most students were studying Korean as a FL rather than as a L2. For a more detailed distinction between L2 and FL, see Hall & Verplaetse (2000).

motivation researchers with regard to the exact meaning of motivation (Dornyei, 1998).

Motivation indeed, “like the concept of gravity, is easier to describe (in terms of its outward, observable effects) than it is to define. Of course, this has not stopped people from trying it” (Covington, 1998: 1). Gardner (1985a) defines L2 motivation as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language” (p. 10). In other words, motivation is identified primarily with the learner’s orientation toward the goal of learning a second language. More specifically, a truly motivated individual displays all three components of motivation—desire to learn the language, motivational intensity (effort), and attitudes towards learning the language (Gardner, 1985a). These three components, taken together, are viewed as motivation in Gardner’s motivation model. This particular concept of motivation together with the support of standardized measures has tended to “dominate all other ways of looking at the idea in the L2 field” (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

In claiming that the term motivation has been used as a general umbrella term to include a number of possibly distinct concepts, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggest an expanded definition of motivation to learn a language in terms of choice, engagement, and persistence, as determined by interest, relevance, expectance, and outcomes—containing both internal and external features. With the underlying belief that “L2 motivation is a complex, multifaceted construct (p.117)” and that “there simply does not exist an absolute, straightforward and unequivocal concept of ‘motivation’ (p. 118)”, Dornyei (1998) claims that in current educational psychology L2 motivation contains featured personality and social dimension as well as the environmental and cognitive factors normally associated with learning.

Motivation related to one of the most basic aspects of the human mind explains why people think and behave as they do (Dornyei, 2001a). It is agreed by most teachers and researchers that motivation plays an important role in determining success or failure in any learning situation. More specifically, motivation in the L2 field is considered one of the key determinants of language learners' success or failure. In fact, L2 motivation construct is so eclectic, complex, and multifaceted that represents multiple perspectives and that in the last few decades the diverse approaches have evolved to investigate the nature and role of motivation in the L2 learning process both empirically and theoretically. Arguing that work to date on the topic of L2 motivation has been limiting, for example, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) provide the foundation for a research agenda that stimulate a cautious, thorough approach to the topic of L2 motivation through the use of a wide variety of methodologies. Calling for the expansion of traditional theories of L2 motivation, Oxford (1996) included in her edited work new psychological variables and other factors that have not been included in the social psychological theories of L2 motivation. The studies collected in Dornyei and Schmidt (2001) have further broadened the scope of investigation to various interpretative approaches, large-scale quantitative techniques, multilingual/multicultural settings, different age groups, and to many different countries. Despite much criticism, it is believed that in the history of L2 motivation research the most important work is the L2 motivation model developed by Gardner and his associates, which is considered more elaborate and advanced than many contemporary mainstream psychological models of motivation in that it was empirically well-tested. For a detailed review of motivation as a research agenda in L2 settings, I turn to a few of the issues raised in his model in the following section.

Gardner's Motivation Theory

Until the 1990s research on L2 motivation has heavily been dominated by that of Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert and their Canadian associates (e.g., Richard Clement, Peter MacIntyre & Kim Noels), the most influential work in a social psychological framework since the 1950s, referred to as the "Gardnerian social psychological model" by Dornyei (1994a: 273) (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1990, 1994a, 1994b, 1998, 2001c, 2003; Gardner, 1985a; Gardner & Clement, 1990; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a, Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a, 1994b; Oxford, 1996). Accordingly, in the L2 field, virtually all discussion of L2 motivation has been heavily influenced by the distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation made by Gardner and Lambert (1972) in the first comprehensive summary of L2 motivation research. Integrative motivation is associated with the learner's positive attitudes toward the target language group and desire for cultural or linguistic integration into the L2 group, or at the very least an interest in meeting and interacting with members of that community. Instrumental motivation, in contrast, refers to the potential practical reasons for learning a language, such as getting a better job, a promotion, or a higher salary, entering a better school or passing a required examination, and so on. Gardner himself (1985a) does not currently claim the superiority of integrative motivation to instrumental or any other type of motivation, but simply that integratively oriented students are more successful at learning the language (in this case, French) than are instrumentally oriented students and they are also more motivated.

There does exist an integrative/instrumental dichotomy in Gardner's model known as the socio-educational model, but in fact this is not part of the core motivation component (Dornyei, 1998; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a). The measures

of those two orientations— as they claim, “these are orientations, not motivations” (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a)—“tend to correlate with each other, and quite frequently both contribute to the Integrative Motive factor” (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a: 360). This point has been made in many articles, for example:

> It is true that in the socio-educational model of second language acquisition, integrative motivation is seen as important. It is not seen as paramount, however. The central concept in the model is motivation (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a: 361).
>
> The important point is that motivation itself is dynamic. The old characterization of motivation in terms of integrative vs. instrumental orientations is too static and restricted (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a: 4).

Rather, a key element of Gardner’s theory is the construct of the ‘integrative motive’, which contains three sub-components at three different levels in the model (Gardner, 1985a). He emphasizes that motivation is the primary factor in the model among those three factors—Motivation, Attitudes toward the Learning Situation, and Integrativeness—that can influence individual differences and have been characterizing an integrative motive as a complex of variables (Gardner, 1985a; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a; Gardner, 2001).

It must be noted at this point that in Gardner’s conceptualization of L2 motivation, the term “integrative” has been used interchangeably in three different forms—Integrative Orientation, Integrativeness, and the Integrative Motive— and discussions of this model in the L2 literature use “the integrative motive” and “motivation” virtually interchangeably (Dornyei, 1994b; Oxford, 1996). This causes “confusion for some consumers of research findings” (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994: 14). Nevertheless, close variations of the Integrative Motive

construct have consistently emerged in various learning contexts. For example, in a study of Hungarian secondary school learners of English conducted by Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1994), a factor including "Attitudes towards the Anglophones," "Motivational Intensity," Need for Achievement," and "Identification Orientation" has been identified as the Integrative Motive in the Gardnerian construct.

Not all theories (evolved in L2 field or any other fields) are built upon reliable and replicable empirical relationships. Gardner's theory, however, is considered an exception in that it is empirically well-grounded, and those explicitly defined motivational components are verified by extensive field research and measured by Gardner and his associates' motivation test, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Dornyei, 1994b). It is still one of the most frequently used standardized instruments with well documented psychometric properties and also offers a comprehensive list of motivational factors, including classroom-specific factors such as the appraisal of the teacher and the course (For a detailed review of the motivation test, see Gardner, 1985b; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b; Gardner 2001). As Crookes and Schmidt (1991) claims, "this particular approach has been so dominant that alternative concepts have not been seriously considered" (p. 501).

Although it has heavily dominated L2 motivation research over the decades since Gardner and his associates established scientific research procedures and introduced standardized assessment techniques and instruments, Gardner's theory has not been unchallenged and was criticized in recent years. Interestingly, the Gardnerian social psychological model itself has also expanded the motivation construct in language learning based upon previous versions of the model "adopting a wider vision of motivation" (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995: 505). In Gardner and Tremblay's (1994b) words:

> The socio-educational model of second language acquisition is not a static formulation. It is continually undergoing change and development, as new relevant information is uncovered (p. 524).

Expanded Theoretical Approach to L2 Motivation

L2 learning processes are extremely complex due to the direct link of the pedagogical purposes of the language classroom to the linguistic forms and patterns in interaction produced (Dornyei, 1994a; Hall 2001). Indeed, L2 classroom is different in many ways from other school subjects due to the dual role of language (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994a, 1998, 2003; Gardner, 1985b; Hall, 2001). So much is going on in an L2 classroom at the same time that no single L2 motivational principle can possibly capture this complex processes that take place in the classroom interactions (Dornyei, 1994b, 2001c). This general recognition led a number of L2 motivation researchers in the 1990s to expand the Gardnerian social psychological model so that it could provide a more adequate motivational analysis of the "real world domain of the SL classroom" (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991: 470). As Oxford (1996) states:

> (For decades language teachers and researchers have been walking the well-known roads of social psychological theories of language learning, never venturing to explore the many possible intersecting pathways representing other branches of psychology.) Without losing track of the well-traveled social psychological streets and without getting lost in any little byways, thickets, or weedbeds, it is time for us to look more widely at all the possible pathways in the realm of language learning motivation (p. 1).

The starting point in this movement is the question of whether motivations differ between learners of second and foreign language which has been repeatedly

raised in recent years, and the recognition that there is considerable scope to investigate different contextual circumstances from the Gardner's Canadian setting where people are learning the target language as a second language (e.g., Clement et al., 1994; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1990; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Considering that second language acquisition (SLA) contexts are distinct from a foreign language learning (FLL) context, Dornyei (1990) expressed in his investigation of young adult learners in a foreign language learning situation in Hungary most explicitly that the existing Gardnerian social psychological L2 motivation construct is not directly applicable in certain educational contexts, for example a foreign language learning context:

> These considerations suggest that in FLL situations—especially with an international target language such as English, Spanish, or Russian—affective predispositions toward the target language community are unlikely to explain a great proportion of the variance in language attainment. This, however, undermines traditionally conceived integrative motivation, implying that in FLL situations, instrumental motivation, intellectual, and sociocultural motives, and/or other motivational factors that have not as yet been analyzed, may acquire a special importance. On the other hand, one may also argue that affective factors that are normally part of integrative motivation in SLA contexts do play a role in FLL as well, but that such attitudes, interests, and values are supposed to form clusters that differ from those emerging in SLA context (p. 49).

Although it is widely agreed that the Gardner's theory does not concern only the social dimension of L2 motivation, it is also true that Gardner's motivation model has overlooked other important aspects of motivation in the classroom environment

by emphasizing the sociocultural dimension of L2 motivation (Dornyei, 2003). Therefore, while acknowledging the relevance of social dimension of L2 motivation that is the main emphasis in Gardner's model, researchers started to consider different contextual circumstances, "who learns what languages where" (Dornyei, 1994a: 275), bringing together factors from different psychological fields. Calling for research with a more educational focus, as a result, a number of studies were conducted to examine other influencing factors that have not yet been analyzed in the traditional social psychological construct of L2 motivation but might also affect motivation and define the role of contextual factors (e.g., Clement et al., 1994; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1990, 1994a, 1994b, 1998, 2001c, 2003; Dornyei & Schmidt, 2001; Noels et al., 2003; Oxford & Shearin, 1994, 1996).

While "reopening the research agenda" (p. 469, as seen in the title of their paper), Crookes and Schmidt (1991) grounded this marked educational shift of the 1990s in L2 motivation. Suggesting that "a theory of the role of motivation in SL learning ought to be general and not restricted to particular contexts or groups" (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991: 502), they postulate motivational characteristics of the situation in terms of the four levels: the micro level, dealing with motivational effects on the cognitive processing of SL materials; the classroom level dealing with techniques and activities in motivational terms; the syllabus/curriculum level with content decisions coming into play; and outside the classroom with considerations relevant to informal, out-of-class, and long-term factors. It would be worthwhile to take a closer look at the fourth level of informal learning context in their study for the purposes of the present study, which deals the interactions between language learners and their CPs that take place outside the classroom. As been examined by L2 motivation researchers (e.g., Krashen & Gardner), in Crookes and Schmidt's study the

role and concept of motivation in informal L2 learning contexts are the same as in formal classroom learning. In their words, “the concept of motivation discussed in this paper is as applicable to informal, naturalistic learning as to classroom learning, and no different processes of learning are involved (p. 494)”.

Initiated by Crookes and Schmidt, a number of researchers attempted to conceptualize situation- or task-specific motivation (in a more educational framework) rather than broad community-level social tendencies (in the social milieu/framework) (Dornyei, 1998). As a part of the ‘Modern Language Journal debate’ (for detailed reviews, see Dornyei, 1994a, 1994b; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a, 1994b; Oxford, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994), for example, Oxford and Shearin (1994) provided a stronger basis for new directions of L2 motivation research by integrating existing motivational theories into an expanded theoretical framework that has practical educational implications.

Following Crookes and Schmidt’s initiative, Dornyei also tried to propose some extended new L2 motivation constructs for foreign as apposed to second language learning from an educational perspective while integrating the social psychological constructs created and elaborated by Gardner and his associates into the proposed new framework of L2 motivation (Dornyei, 1994a). In his early framework of L2 motivation, he attempted to elaborate on the educational aspect of L2 motivation by bringing together classroom-specific motives in a three-level construct: the Language Level, the Learner Level, and the Learning Situation Level, that consists of both an integrative and instrumental motivational subsystems as well as a need for achievement and attributions about past experiences (Dornyei, 1994a). Although the framework lacks a goal component and cannot be empirically tested due to the diversity of the components listed (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994b,

1998), it is "useful in emphasizing the multidimensional nature of L2 motivation, pulling together a number of different lines of research and providing an elaborate enough specification of relevant motives for the purpose of in-depth analysis of particular learning situations and design of intervention techniques to enhance them" (Dornyei, 1998: 125-126).

More recently, studies on motivation in L2 field in Dornyei and Schmidt's (2001) offers a representative cross-section of current thinking on L2 motivation using both traditional quantitative research methodologies and qualitative approaches that increasingly complement the quantitative techniques in research on motivation in second, foreign, and heritage language learning situations in the same vein. The focus of research attention of their collection is a variety of motivational constructs such as the interrelationship between motivation and learning strategy use (see, for example, Schmidt & Watanabe), teacher motivation and its impact on student motivation (see, for example, Jacques), and the role of cognitive attributions (see, for example, Williams, Burden & Al-Baharna). However, motivational aspects of heritage language students have received little attention and their research was limited to only two chapters contributed by Kondo-Brown, in which the language learning motivation of 145 bilingual heritage students of Japanese in Hawaii was investigated, and by Syed, in which the interpretative exploration of learners' motivation of five female foreign/heritage learners' of Hindi was documented. As evidenced here, few empirical as well as interpretative investigations of heritage language learners' motivation compared to that of foreign language learners have been carried out.

Like most of the research on the orientations of heritage language learners (e.g., Feuerverger, 1989, 1991; Noels & Clement, 1989; Teitelbaum, Edwards, & Hudson, 1975), Kondo-Brown's (2001) research also focused on the integrative and

instrumental orientations. This research has yielded somewhat contradictory results regarding the relative predictive power of these two orientations: She found that most bilingual heritage learners of Japanese at all levels of Japanese had both instrumental and integrative motives to maintain or improve Japanese language skills for work and for communication with Japanese people. Further, as Noel (2001) has pointed out in the same volume that "the availability of members of the L2 group in the immediate environment would seem to influence the emergence and importance of different orientations" (p. 59), she concluded that extensive Japanese language contacts with mothers seemed most critically associated with the language behavior of bilingual heritage students of Japanese, and they seemed to learn the language to use it in their immediate environments rather than social settings remote to them.

In her qualitative study of five female Hindi learners (3 heritage and 2 foreign language learners), Syed (2001) documented how foreign/heritage language learners' notions of self immediately impact their learner motivation and interest. She highlighted a number of underlying contextual and personal factors that need to be accounted for in developing a more complete understanding of learner motivation. Those sociocultural and psychosocial factors that can motivate individuals toward learning languages are: (1) social and familial expectations, (2) the notion of forging identity, (3) personal development and maturation, and (4) gender roles.

In the light of motivational aspect of heritage language students, Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) findings drawn from a university population with many heritage learners to identify relationships among the combinations of motivational factors are noteworthy. In their investigation of university students of five different foreign languages (Chinese, Filipino, French, Japanese, and Spanish), they found that an orientation towards learning the language of one's own cultural heritage did emerge

as a distinctive component of motivation. Like Kondo-Brown (2001) and Syed (2001), Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) acknowledged that the heritage factor is enormously important in language choice and persistence, but they concluded that “heritage and non-heritage students are not different in either learning strategy use or the kinds of classrooms and class activities they prefer” (p. 349).

Indeed, motivation is a useful tool for connecting individual psychological mechanisms of L2 learning with the sociocultural process of learning; an understanding of learner motivation will give researchers and teachers insights into sociocultural as well as contextual influences on their students' learning processes. Therefore, identifying motivation and integrating the variety of relevant motivation components can be a good starting point for incorporating sociocultural and contextual aspects of L2 learning into language development. We can now proceed to incorporate this view of motivation into the language learning process.

Sociocultural Approaches to Interaction

In understanding of the interface between L2 learning through interaction and the sociocultural contexts of its use, I am following as a theoretical basis a Vygotskian view of learning as an adequate view of linguistic and discursive aspects of classroom language involved in the teaching-learning process. In what follows, adapting two existing notions of his theory, internalization and the zone of proximal development, I look at ways to structure learners’ participation in communicative activities of classroom interaction from a sociocultural perspective which have been investigated in first/second/foreign language classrooms. This might shed light into the creation of effectual learning environments.

Vygotskian Sociocultural Aspects of Language Learning

The sociocultural theory of mind primarily developed by the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky has had a growing and profound impact on SLA theory, for example the studies collected in Lantolf & Appel (1994) and the papers collected and edited by Hall and Verplaetse (2000). His approach to cognition offers fundamentally different approach and has found application in the study of SLA (McCafferty, 1994). According to his sociocultural theory of human mental processing, unlike Piaget's cognitive developmental theory in which Piaget underscored that children develop their cognitive or mental abilities in a predictable set of stages to construct concepts creatively (Oxford & Shearin, 1996), cognitive system in childhood is closely linked to social contexts and is developed through interacting with others (Lantolf & Appel, 1994; McCafferty, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1996). In other words, humans develop their thinking skills only through "socially meaningful activity" (Lantolf & Appel, 1994: 4).

In Vygotskian theory, language is one of the symbolic tools through which humans mediate their interaction with the world of objects (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Appel & Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf, 1994) and "are able to organize and maintain control over the self and its mental, and even physical, activity" (Lantolf, 1994: 418). Symbolically mediated mental functioning is appropriated by children as they learn from society those activities that society has constructed and placed value on primarily through the use of language (Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994).

In the process of the mental growth of the child proceeding from dependency on other people to independence as a result of gaining control over his/her mental and physical behaviors (Appel & Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994), two notions— the zone of proximal development and internalization— are critical to Vygotsky's

theory, and in what follows they will be explained in more detail to better understand what learners do in their efforts to gain control over both themselves and the learning situation.

The Zone of Proximal Development

The socioculturally constructed environment provides the child with a variety of socially and culturally defined tasks such as play, learning, etc.; those tasks are carried out primarily through one of the mediational means, linguistic resources (Hall, 2001; Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994). In the early stages of symbolically, socially, medicated mental processing of the child, the child is completely dependent and carries out a specific task under the guidance of other people (e.g., parents, teacher, older siblings, peers, etc.), "representatives of the culture" (Lantolf & Appel, 1994: 9). As the child is engaged in interactions with the adult, he/she assumes increased responsibility for carrying out the mental activity that at an earlier stage was largely under the control of someone else (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Appel & Lantolf, 1994; Hall, 2001; Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994). These conditions for the child's mental growth led Vygotsky to formulate a distinction between the child's actual developmental level and the level of potential development, which is referred to as the zone of proximal development.

The notion of the zone of proximal development is defined in Vygotsky's words as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978: 86). Crucially, this frame of the zone of proximal development links Vygotsky's theoretical concepts with practical psychological and educational problems (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). The child's actual level of

development is what the individual novice learners can do tasks independently without the help of experts, whereas the child's potential level characterizes what they can perform with the help from, or in collaboration with, experts (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994). In this stance, "dialogue is an essential component of Vygotskyan theory and hence of the notion of the zone of proximal development" (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994: 468). The novice's potential level of development can be discovered through a dialogic activity between more capable and less capable individuals (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). In short, learning process takes place in this site of development, the zone of proximal development (Hall, 2001) and this process, as Aljaafreh and Lantolf argue, "can be accomplished only through the collaborative interaction of the expert and the novice" (p. 468). Employing this notion to L2 classrooms, in particular, Vygotsky recommends group learning in pairs or small groups where learners learn together through social interaction (Oxford & Shearin, 1996). From this perspective, the concept of the zone of proximal development is directly linked to the idea of scaffolding in the L2 learning context. I turn mainly to Donato's (1994) and Hall's (2001) overviews of the concept of scaffolding regarding L2 learning.

It is believed that cognitive development in children occurs through the interaction of a child with more capable members of the same culture—adults or more able peers. These people serve as guides and teachers for the child, providing information and support necessary for the child to grow intellectually. This type of assistance is often referred to as scaffolding, first coined by Wood, Bruner and Ross in 1976 (Donato, 1994; Hall, 2001) in explaining the process of first language development. We can find this same process in L2 classrooms, as van Lier (1988) states that L2 language teaching methodology can benefit from a study of first-

language scaffolding. This concept is based on the idea that "learning is not something an individual does alone, but is a collaborative endeavor necessarily involving other individuals" (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994: 480). Indeed, at the beginning of learning, students need a great deal of support; gradually, this support is taken away to allow students to try their independence. If students are unable to achieve independence, the teacher brings back the support system to help students experience success until they are able to achieve independence.

Employing the concept of scaffolding that attempts to account for the expert-novice relationship within the process of problem solving, we can think of the L2 teacher who always initiates more positively by questioning within the on-going process of classroom interaction. Following Vygotsky's developmental theory, recent research has examined the processes and outcomes of scaffolding in L2 language classrooms (e.g., Donato, 1994; McCormick & Donato, 2000).

In his paper, Donato (1994) explores the process through which adult French language learners mediate each other through collaborative interaction in a classroom learning environment. He found that collective groups are able to construct jointly and mutually the scaffold necessary to complete a learning task. The collaborative work among learners provides the same opportunity for scaffolded help as in expert-novice relationships in the everyday setting. This finding differs from the majority of the study of scaffolding in L2 research, as he states, that "has focuses exclusively on how language teachers provide guided assistance to learners" (Donato, 1994: 42).

The paper by McCormick and Donato (2000) also uses the concept of scaffolding in their examination of teacher questions within an integrated ESL class and provides a way of looking at one of the roles of the teacher within an interaction-based perspective on the ESL classroom, that of questioner. They consider teacher

questioning as a mediation tool. Indeed, teachers can make effective use of particular questions to scaffold students' participation, comprehension, and comprehensibility in their classroom tasks within the IRE pattern.

Internalization

Another important concept relevant to learning in the social context in Vygotskian theory is internalization, which is interchangeably used with the terms "appropriation" (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994: 467) and "self-regulation" (Hall, 2001: 26). As Vygotsky (1978) sustains in his theory, the human being, more specifically the novice, internalizes social and interpersonal interactions and patterns of language through the discourse of others (the experts) that becomes his/her own discourse. In Vygotsky's theory, as Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) claim, "the very goal of interaction in the zone of proximal development is for novices to appropriate the responsibility for their own linguistic performance" (p. 480). As conscious mental activity is distributed and jointly constructed in the dialogic interactions between "individuals of unequal abilities" (Donato, 1994: 37), the child (novice) and the adult (expert), the child's attention is directed and the child's voluntary act starts out through the interactions, and ultimately the child or novice begins to appropriate or internalize for him/herself the patterns of the activity, which are determined by the norms and values of the respective sociocultural contexts that the adult or expert represents (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994).

In addition to research on L1 language development, employing the concept of appropriation or internalization, substantial research on L2 language development in a variety of cultural contexts provides evidence on the Vygotsky's developmental theory and highlights the connection between L2 language development and its sociocultural contexts of use. Donato (1994), for example, examines how social

interaction in the classroom result in the appropriation of linguistic knowledge by the individual adult foreign language learner. In examining computer-mediated communication between post-secondary learners of French and a group of French native-speaking peers, for example, Kinginger (2000) investigated how the learners appropriated the use of 'tu' form for the expression of solidarity with their interlocutors. Along similar lines, Takahashi, Austin, and Morimoto (2000) revealed how the elementary school language learners of Japanese appropriated and made active use of specific strategies that the teacher used to assist learning. Over time, the learners internalized the teacher's use of a particular song as a strategic tool for remembering and gradually the teacher's promotion or assistance was taken away as they achieved independence.

Models of Classroom Interaction

Placing interaction at the heart of learning, L2 researchers have focused on the role of interaction in the classroom events (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). In foreign language classrooms, a basic assumption of discourse analysis from a more traditional psycholinguistic perspective was that discourse is a complex set of linguistic systems which is external to learners (Hall, 2001; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; McLaughlin, 1998). Within this perspective, learning additional languages has been viewed as an individualized internal process of assimilating new target language structures into preexisting mental structures (Hall, 2001; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). This perspective does not explain precisely how students use language-related collaboration. Within this perspective the notion of 'context' does not include the broader 'socio-cultural' context assumed or studied in sociological, linguistic, and educational research of classroom interaction. Within interpretative 'micro'-sociological approaches, however, discourse analysis is the examination of language use that varies across

situations, speakers, and contexts (Hall, 2001), in sociocultural activities by members of a speech community, involving looking at both language form and language function and including the study of both spoken interaction and written texts. It identifies linguistic features that characterize different genres as well as social and cultural factors that aid in our interpretation and understanding of different texts and types of talk. In short, the sociocultural perspective illuminates the role of social interaction in creating an environment to learn language, learn about language, and learn "through" language. This perspective examines interaction within a broad social and cultural context. Thus, discourse analysis takes different theoretical perspectives and analytic approaches: speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis. Although each approach emphasizes different aspects of language use, they all view language as social interaction, highlighting its sociocultural contexts of use (Hall, 2001). Among those approaches, the present study uses the framework of conversation analysis. I first provide an overview of the current understandings of conversation analysis and the general concepts and ideas of sociocultural approach to classroom interaction, which might provide suitable topics for investigation.

Conversation Analysis and Classroom Interaction

According to Mori (2002), the application of conversation analysis to the classroom dates back to the 1970s, and recently studies by researchers such as Mori (2002) and Ohta (2000) have provided a close look at language classroom interaction, applying the conversation analysis techniques. Indeed, sociologists Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974) have inspired a whole field of inquiry now referred to as conversation analysis. Hatch (1978) also emphasized the study of "how" children learn a language through discourse analysis, and in particular, conversational analysis.

According to her, it is essential for the language acquisition researcher to observe and analyze the process in which child language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversation. Later on interest in SLA has been focused on task-based approaches with the notions of 'authenticity' and 'naturalness' (Sullivan, 2000). Mori's (2002) study addresses the issues of authenticity and naturalness through the close examination of the actual talk observed in a classroom activity, which was designed to enhance the 'authenticity' of the language use, applying the methodological framework of conversation analysis to the study of classroom interaction.

Based on theoretical considerations and empirical investigations on the nature of development, findings from research in second and foreign language learning drawn from a sociocultural perspective of language and learning, provide strong evidence of a strong, intrinsic connection between language development and its sociocultural contexts of use (Hall, 2001; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; Johnson, 1995).

Incorporating insights from conversation analysis, several studies have been carried out based on the distribution of conversational features such as interruption and overlap (e.g., West & Zimmerman, 1983; Zimmerman & West, 1975), topic control (e.g., West & Garcia, 1988), a combination of questions, statements, minimum responses and topic initiation (Fishman, 1983), and amount of talk in relation to the number of turns, questions and overlaps (Gass & Varonis, 1986).

With an assumption that the distribution of conversational features might be related to social and contextual factors, a number of studies have investigated the influence of speaker gender on the distribution of conversational features (e.g., Coates, 1993; Fishman, 1983; Gass & Varonis, 1986; West & Garcia, 1988; West & Zimmerman, 1983; Zimmerman & West, 1975). Based on the concept of

communicative competence, Coates (1993) discussed gender differences in conversational interaction. She argued that men and women differ in their sense of what is appropriate for them as speakers, and so they show different conversational styles in certain aspects. In other words, men and women differ in communicative competence. Her gender difference approach in the sense of communicative competence is very meaningful because in most societies, gender related appropriateness appears. In a study of dominance in ESL conversations, Gass and Varonis (1986) examined the distribution of various interactional features such as amount of talk, the number of turns, questions and overlaps, and concluded that the Japanese male speakers dominated their counterpart Japanese female speakers. They also found that the male speakers tended to produce more words than the female speakers, but they did not ask more questions than female speakers. Addressing the problem of validity of quantification of the distribution of interactional features, Itakura (2001) suggested that quantitative data in regard to conversational dominance needs to be interpreted in light of qualitative analysis in her study of Japanese (L1) and English (L2) conversations between male and female speakers of Japanese. She examined conversational dominance as a multidimensional construct with sequential (through initiation and response moves), participatory (through interruption and overlaps) and quantitative aspects (measured by the number of words and average turn length). When clarifying the relationships among the three dimensions of conversational dominance, she concluded that sequential dominance was the most important dimension, because it was closely related to topic control and its contribution to conversational dominance was significant.

As a country that has a long tradition of Confucianism, the Korean social structure is based on vertical hierarchy and Korean conversation is structured

according to social hierarchies (Yoon, 1996); gender is one of the social contexts that govern conversational interactions (Song, 1994, 1996). In Korea, for example, prescriptive notions like 'women should not speak a lot' and 'men should speak loudly' still exist. Intuitively, gender differences in conversational interactions seem to be very apparent in Korean conversation. Given the characteristics of Korean discourse with respect to gender, one question arises: Does the gender of native Korean-speaking conversation partners affect the structure/feature of the conversation with KLLs? This sort of question may contribute to our understanding of the characteristics of discourse between KLLs and native-speaking conversation partners, but to my best knowledge it has never been posited or investigated.

While acknowledging that there are various interactional patterns of language use within the framework of conversation analysis, in the following section I take a detailed look at two interactional patterns of language use that are significant characteristics of the language classroom dealing with problems of language use and that direct the qualitative investigation of the present study, turn-taking and code-switching.

Turn-Taking

The turn-taking system constitutes a domain of human activity and serves as the vehicle through which social action is pursued (Sidnell, 2001). As Schegloff (2000b) puts, a turn-taking organization is one feature that underlies the orderly distribution of opportunities to participate in conversation. More specifically, according to Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) framework, turns consist of initiation and/or response moves.

SLA research has focused on the organization of turn-taking in conversation using the framework of conversation analysis (e.g., McHoul, 1978; Sacks et al., 1974;

Schegloff, 2000b), and more recently, research has broadened its scope of the investigation to the organization of turn-taking that is particular to different languages and cultures to purport to present evidence of the socially, historically and/or culturally particular character of conversational turn-taking in specific communities and societies (e.g., Tanaka, 2000; Sidnell, 2001). For example, in his investigation of conversational turn-taking in Caribbean English Creole, Sidnell (2001) found that turn-taking in Caribbean English Creole was not fundamentally different from that described for American English conversation. One question raised by such arguments could be, "Is the organization of turn-taking for conversation organized in the same way in every human community or conversational interaction?" In a similar vein, noting potential connections between turn-taking and the different syntactic practices between Japanese and English, Tanaka (2000) examined the grammatical features that impact on turn construction and projection in Japanese and found that due to the standard subject-object-verb word order, the predicate-final orientation, and postpositional syntactic structure in Japanese, crucial information concerning the shape of a turn being produced tends to be concentrated toward the end of the turn and it results in a relatively delayed projectability of the emerging turn shape and the possible completion point. Consequently, interlocutors need to listen toward the end of a turn to discover its eventual shape and the social action performed by the turn and to project the point at which a turn may be complete. As Tanaka (2000) suggested, these findings may be widely applicable to Korean, which has grammatical features somewhat convergent with Japanese in an attempt to redress the balance in conversation analytic work, which is currently centered heavily on the study of interactions in English.

Research can be further expanded by looking at other speech communities or conversational interactions involving speakers of different language abilities, motivation, and attitudes to grant insight into such arguments. In this regard, Itakura's (2001) comments would be noteworthy: in her analysis of conversations between Japanese university students in Japanese and English while employing the notion of conversational dominance, Itakura (2001) admitted that in spite of the satisfactory application of the theoretical and analytical framework previously established, it can not be assumed that her model would be equally workable for other languages and other kinds of turn-taking sequences without further study.

Along with other turn-taking phenomena, backchannel feedback/response/cue/token as part of the turn-taking systems that humans create has been of special interest among many researchers (e.g., Heinz, 2003; Ward & Tsukahara, 2000; Wong, 2000c). According to Ward and Tsukahara's (2000) survey of some properties which are common to most backchannel feedback, backchannel feedback consists of both lexical items (*uh huh* and *yeah* in English and 네 'yes' in Korean) and non-lexical vocalizations (laugher, coughs and sniffs). However, considering the various functions of words such as backchannel, turn-opening, filler, and answer uses, it is not always clear-cut to decide whether a specific utterance is backchannel or not. By Ward and Tsukahara's working definition, backchannel does not require acknowledgment by the other, and it is sometimes defined as those utterances which do not take the floor and/or are not full turns (Ward & Tsukahara, 2000). Working with the notions of turn and floor, one participant in the interaction gains control of the conversational floor and occupies primary speakership, whereas another participant in the interaction takes a turn or turns but not the conversational

floor, occupies primary listnership by the production of a backchannel token (Wong, 2000c).

Code-Switching

By definition, code-switching involves at least two languages used in a single communicative episode (Heller, 1988). Code-switching as one of the strategic conversational resources is particularly salient in conversational interactions involving participants of different language abilities and attitudes (Li Wei & Milroy, 1995). In bilingual conversation, from which the present study drew its data, code-switching occurs overwhelmingly, as evidenced in previous research (e.g., Auer, 1995; Burt, 1992; Hinkel, 1996; Li Wei & Milroy, 1995; Yoon, 1996). However, code-switching in conversation between native and non-native speakers has received less attention.

Closely related to the issues of L1 and L2 distribution in a foreign language classroom, research on code-switching that has been carried within the framework of speech accommodation theory first introduced by Giles (1973) and within the Scotton's (1983, 1988) markedness model will be discussed. In addition, in an attempt to identify linguistic items that must be accounted for as part of code-switching utterances, research within a model of the structural constraints on code-switching, so-called the matrix language frame model proposed by Myers-Scotton (1992), will be discussed.

Accommodation theory offers a sound framework for the study of conversational strategies in interpersonal encounters (Heinz, 2003). Empirical research testing aspects of accommodation theory as in Bourhis (1984, 1985), Bourhis, Giles & Lambert (1975), Giles et al. (1987) and Heinz (2003) for the past decades is specifically concerned with the problems of interaction between members of different groups, mostly interethnic settings, who speak two or more languages

(Burt, 1992), which was the main subject of this study. Generally, accommodation refers to the process by which individuals adjust their communication behavior during interaction to enhance communication efficiency, to express solidarity or liking, to maintain positive social identities, or to obtain social approval from the listener (Heinz, 2003). Accommodative behaviors can be more similar (convergent) or less similar (divergent) to that of the conversational partner (Giles et al., 1987), occurring at various communicative and linguistic levels, from vocal rate to language choice (Heinz, 2003).

One of the problems with regard to code-switching that the theory claims is that, in general, speakers from different groups may not necessarily share norms for the interpretation of code choice and code-switching (Burt 1992). Using accommodation theory, Hinkel's (1996) study of native speakers of Chinese, Indonesian, Korean, Japanese and Arabic learning English confirmed Burt's claim that while recognizing correct paragmalinguistic norms and behaviors in accordance with US standards, but still viewing them critically and comparing them to their first language norms, they were not always willing to adopt their second language's paragmalinguistic norms and behaviors themselves. Code-switching, the use of more than one language in the same conversation, indeed occurs in both intra- and inter-group interaction and is influenced by individual characteristics such as age, sex, and status and the communication environment and purpose (Heinz, 2003).

The markedness model represented by Scotton (1983, 1988) describes the markedness of certain code choices for certain situations and configurations of speakers. Contrary to the claim of speech accommodation theory, within this model speakers mutually develop shared norms for the interpretation of their future conversational code choices (Burt 1992). Within Scotton's general framework, Burt

(1992) presented two different patterns of code-switching in the process of developing norms between two speakers with different native languages, using the notions of compliance and convergence, and claimed that in the pattern of compliance the speakers were successful in accommodating and progressing towards development of a dyadic speech norm.

In Scotton's markedness model, each of the different languages used in code-switching is attributed sets of rights and obligations (RO sets) that hold between the speakers (Yoon, 1996). Using the notion of RO sets, Burt (1992) further sheds light on the role of language learner in relation to that of native speaker:

> The role of native speaker entails the right of acting as authority in deciding the right way to speak the chosen language, and the obligation of offering help in the form of instruction to the non-native speaker. The role of non-native speaker entails the right to help, patience, simplified speech or perhaps overt instruction from the native speaker, and the obligation to submit to correction from the native speaker if this is forthcoming. (p. 173)

This view carries a variety of empirical significances for this study, in which the speaker participants were not equally capable of having their conversation in the other's language. The speakers of the dyad may conflict in terms of the RO sets, and the conflict will be reflected in a conflict in code choice.

Myers-Scotton's (1992) matrix language frame model that is on the basis of the argument that code-switching takes place within a frame set by the matrix language (ML) accounts for a pattern of code-switching. The concept of the ML in the model can be explained along the concept of the embedded language (EL): "The ML in any CS (code-switching) utterance is the language of more morphemes in the type

of discourse where the conversation in question occurs"; and the EL "appears in codeswitching discourse in a frame provided by the ML" (Myers-Scotton, 1992:22).

Based on a differential between the ML and the EL, the model identifies three types of code-switching constituents: (1) ML + EL constituents that consist of any number of ML morphemes and generally single lexeme EL forms (e.g., *Potato-가 뭐지?* 'How do you say potato (in Korean)?'); (2) ML islands that consist only of ML morphemes and are well-formed according to the ML grammar (e.g., *진짜 싸대* 'I heard that it's really cheap'); and (3) EL islands that are composed only of EL morphemes (e.g., *young, young girl*).[2]

In her study of naturally-occurring conversations from 40 Kenyan speakers and 129 interviews with native speakers of Shona in Zimbabwe, she differentiated singly-occurring borrowing forms and code-switching forms originating in an EL in the model and argued that borrowing forms have become part of the ML, whereas code-switching forms remain in the ML frame as EL material. By her own definition regarding the distinction between borrowing and code-switching, the major difference between borrowing and code-switching is constituted by 're-occurrence value', or what comes down to frequency. However, it would be more practical to examine the way terms from the EL are used in a text rather than categorize borrowing and code-switching *a priori.*

Native and Non-native Speakers in Language Learning

Thus far, as Mori and Zuengler (2002) point out, prior research on conversation has largely confined its interest to native language speaking discourse (e.g., Schegloff, 2000a, 2000b; Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977; Tanaka, 2000). Recently, however, using the framework of conversation analysis, SLA research that

focuses on social interaction has broadened the scope of investigation to native–nonnative interactions (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Barraja-Rohan, 2003; Cheng & Warren, 1999; Gaskill, 1980; Kinginger, 2000; Mori, 2002, 2003; Ravid et al, 2003; Wiberg, 2003; Wong, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c) as well as nonnative–nonnative interactions (e.g., de Guerrero, 1994; Donato, 1994; Schwartz, 1980) in multilingual/multicultural settings in many different countries (e.g., Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; Johnson, 1995). In particular, there has been interest in interaction and L2 language learning among L2 researchers focusing on the importance of the non-native speaker's role in interaction (Wong, 2000c), or more specifically in the negotiation of meaning (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). In fact, it is widely acknowledged that "the non-native speaker's role in the process of negotiating meaning became crucial to the acquisition process" (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000: 4). However, the importance of novices or non-native speakers is often overlooked in language socialization process (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; He, 2003).

Language socialization refers to the linguistic and interactional processes that mediate novices' (e.g., children, language learners) participation in routine cultural practices and facilitate their developing competence and membership in discourse communities (Duff, 2002; He, 2003). For socialization to take place, the expert (e.g., native speakers, mothers, other caregivers, teachers) and the novice (e.g., children, language learners) need to negotiate their differences through interactional repeated participations, which leads to language learning (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; He, 2003; Sullivan, 2000). Novices vary in their outcomes of language socialization, what and how much they take from socialization activities, depending on their individual goals, orientations, and circumstances (Duff, 2002; He, 2003). In a related direction, native

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[2] Examples here were from the Korean/English code-switching data of this study. In these specific

speakers' modifications of their input, so-called foreigner talk, to convey information when talking with non-native speakers have been the focus of L2 learning research (e.g., Arthur et al, 1980; Ferguson, 1972; Henzl, 1974; Ravid et al, 2003).

Interaction between a native speaker and a non-native speaker is often characterized by asymmetry (Wiberg, 2003). As it is widely agreed, the asymmetry between the native speaker and the non-native speaker depends heavily on the non-native speaker's language level. Due partly to this asymmetry, as Wiberg (2003) reported, dialogues between native speaker and non-native speaker usually contain discourse markers whose functions are to establish cohesion between turns, or to give feedback signals. In her study of dialogues between learners of Italian and one native speaker, Wiberg (2003) found that since long pauses between or within turns sometimes caused communication breakdowns, the native speaker as a proficient interlocutor usually used discourse markers in turns to perform a supportive function and long pauses were overlapped by native speaker's discourse markers (Wiberg, 2003). As also shown by feedback signals, she found that the dialogic development was mostly dominated by the native speaker. Moreover, in her close inspection of repetition both from the point of view of the native speaker and that of the non-native speaker, she suggested that repetitions should be seen as an uptake and a confirmation, especially in asymmetrical situations, rather than a sign of no proficiency.

It is also assumed that the choice of linguistic forms or codes, or the distribution of number of words or turns has to do with the social relationship between interlocutors. For example, while providing a relational framework in her case study of code choices for six first generation Korean-English bilinguals, Yoon (1996) found that when they conversed with each of another four Korean-English bilinguals, the

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examples, Korean was the ML and English was the EL.

more distant the interlocutors were, the more they used Korean language during conversation. Conversely, the closer or more intimate the relationship they had, the more they used English. The results of her study can lead to the hypothesis that relationship between learner (non-native speaker) and conversation partner (native speaker) of the present study might be an indicator of conversational dominance, determining the distribution of number of turns, words, and code-switching.

Speech Patterns of Native and Non-Native Speakers

The approach led by L1 researchers (e.g., Braine, 1963; Brown, 1973; Klima & Bellugi, 1966; Smith, 1973) and summed up as the 'independent grammars assumption': language learners have language systems of their own that are independent of the systems of other speakers (Cook, 1997), can be adopted to and describe L2 learning.

In their comparative study of the self-mediation of L1 and advanced L2 speakers of English given the narrative as well as expository text recall tasks, Appel and Lantolf (1994) propose that any performance differences between native and non-native speakers of a language are not categorical but are very much task dependent. In other words, performance depends crucially on the interaction of individual and task rather than on membership of the individual in some category, such as native and non-native speaker or reader (Appel & Lantolf, 1994: 437).

Previous researchers have introduced the notion of "foreigner talk" associated with the social contexts in which native and nonnative speakers converse (e.g., Arthur et al, 1980; Ferguson, 1972; Henzl, 1974; Ravid et al, 2003). Ferguson (1972) describes that "foreigner talk" is used by native speakers to nonnative speakers to facilitate communication in speech situations where the extent of shared language among participants is very, severely limited. Arthur et al. (1980) detailed the

modifications made in the form and content of the discourse of native-speaking airline ticket agents when conversing over the phone with nonnative callers comparing to those made in the speech with native callers. They found that such modifications made by the ticket agents simplify and facilitate communication when speaking with nonnative callers.

Pedagogical Use of Native Speaker

Interactions between a language learner and his/her native language partner as an extended classroom learning can be considered another important extended dimension of classroom interaction as one of the resources to enhance effectiveness of language learning. The nature of this third dimension of interactions implies that real learning occurs outside classrooms where not considered "power-marked" settings, but participants are not equals in which the power differences between learner and conversation partner can still be identified clearly in how communication is organized (Edwards & Westgate, 1994: Johnson, 1995). Indeed, it is claimed to help achieve excellence of learner's performance in language learning, improve classroom communication, optimize learner attitudes and motivation, raise self-esteem, facilitate personal growth in learners, and even change their attitude to the language and its culture.

Heritage Language and Heritage Learners

The term HL or HL learner is relatively new to language education in the US. It appears, therefore, that the simple task of defining the term is complicated and, to some extent, problematic. The definitions that we apply to HL learners are important, because they help to shape the status of the learners and the languages they are learning. In what follows, I first adopt some definitions of HL and its learners from

the various sources. I then introduce some critical issues in the field of the HL learning and review some previous research dealing with those issues.

Definition of Heritage Language and its Learners

There are some considerations in defining the term such as language proficiency level and ethnicity from a language learner's perspective as well as community needs from a community perspective (Wiley, 2001a). Despite some discrepancies, however, there has been a mutual agreement on the concepts of HL and HL learner among those professionals who have been leading the HL education in the US.

According to Cho (2000), a HL refers to the language associated with one's cultural, ethnic background. Peyton, Ranard & McGinnis (2001:3) defines HLs within the US context as "the non-English languages spoken by newcomers and indigenous people," and Gambhir (2001:208) HL learners as "learners with a home background in the target language" even if they hardly speak the language. In this regard, proficiency in the HL is not a determining factor in defining who HL learners are. In this definition of HL, many HL learners may be "true beginners" who have had little or no prior contact, or no family connections with the target language and culture (Gambhir, 2001: 214).

According to Valdes (2001: 38), however, as currently used in the US, the term HL refers to all non-English languages including those spoken by native-American peoples, and within the FL teaching profession in the United States, the term HL learner refers to a language student who is raised in a home where a language other than English is spoken, who speaks or understands that language, and who is to some degree "bilingual" in English and the home language. Broadly speaking, HL refers to any ancestral language such as indigenous (e.g., native-

American language), colonial (e.g., Dutch), and immigrant languages (e.g., Italian) (Fishman, 2001).

In sum, it is used to refer both to those who have some proficiency in a community or ancestral language and to those who merely desire to learn an additional language, including those who speak only English but who want to learn the language of a parent, grandparent, ancestor, or other members of their community. For example, Korean in the U.S. would be considered a HL for American students of Korean ancestry even if the students were English-speaking monolinguals.

Korean as a Heritage Language in the US

Having determined how Korean fits into the larger picture of FL study in the US, we need to look specifically at the context of the FL education in which Korean language programs operate. According to Welles (2004), in 1998 there were 76 institutions offering Korean language. In 2002, however, this number increased to 91—an increase of approximately 20% (Welles, 2004). While this increase is remarkable, it is still the case that a very small percentage of colleges/universities in the US offered Korean: 91 out of approximately 2,900, or a mere 3%. Moreover, the location of schools at which Korean was offered was limited. According to Welles (2004:8), the study of Asian languages such as Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese, took place primarily on the Pacific Coast. More specifically, about half of the students studying Korean in the US were attending schools on the Pacific Coast; another 23% in the Northeast region of the US; and the remaining students elsewhere in the US.

Although it seems much clearer and simpler to define those learners who learn Korean as their HL in the US context compared to other HLs, especially Indo-European languages such as German, French, and Italian, there remains slight

disagreement on defining Korean HL and non-HL learners. In some studies, for example, only those students with both parents as native Koreans were categorized as HL learners while the Korean-Americans with only one parent as a native Korean and the adopted Koreans were categorized of non-HL learners (e.g., Kim, 2003). In other studies, on the contrary, along with those students with both parents as native Koreans, students who are of mixed parentage (Korean and non-Korean) and adopted students from Korea were categorized as HL learners (e.g., Ryu Yang, 2003). In fact, various factors including language backgrounds and experiences as well as language skills should be taken into consideration in defining HL and no-HL learners of Korean.

Korean Foreign Language Pedagogy

A considerable body of research has been developed in order to advance the effectiveness of instruction in Korean language, as well as to develop a theoretic foundation for Korean language instruction to non-native speakers (e.g., *Korean Language in America* and *the Proceedings of the American Association of Teachers of Korean*). That research of Korean foreign language pedagogy addresses such topics as task-based and content-based instruction, teaching literature and culture, Korean teaching methodologies and strategies, computer-assisted language learning (CALL), Korean language curriculum/program development, textbook development, and issues associated with HL learners (Wang, 2003). As Wang (2003) noted in her review of studies on Korean as a second or foreign language, descriptive analyses of teaching methodologies and strategies have been carried out abundantly, whereas few data-driven empirical studies have been carried out regarding learning outcomes. Notably, an understanding of the differences between HL and non-HL learners in terms of their actual performance is one of the research areas that should be researched more extensively (Wang, 2003).

Motivation in Heritage Language Learning

Although there have been extensive motivation studies in the L2 field, little research has been done on the connection between motivation and HL learning. This lack of interest, however, urges us to pay more attention to motivations of HL learners compared to those of non-HL learners in relation to sociocultural and psychological contexts when we seek to understand why some students easily involve their prior knowledge in their learning and accommodate new information, while others are reluctant to accommodate new ideas or assimilate them into their prior ideas.

Of a few previous studies on HL motivation, Kondo-Brown's (2001) study of bilingual heritage students who studied Japanese in classes of various levels at the University of Hawaii at Manoa is noteworthy. In her investigation of the demographic characteristics of Japanese bilingual heritage students in terms of the extent and frequency of language contacts and use as well as the language learning motivation, Kondo-Brown found that most bilingual heritage students at all levels of Japanese had both instrumental and integrative motives. However, considering the political and historical background of Japanese language education programs in Hawaii where her study was carried out, her findings may or may not explain motivations for other heritage language groups.

In a similar vein but in a smaller scale, Kim (2002) asked thirty-eight HL learners of Korean who were enrolled in four different levels at the University of Hawaii at Manoa about their language backgrounds, self-evaluation of their Korean language skills, motivation for learning Korean and attitudes toward Korean. With respect to motivation, unlike Kondo-Brown's finding, Kim's study reported that the Korean HL learners showed more integrative motivation than instrumental motivation. Both studies, however, did not include non-HL learners to compare the exact nature

of differences in learner motivation between two groups of learners, HL and non-HL learners.

Confirming the results of Kim's (2002) study, Ryu Yang (2003) argued that KLLs' motivational orientations vary depending on personal variables including previous language learning experience and the amount/degree of exposure to the language, and found that Korean heritage was the strongest motivational orientation for HL students, whereas non-HL students learned Korean for various reasons including their interest in Asian culture, friendship, and future career opportunity. Her findings conformed to other studies that non-HL learners had different motivational orientations from those of HL learners.

In contrast to those explicitly defined motivational components that are measured by motivation tests such as the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, motivation can be defined as a qualitative variable. For instance, Syed (2001) addressed HL motivation through a qualitative description of patterns of thinking and belief that shape learner motivation. A number of underlying contextual and personal factors that contribute to a more complete understanding of HL learner motivation were highlighted in her study. Firstly, she found the expectations from family members, friends, and even society that are tied into the need to communicate and connect with family members and friends and the need to fit into their sociocultural communities an important factor in HL motivation. Secondly, forging and negotiating an identity is another contributing factor. Thirdly, moving towards a more independent/adult life-style, HL learners begin to articulate their heritage identity and often result in relearning their heritage language. Lastly, Syed considered gender roles important in the process of the development of HL motivation.

Analysis of Conversations in Heritage Language Learning

Over the past several decades, academic interest in analysis of conversations in second and FL learning has grown among applied linguists and educators with the recognition of its effects on the process of language learning and the importance of the learner's output in interaction, and it has long been a focus of research (Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). Little attention is paid, however, to research on conversations in conjunction with HL learning in both fields of applied linguistics and education and consequently little research has been done on conversations of HLs with several exceptions of body of research (e.g., He, 2003) . Guided by the theoretical model of language socialization, He (2003) reminded in her micro-level analysis of the speech roles of the novices in four Chinese HL classrooms in the US with a focus on the impact of culture on the acquisition of the HL that language socialization is not a unidirectional process.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Research Questions

In light of the review of literature presented in Chapter 2, the following research questions were addressed to examine how student language background and social/ethnic background is associated with their motivation to learn a second language and with interactions with a native-speaking Korean language CPs.

1. How do general learner demographic background variables—especially heritage language learner status—affect learner motivation and affect variables?

    A. Is HL status related to (i) value, (ii) heritage orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, and (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity?

    B. Are (a) age, (b) gender, (c) level of study, (d) birthplace, (e) first language, (f) parent birthplace, (g) parent first language, (h) self-assessed proficiency of Korean, and (i) amount of exposure to Korean in youth related to (i) value, (ii) heritage orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, and (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity?

2. Are conversation analysis variables such as (a) number of words, (b) number of words in Korean, (c) frequency of turns, (d) Korean code-switching initiative, and (e) English code-switching initiatives related to participant variables such as (1) heritage status of learner, (2) scope of relationship between partners (acquaintanceship precedes and extends beyond conversation partner meetings or initiated with and limited to conversation partner meetings), and (3) gender of partner (male- or female-partner)?

3. Are conversation analysis variables such as (a) number of words, (b) number of words in Korean, (c) frequency of turns, (d) Korean code-switching initiative, and (e) English code-switching initiatives related to meeting variables such as (1) segment of meeting (beginning, middle, or end) and (2) sequence of the meeting during the term (first, second, third, or fourth)?

4. In the context of Korean language CP interactions, how do learner motivation and affect variables including (i) value, (ii) heritage language orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity affect conversation analysis variables including (a) amount of words, (b) amount of words in Korean, (c) frequency of turns, (d) Korean code-switching initiative, and (e) English code-switching initiative?

To investigate these research questions, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. First, information about the research site will be provided. Then,

selection of participants, development of the survey instrument, procedures of data collection, and the methods of data analysis will all be discussed in more detail.

Research Sites

Data were collected during fall semester of 2004 in Korean language programs conducted at both the University of Georgia (hereafter UGA) located in Athens, Georgia and at the Georgia Institute of Technology (hereafter Tech) located in Atlanta, Georgia. Both institutions are Carnegie Research I universities located in the Southeastern U.S. UGA required undergraduate students to enroll in some FL study. Korean in particular was one of the non-Indo European languages need to fulfill requirement in such majors in international business and linguistics. Those students minoring in Korean had to take East Asian literature or business Korean. On the other hand, Tech did not require FL study at the time of survey, although joint bachelor's degrees in International Affairs and Modern Languages and Global Economics and Modern Languages were offered with an emphasis on Spanish, French, German, Japanese, and Chinese, and Korean classes were electives counting toward humanities credits.

The Korean program at UGA developed within the Department of Comparative Literature a series of textbooks in 1992 for elementary and intermediate Korean courses: *First Step in Korean* and *Second Step in Korean.* Each book has 30 chapters. Since UGA program began, the student body has increased, and as a result, the number of courses offered has also increased from 1 course to 4 courses. Two sections of levels 1 and 2 and one section of levels 3 and 4 were being offered at the time of the present research. The number of teachers at the time of the research was four, including one tenured faculty member and three graduate teaching assistants. All teachers were native speakers of Korean.

Tech's School of Modern Languages started its Korean program with a single level 1 Korean course in the fall semester of 2002. Since then, the program has been expanded in terms of the number of students enrolled as well as courses offered. At the time of the research, one section ach of four sequential Korean courses were offered. Two of the courses were designated elementary, with one intended for students with zero knowledge of Korean, and the other for students with some rudimentary knowledge (usually HL Korean-Americans). The textbook used for the two elementary-level courses was *Korean 1* published by Language Research Institute of Seoul National University. Intermediate and Advanced Korean classes were also taught. A total of two part-time instructors, both native speakers of Korean, had been recruited to teach these classes.

For the Korean programs at both UGA and Tech, the student body was a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural group that embraced both HL and non-HL classifications, various majors, and students with wide range of proficiency in Korean.

Conversation Partner Activity

Korean language programs at both UGA and Tech provided opportunities for students to practice informal oral Korean outside of class with native Korean-speaking language partners. The CP activity was expected to enhance the Korean language proficiency of KLLs, especially enrolled in elementary level classes. Their conversation meetings were one of the sources for this study's data. Those courses offered at UGA on the elementary level (KREN 1001) required the students to have one 1-hour or two 30-minute weekly CP meeting(s) and the students were encouraged to take advantage of the activity by taking 5 percent of the final grades. Similarly, for Tech students, the weekly one-hour CP activity was mandatory for students enrolled in the Korean classes on elementary level (ML 1804 and ML 1814). Ten percent of

the final grades was assigned to the conversation activity. For the other courses offered at UGA and Tech, the CP activity was not a requirement.

For both programs, typically, CPs did not go through a formal training process. The programs gave students a detailed description about a qualified CP (a Korea-born native speaker who has lived in the US no more than 6 years and/or who graduated from a high school in Korea) for screening purposes, and they also helped students find their partner by recruiting native speakers of Korean and assigning them to students. The Korean program at Tech especially took advantage of the Language Partner Program of the Language Institute of Tech (ESL program) to find native Korean-speaking CPs. No monetary compensation for the participation was provided for the CPs. Instead, they had the opportunity to share their knowledge of Korean and its culture with KLLs as well as to learn English language and culture from them.

For UGA KLLs enrolled in KREN 1001, the instructor assigned topics that focused on oral practices using the vocabulary and grammar of each lesson by providing them with instructional guidelines that detailed what the CP had to do with his/her student. For Tech KLLs in ML 1804 and ML 1814, on the other hand, the instructor did not give any specific guidelines, but she gave them additional assignments that learners can work on with their native-speaking CP. Therefore, those learners who were able to do those assignments on their own selected their own topics. For both Korean language programs at UGA and Tech, the instructors provided students with a conversation activity report form before each meeting for CP to sign and put some comments on which topics were covered and/or their suggestions. Based on the CP's comments documented on the report, the instructors monitored the conversation meetings.

Participants

Two different sets of data were collected for this study. The first data set was derived from a paper-and-pencil survey involving a total of 141 KLLs. The second data set was derived from a total of 64 audio-taped CP interactions involving a total of 16 Korean language learners from the larger sample. (Because two learners shared the same native Korean CP, only 15 different Korean CPs contributed to the data.)

Participants in the Motivation Survey

All students enrolled in the six sections of Korean at UGA and the four sections of Korean at Tech were solicited during class time. A total of 141 agreed to provide informed consent to participate. The following sections discuss the distributions of participants by class level, age, class year, gender, major, GPA, grade expected, nationality, birthplace, first language, parental birthplace and first language, Korean proficiency, previous exposure to Korean, and heritage status across institutions.

Class Level

Table 1
Distribution of Participants across Institutions and Class Levels

Institution	Class	Contact hours per week	No of participants	%	Conversation participants
UGA	1001 (sections 1 & 2)	4	28	19.9	6
	2001-level a	3	9	6.4	
	2001-level b	3	21	14.9	
	3001	3	15	10.6	
	4001	3	17	12.1	
Subtotal			90	63.9	6
Tech	1804	4	16	11.3	4
	1814	4	12	8.5	4
	1813	3	10	7.1	2
	1833	3	13	9.2	
Subtotal			51	36.1	10
UGA & Tech	Total		141	100	16

As shown in table 1, the number of participants enrolled in each section ranged from 9 (level a of 2001)-28 (1001 that comprised two sections).

For purposes of data analysis, it was desirable to establish a single index of class level across the two institutions. By closely examining the syllabi and the textbooks of all the courses, participants were systematically reclassified into the following four groups of class level by the course that they were taking at the time of the survey:

Level I: Those students taking KREN 1001 (sections 1 and 2) and ML 1804

Level II: Those students taking KREN 2001 (level a) and ML 1814

Level III: Those students taking KREN 2001 (level b), KREN 3001 and ML 1813

Level IV: Those students taking KREN 4001 and ML 1833

Table 2
Distribution of Participants by 4 Class Levels

Class	No	% of students	Conversation Participants
Class I	44	31.2	10
Class II	21	14.9	4
Class III	46	32.6	2
Class IV	30	21.3	
Total	141	100	16

Age, Class Year, and Gender

The 141 participants in this study ranged in age from 18 to 30 and the mean age was 20.42 and the standard deviation was 2.05. The median age was 22 and the mode was 19. Students were asked to self-report their year in school. There were 22 first year students, 53 second year students, 34 third year students, and 32 fourth year students. The distribution of self-reported gender was 52.5% (n = 74) males and 47.5 (n = 67) females.

Male participants were fairly evenly distributed across the two institutes (39 from UGA and 35 from Tech), but only 16 females enrolled at Tech participated in the survey, whereas 51 females at UGA participated. It was not surprising that only 11% of the total sample from Tech was female since Tech is a predominantly male institution (approximately 73% at the time of the data collection).

Major

Table 3
Distribution of Participants by Major

Majors	No	Majors	No
Double majors	7	chemistry	1
pre-pharmacy & international affairs	1	architecture	1
German & journalism	1	pre-med/pre-dentistry	2
Business & Japanese	1	early childhood education	2
pre-med & business	1	history	2
Spanish & linguistics	1	linguistics	2
international affairs & modern languages	2	physics	2
nutrition science	1	criminal justice	2
Art	1	international affairs	3
music composition	1	Japanese	3
pre-vet	1	biochemistry	3
pre-pharmacy	1	English	3
film studies	1	psychology/biopsychology	4
pre-nursing	1	political science	4
recreation & leisure studies	1	computer science	6
Geography	1	undecided	7
comparative literature	1	journalism	9
Microbiology	1	biology	14
animal health	1	business	18
Genetics	1	engineering	32
Economics	1	**Total**	**141**

As presented in Table 3, a wide range of majors was represented. Students self-reported 38 different major categories including “undecided.” The single largest major category was “engineering” major (22%). This was fairly affected by the fact that more than 60% of the Tech participants were engineering majors and another

20% of the Tech participants were science majors. The second most popular major was business (13%) (including finance, management, accounting, international business).

GPA and Grade Expected

Tables 4 and 5 present the information about the participants' self-reported GPA and the grade they expected to receive from the Korean class they were taking. 91 participants (64.5%) reported that their GPA was 3.0 or above. Almost all (98.6%) expected B or higher grade from the Korean class they were taking.

Table 4
Distribution of Self-Reported GPA

	Frequency	Percent
2.0 or below	3	2.1
2.0-2.5	11	7.8
2.5-3.0	36	25.5
3.0-3.5	58	41.1
3.5-4.0	33	23.4
Total	141	100.0

Table 5
Distribution of Grade Expected in Korean Class

Grade	Frequency	Percent
A	127	90.1
B	12	8.5
C	1	0.7
D	1	0.7
F	0	0
Total	141	100.0

Nationality, Birthplace, and Length of Stay and Age of Arrival in the US

One hundred ten (78%) of the participants were US citizens and another 21 (14.9%) were permanent residents. Only 10 participants were holding a foreign student visa, so-called F-1, and all of them were Korean citizens. Eighty-six

participants (61%) were born in the US and 50 (35.5%) in Korea. The 5 (3.5%) participants who were born outside other than Korea and the US were from Japan (2), China (1), England (1), and Argentina (1). Note that those five participants were excluded for further considerations.

Of the 50 participants who were born in Korea, the average length of stay in the U.S. was 11.3 years (*SD* = 5.40). The range was 2-20 years, while the median was 11.5 years and the mode 13 years. Of those 86 participants who were born in the US, 2 participants went back to Korea right after they were born and came back to the US at ages 3 and 4, respectively. It turned out, therefore, that only 84 participants (53.8%) marked that they have been living in the US since they were born. One participant who was born in Korea reported that she arrived the US at her age of 2, went back to Korea, and returned to the US at age of 16. Of the remaining 55 participants, the average age of arrival in the U.S. was 9.1 (*SD* = 6.26). The modal age was 7, the median 8, and the range 0.2-26.

First Language

To the question about participant's first language, 63 participants (44.7%) responded that their first language was Korean, whereas 71 (50.4%) participants said that their first language was English. The remaining seven (5%) participants reported a variety of language as their first language. Those miscellaneous first languages were: Chinese (4), Vietnamese (1), Thai (1), and Spanish & Kiswahili (1). Among those participants who answered that their native language was Korean, two also marked Chinese as a first language and one claimed Spanish as a first language as well as Korean. These 7 cases had been excluded from the data set for the further statistical data analyses.

Parental Birthplace

Parental birthplaces are shown in Table 6. Ninety-three participants (66%) had two Korean-born parents and 24 participants (17%) had both parents born in the U.S. 3 participants had an American mother and a non-American father (Israeli, Japanese, Korean), whereas 13 participants had an American father and a non-American mother (Chinese, Greek, English, and 10 Koreans). One participant had a Korean mother and an English father. The other 7 participants had parents whose birthplace was neither Korea nor the US. Among these, the parents' ethnic background varied: Jamaica, Panama, Pakistan, Burma, Malaysia, Vietnam, Taiwan, China, and Thailand.

Table 6
Parental Birthplaces

Father	**Mother**	No
Jamaica	Panama	1 (0.7%)
Pakistan	Burma	1 (0.7%)
Malaysia	Taiwan	1 (0.7%)
Vietnam	Vietnam	1 (0.7%)
Taiwan	Taiwan	1 (0.7%)
China	China	1 (0.7%)
Thailand	Thailand	1 (0.7%)
Israel	US	1 (0.7%)
Japan	US	1 (0.7%)
US	US	24 (17.0%)
US	China	1 (0.7%)
US	Greece	1 (0.7%)
US	England	1 (0.7%)
Korea	US	1 (0.7%)
US	Korea	10 (7.1)
England	Korea	1 (0.7%)
Korea	Korea	93 (66.0%)

Table 7
Cross-Tabulation of Maternal and Paternal Birthplaces Classified as Korea or not Korea

		Mother's Birthplace		Total
		Not Korea	Korea	
Father's Birthplace	Not Korea	36 (25.5%)	11 (7.8%)	47 (33.3%)
	Korea	1 (0.7%)	93 (66.0%)	94 (66.7%)
Total		37 (26.2%)	104 (73.8%)	141 (100%)

Parental First Language

The Korean first language background of participants' parents is shown in Table 9. Thirty-seven participants (26.2%) had both non-L1 Korean-speaking father and non-L1 Korean-speaking mother: among these, a Spanish father and a Spanish/Kiswahili mother (1); Arabic father and English mother (1); English father and Greek mother (1); Chinese father and mother (4); English father and Chinese mother (1); Thai father and mother (1); Urdu father and mother (1); Vietnamese father and mother (1); and both English father and mother (26). The participant whose father was born in Japan and whose mother was born in the US reported that English was the first language of both parents. Eleven participants (7.8%) had a-L1English-speaking father and a-L1 Korean-speaking mother; and one participant (0.7%) had a native English-speaking father and a native Korean-speaking mother. Of the total of 141 participants, 92 (65.2%) participants had two native Korean-speaking parents. There was one participant whose father and mother were both born in Korea, but their first language was Chinese.

Table 8
Cross-Tabulation of Maternal and Paternal L1, Classified as Korean or not Korean

		Mother's L1		Total
		Not Korean	Korean	
Father's L1	Not Korean	37 (26.2%)	11 (7.8%)	48 (34.0%)
	Korean	1 (0.7%)	92 (65.2%)	93 (66.0%)
Total		38 (27.0%)	103 (73.0%)	141 (100%)

Self-Assessed Korean Proficiency

The participants' self-assessed proficiency in Korean is summarized in Table 9. Over half (53.2%) of the participants said they understood Korean "well" or "very well", whereas nearly a third (32.8%) reported that they understood Korean "a little" or "not at all." In contrast, only about one-quarter (23.4%) of the participants said that they wrote Korean "well" or "very well", whereas 46.1% of the participants said that they write Korean "not at all" or just "a little." Thirty-nine percent of the participants said that they spoke or read Korean "little: or "not at all." Similarly, just over one-third of the participants reported that they spoke and read Korean "well" or "very well", respectively.

Table 9
Distribution of KLL Participants by Korean Proficiency

	Understanding		Speaking		Reading		Writing	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
not at all	8	5.7	8	5.7	7	5.0	11	7.8
a little	34	24.1	47	33.3	48	34.0	54	38.3
fairly	24	17.0	32	22.7	38	27.0	43	30.5
well	40	28.4	26	18.4	19	13.5	15	10.6
very well	35	24.8	28	19.9	29	20.6	18	12.8
Mean	3.43		3.13		3.11		2.82	
Total	141	100	141	100	141	100	141	100

In self-assessing their proficiency in Korean, participants rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Not at all" to "Very well" in terms of comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing skills. The average Korean proficiency across the four skills was 3.12 (*SD* = 1.12). The mode was 3, the median 3, and the range 1-5. Since participants' ratings varied, widely ranging from 1 to 5 and falling into 17 mean scores subsets, a reclassification of the variable into a fewer groups was needed to reduce the data so that every participant could be given a single self-assessed proficiency score; thus the 17 subsets were regrouped into a combination of similar mean ratings from the lower to higher. The new three Korean proficiency criteria were listed in Table 10 below:

Table 10
Distribution of KLL Participants by Three Korean Proficiency Criteria

	No	Percent
Low (1-2.25)	46	32.6
Mid (2.5-3.5)	51	36.2
High (3.75-5)	44	31.2
Total	141	100

Previous Exposure to Korean

The information concerning the participants' exposure to Korean language in the past was elicited and presented in Tables 11-14. Notable patterns among those participants who "usually" used Korean for communication were observed. Within the family, these well exposed youths used Korean predominantly in communicating with parents/grandparents, whereas they used Korean less prevalently with their siblings. Those exposed to Korean in their youth tended to use Korean in communicating with their mothers more so than with their fathers; and their overall

use of Korean seemed to decline as they grew older. In contrast, of those participants who “sometimes” used Korean in communicating, there was a trend toward increased reliance on Korean as they entered their adolescence. Especially, within social contexts, the occasional users of Korean with neighbors, teachers, classmates, and friends dramatically increased. On the other hand, those participants who never used Korean in childhood rarely changed from that pattern.

Table 11
Distribution of the Receptive Use of Korean in Childhood

Mean:3.4495 SD:1.92551	When you were a child (under the age of 12), did you hear around you speaking in Korean?							
	Father	Mother	Siblings	Grandparents	Neighbor	Teacher	Classmates	Friend
Usually	79(56.0)	90(63.8)	29(20.6)	80(56.7)	32(22.7)	26(18.4)	26(18.4)	31(22.0)
Sometimes	16(11.3)	11(7.8)	34(24.1)	6(4.3)	11(7.8)	3(2.1)	10(7.1)	30(21.3)
Never, although both of us understood Korean	2(1.4)	1(0 .7)	19(13.5)		1(0.7)	1(0.7)	2(1.4)	9(6.4)
Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	3(2.1)		5(3.5)	3(2.1)	41(29.1)	52(36.9)	49(34.8)	23(16.3)
Never, because I didn't understand Korean	2(1.4)	3(2.1)		2(1.4)	2(1.4)		2(1.4)	3(2.1)
Never, because neither did understand Korean	26(18.4)	24(17.0)	30(21.3)	26(18.4)	31(22.0)	34(24.1)	32(22.7)	29(20.6)
Not applicable	13(9.2)	12(8.5)	24(17.0)	24(17.0)	23(16.3)	25(17.7)	20(14.2)	16(11.3)
Mean	4.26	4.46	3.30	3.89	2.90	2.59	2.82	3.38

Table 12
Distribution of the Receptive use of Korean in Adolescence

Mean: 3.3848 SD: 1.68237	When you were adolescence (12 or older), did you hear around you speaking in Korean?							
	Father	Mother	Siblings	Grandparents	Neighbor	Teacher	Classmates	Friend
Usually	75(53.2)	88(62.4)	18(12.8)	73(51.8)	15(10.6)	12(8.5)	14(9.9)	18(12.8)
Sometimes	18(12.8)	11(7.8)	40(28.4)	4(2.8)	12(8.5)	8(5.7)	31(22.0)	62(44.0)
Never, although both of us understood Korean	1(0.7)	2(1.4)	22(15.6)		2(1.4)	2(1.4)	4(2.8)	9(6.4)
Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	3(2.1)	2(1.4)	8(5.7)	6(4.3)	55(39.0)	61(43.3)	48(34.0)	20(14.2)
Never, because I didn't understand Korean	3(2.1)	4(2.8)		2(1.4)			3(2.1)	4(2.8)
Never, because neither did understand Korean	26(18.4)	22(15.6)	29(20.6)	24(17.0)	31(22.0)	30(21.3)	21(14.9)	18(12.8)
Not applicable	15(10.6)	12(8.5)	24(17.0)	32(22.7)	26(18.4)	28(19.9)	20(14.2)	10(7.1)
Mean	4.15	4.45	3.18	3.57	2.51	2.36	3.02	3.83

Table 13
Distribution of the Productive Use of Korean in Childhood

Mean: 3.3856 SD: 1.96274	When you were a child (under the age of 12), did you speak Korean to your _____ ?							
	Father	Mother	Siblings	Grandparents	Neighbor	Teacher	Classmates	Friend
Usually	64(45.4)	71(50.4)	28(19.9)	75(53.2)	30(21.3)	30(21.3)	28(19.9)	32(22.7)
Sometimes	28(19.9)	25(17.7)	32(22.7)	10(7.1)	5(3.5)	2(1.4)	10(7.1)	25(17.7)
Never, although both of us understood Korean	3(2.1)	1(0.7)	24(17.0)	1(0.7)	4(2.8)	3(2.1)	4(2.8)	11(7.8)
Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	1(0.7)		1(0.7)	2(1.4)	45(31.9)	49(34.8)	44(31.2)	21(14.9)
Never, because I didn't understand Korean	5(3.5)	7(5.0)	3(2.1)	4(2.8)	4(2.8)	3(2.1)	4(2.8)	5(3.5)
Never, because neither did understand Korean	26(18.4)	24(17.0)	28(19.9)	26(18.4)	29(20.6)	31(22.0)	30(21.3)	29(20.6)
Not applicable	14(9.9)	13(9.2)	25(17.7)	23(16.3)	24(17.0)	23(16.3)	21(14.9)	18(12.8)
Mean	4.08	4.21	3.27	3.86	2.79	2.74	2.87	3.28

Table 14
Distribution of the Productive Use of Korean in Adolescence

Mean: 3.2199 SD: 1.74072	When you were adolescence (12 or older), did you speak Korean to your _____ ?							
	Father	Mother	Siblings	Grandparents	Neighbor	Teacher	Classmates	Friend
Usually	59(41.8)	65(46.1)	18(12.8)	64(45.4)	12(8.5)	12(8.5)	9(6.4)	16(11.3)
Sometimes	25(17.7)	25(17.7)	35(24.8)	11(7.8)	10(7.1)	11(7.8)	21(14.9)	48(34.0)
Never, although both of us understood Korean	7(5.0)	6(4.3)	27(19.1)	1(0.7)	4(2.8)	3(2.1)	6(4.3)	12(8.5)
Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	4(2.8)	2(1.4)	8(5.7)	6(4.3)	59(41.8)	58(41.1)	51(36.2)	22(15.6)
Never, because I didn't understand Korean	4(2.8)	7(5.0)	3(2.1)	4(2.8)	3(2.1)	3(2.1)	6(4.3)	7(5.0)
Never, because neither did understand Korean	26(18.4)	23(16.3)	26(18.40	24(17.0)	28(19.9)	28(19.9)	26(18.4)	23(16.3)
Not applicable	16(11.3)	13(9.2)	24(17.0)	31(22.0)	25(17.7)	26(18.4)	22(15.6)	13(9.2)
Mean	3.92	4.13	3.17	3.50	2.48	2.46	2.65	3.45

For further inferential statistics, it was desirable to reduce the fine-grained information about exposure to Korean to a single summative variable. Before recoding, the scale "Not applicable" was excluded in order to assess learners' actual use of Korean in the past. As a result of the examination of the original rating scales, the scores of the participants' receptive/productive use of Korean in the past was recoded into three ratings by assigning: 2 to "usually" or "sometimes"; 1 to "Never, although both of us understood Korean", "Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean", or "Never, because I didn't understand Korean"; 0 to "Never, because neither did understand Korean." The recoded three ratings were summed up and mean scores were calculated.

Considering the distribution of the recoded rating mean scores of the receptive/productive use of Korean in the past (childhood and adolescence) across the participants, participants can be divided into two distinctive groups in terms of their language use history: active and passive. Those whose mean scores of the receptive/productive use of Korean in the past ranged from 0.00 to 1.04 (below mean) were categorized as passive language user in their youths and those whose mean scores were 1.11-2 (above mean) as active language user in their youths. The newly organized language use groups are described in Table 15:

Table 15
Distribution of Two Language Use Groups

Language Use	Frequency	Percent
Passive	52	36.9
Active	89	63.1
Total	141	100.0

Language Heritage Status

An attempt was made to determine learner language heritage status in a multivariate and nuanced manner. Three personal information items from the survey questionnaire were selected and compiled on the assumption that they collectively reflected learner's heritage. The items were (1) first language backgrounds of the parents, (2) parental birthplace, and (3) patterns of Korean language use in childhood and adolescence.

Tripartite divisions of parental first language data and birthplace data (recoded as 0 (neither parent), 1 (either parent), or 2 (both parents)) was collated with prior exposure to Korean language (recoded as 0 (passive) and 1 (active)) based on the mean scores that were distributed in a bimodal fashion. Table 16 displays the distribution of students into the 18 possible combinations of these three indices.

Table 16
Distribution of KLL Participants' Tripartite Indices

Category	Parents' L1	Parents' birthplace	Language use	No of learners
1	0	0	0	36
2	0	0	1	0
3	0	1	0	0
4	0	1	1	0
5	0	2	0	1
6	0	2	1	0
7	1	0	0	0
8	1	0	1	0
9	1	1	0	6
10	1	1	1	6
11	1	2	0	0
12	1	2	1	0
13	2	0	0	0
14	2	0	1	0
15	2	1	0	0
16	2	1	1	0
17	2	2	0	9
18	2	2	1	83

In terms of relative positioning along a non-heritage/heritage continuum, the six categories would be arranged in Figure 1, as follows:

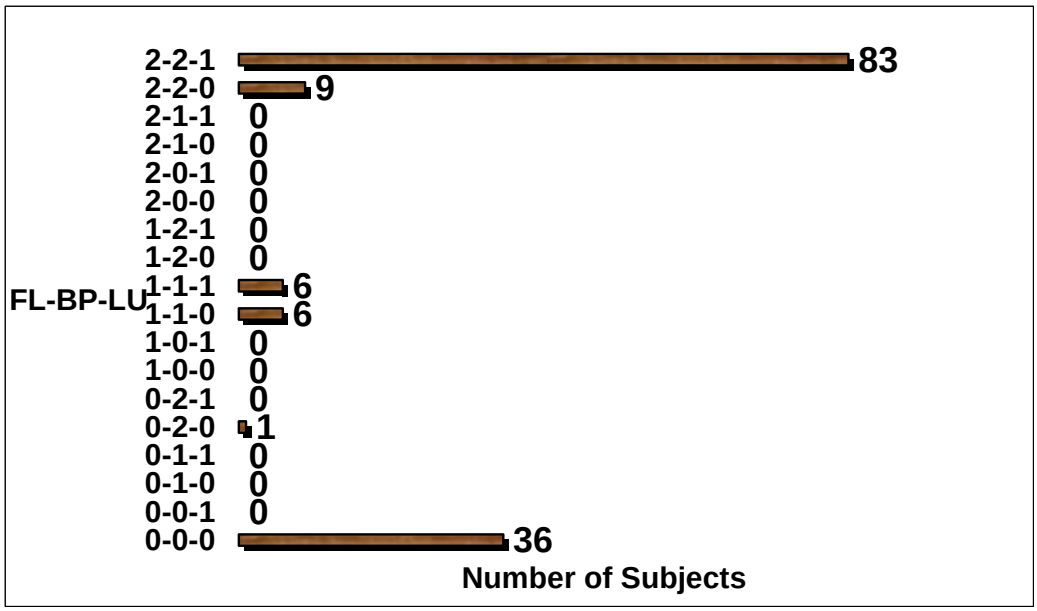

Figure 1.
Continuum of Heritage and Non-Heritage of KLLs

Each participant fell into one of the three heritage groups: none, moderate, and high-HL. The none-HL group was comprised of 37 learners (26.2%) of the total sample who had a passive Korean language use in their youths and their parents were not native speakers of Korean were born outside Korea. Also, it includes one learner of a passive Korean language use whose parents were born in Korea, but with no proficiency in Korean. The moderate-HL group was comprised of 21 (14.9%) learners who had one parent born in Korea as a native speaker of Korean. Six of them had active Korean language use history and the other six had passive language use history. Nine of these learners had both parents born in Korea as native speakers of Korean but reported that they had been passive Korean language users in childhood and

adolescence. The third heritage status group is the largest, high-HL, comprised of 83 learners (58.9%) with both parents born in Korea as native speakers of Korean and with active Korean language use histories.

Participants in the CP Discourse

In addition to the surveys, data in this study were transcripts of conversations recorded from sixteen KLLs (i.e., eight none-HL learners, two moderate-HL learners and six high-HL learners) as they conversed in pairs with their native Korean-speaking CPs. All 141 class members who had provided informed consent were solicited to participate in the tape-recorded CP sessions. Although all elementary students in the Korean language classes at Tech were required to have CPs, they of course could not be required to provide data for this study. To participate, however, both the student and his or her respective CP needed to consent, as per Institutional Review Board requirements.[3] It was anticipated that at least 16 pairs would volunteer and last throughout four CP sessions. More than 16 pairs were selected at the start of the project, to allow for attrition. The actual procedures of participants selection are discussed in the following sections in more detail.

Of the 141 KLL participants, 24 agreed to participate in audio-taping their weekly conversation meetings with a native-speaking CP. As Table 17 shows, however, 4 of them dropped out over the period for several reasons[4], and 20 KLL participants successfully completed the four recordings each. However, of those 20 KLL participants who completed the four recordings, four were excluded from this

[3] The consent forms required and approved by Institutional Review Board can be seen in Appendix A and Appendix B.

[4] Of those 4, one withdrew from the course after having two meetings recorded; one did not want to have the conversation meetings after two meetings, since it was not required for the course; and two from Georgia Tech where the conversation task itself was one of the course requirements did not want to volunteer to participate in audio recording after having one and two recordings, respectively, because they felt burdened. All of those who did not complete the agreed four recordings were also paid for each of the recordings they made accordingly, as stated in the consent.

study, because the quality of their recordings was not good enough to analyze. Table 17 illustrates the distribution of the 16 KLL participants by personal variables (ID, age, gender, major, class level, and heritage status).

Instruments

In addition to audio recordings of conversations, two different background survey questionnaires (one for KLLs and the other for native Korean-speaking CPs) were administered in the beginning of the data collection and served to provide information on KLLs' motivation as well as their background information.

Learner Questionnaire

A learner questionnaire used in this study consisted of three: (A) personal background; (B) experiences with the target language, and (C) motivations for learning. See Appendix C for a questionnaire sample.

Table 17
Characteristics of KLLs Participating in CP Data Collection

ID	Age	sex	Major	Class	Heritage status [a]
Al	19	F	Spanish & linguistics	I	None-heritage
Bri	19	F	English	I	None-heritage
Ste	18	M	Broadcast news	I	None-heritage
Mike	19	M	Finance	I	None-heritage
Mel	22	F	Polymer engineering	I	None-heritage
Hyo	19	M	Biomedical engineering	II	None-heritage
Mat	21	M	Chemical engineering	II	None-heritage
Tim	21	M	Computer science	III	None-heritage
Clay	20	M	Political science	I	Moderate-heritage
Yu	19	F	International Affairs	I	High-heritage
Na	19	M	Computer engineering	I	High-heritage
Ha	20	M	Aerospace engineering	I	High-heritage
Dan	21	M	Computer engineering	I	Moderate-heritage
Seo	20	M	Aerospace engineering	II	High-heritage
Doo	21	F	Mechanical engineering	II	High-heritage
Hyung	20	M	Computer engineering	III	High-heritage

[a] The heritage status here follows the three criteria, No-, Moderate-, and High-heritage.

Part A. Biographical Data

In Part A, questions about KLLs' background adapted from previous instruments (Kopp, 1999; Matthews, 2001) queried about name (some participants declined to give their names), age, gender, class year, major, birth place, nationality, first language, age of arrival in the US, length of residence in the US, parental birthplace and first language, self-assessed proficiency of Korean, overall GPA, and estimated grade in the Korean class.

Table 18
The 16 KLL-CP Pairs

ID	Gender of partner	Prior acquaintanceship status	Heritage status of learner
Al-Ji	Female	Unacquainted	None-heritage
Bri-Myung	Female	Unacquainted	None-heritage
Ste-Jae	Male	Unacquainted	None-heritage
Mike-Sun	Male	Unacquainted	None-heritage
Mel-Hyun	Female	Unacquainted	None-heritage
Hyo-Jay	Male	Unacquainted	None-heritage
Mat-Ana	Female	Acquainted	None-heritage
Tim-Bum	Male	Unacquainted	None-heritage
Clay-Soo	Female	Unacquainted	Moderate-heritage
Yu-Byul	Male	Unacquainted	High-heritage
Na-Ki	Male	Acquainted	High-heritage
Ha-Ki	Male	Acquainted	High-heritage
Dan-Bo	Female	Unacquainted	Moderate-heritage
Seo-Kun	Male	Acquainted	High-heritage
Doo-Nam	Male	Unacquainted	High-heritage
Hyung-Yoo	Female	Acquainted	High-heritage

For the measure self-assessing one's proficiency in Korean in Part A, participants were asked to rate on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Not at all" to "Very well" in terms of comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

Figure 2.

One KLL-CP Pair

Part B. Previous Experience with Korean Language

A series of 24 items inquired about frequency of receptive use of Korean in communicating with father, mother, siblings, grandparents, neighbor, teacher, classmates, and friends in childhood, adolescence, and present time. A parallel series of 24 items inquired about productive use of Korean in communicating with the same persons in childhood, adolescence, and present time. The socio-ethnographic questionnaire used in the study of the Pennsylvanian Germans by Kopp (1999) was the basis for this part of the questionnaire. On a 7-point Likert scale offered the following frequency and reason options:

Usually

Sometimes

Never, although both of us understood Korean

Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean

Never, because I didn't understand Korean

Never, because neither did understand Korean

Not applicable

Part C. Motivation for Korean Learning

Part C included 59 items that tapped different motivational constructs. Participants indicated their level of agreement or disagreement with various statements on a 6-interval rating scale ranging from "Strongly agree" to "Strongly disagree." (Dornyei, 2002).

For construct validity purposes, the selection of items for Part C were based on relevant past research that assessed both HL and non-HL learners' initial motivation toward the language, the target culture, and learning the language. (e.g., Dornyei, 1990; Maloof, 1998; Schmidt et al., 1996; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001) The 59 items were initially adopted from several previously established motivation questionnaires that had demonstrated adequate validity and reliability coefficients: the 91-item questionnaire used by Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) in their study of American learners of five different foreign languages; and the precursor 97-item questionnaire used by Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996) in their study of Egyptian learners of English. Items in those two questionnaires that were irrelevant to the present study (e.g., preferences for instructional activities and learning strategies) were eliminated. In addition to items adapted from the work of Schmidt and colleagues, three items measuring affect toward Korean culture were adapted from

Dornyei's (1990) four-item scale of attitudes toward the Anglo-Saxon world (previously reported Cronbach alpha=.61). An additional five items measuring learner identity were adapted from one section of Maloof's (1998) instrument that examined Vietnamese students' cultural identity. These Maloof's items tapped values, attitudes, and belongingness and were themselves derived from Bosher's (1995) and Landry and Allard's (1991, 1992) questionnaires.

When designing the questionnaire, the decision of which and how many motivational concepts to assess and how many items to include in each scale was one of the major concerns. Considering the limited time available for testing, only core motivational concepts that were widely assessed in previous relevant studies mentioned above were included to measure. This item selection process resulted in an instrument containing 59 items, assessing (a) motivation for language learning, (b) attitudes toward learning the target language/culture, and (c) learner identity. Based on their origins, the motivation items were grouped into 17, as follows:

Table 19
Motivation Questionnaire Items, Reflecting Source of Items

No	Item	Categorization	Source	Wording Changes*
1	I enjoy learning Korean very much.	Intrinsic motivation	S & W	really enjoy, this language, none
2	Learning Korean is a challenge that I enjoy.	Intrinsic motivation	S & W	my language class
3	When class ends, I often wish that we could continue.	Intrinsic motivation	S & W	
4	I enjoy using Korean outside of class whenever I have a chance.	Intrinsic motivation	S & W	this language
5	I like learning foreign languages.	Intrinsic motivation	S & W	don't like, language learning
6	I would take this class even if it were not required.	Intrinsic motivation	S & W	
7	I mainly study Korean to satisfy the school language requirement.	Language requirement	S & W	this language, the university language requirement
8	The main reason taking Korean is that my family/friends/others want me to improve Korean.	Extrinsic motivation	S et al.	this class, parents/my spouse/my supervisors, English
9	I want to do well in this class to show my ability to my family/friends/others.	Extrinsic motivation	S et al.	because it is important to, supervisors/others
10	Being able to speak Korean will add to my social status.	Instrumental orientation	S & W	this language
11	Increasing my proficiency in Korean will have financial benefits for me.	Instrumental orientation	S & W	this language
12	I am learning Korean to understand films, videos, or music.	Instrumental orientation	S & W	this language
13	Studying Korean is important because it will allow me to interact with people who speak it.	Integrative orientation	S & W	this language
14	I am learning Korean to be able to communicate with people who speak it.	Integrative orientation	S & W	this language, friends
15	I want to be more a part of the cultural group that speaks Korean.	Integrative orientation	S & W	this language
16	I enjoy meeting and interacting with people from many cultures.	Interest in foreign languages and cultures	S & W	
17	Studying foreign languages is an important part of education.	Interest in foreign languages and cultures	S & W	
18	Korean is important to me because it will broaden my world view.	Interest in foreign languages and cultures	S & W	this language
19	Korean is important to me because it is part of my cultural heritage.	Heritage language	S & W	this language
20	I have a personal attachment to Korean as part of my identity.	Heritage language	S & W	this language
21	I am certain that I can master the skills being taught in this class.	Expectancy	S & W	
22	I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.	Expectancy	S & W	
23	If I do well in this class, it will be because I work hard.	Expectancy/control	S et al.	course, try
24	If I don't do well in this class, it will be because I don't work hard enough.	Expectancy/control	S et al.	Try
25	If I do well in this class, it will be because this is an easy class.	Expectancy/control	S et al.	

26	If I don't do well in this class, it will be because the class is too difficult.	Expectancy/control	S et al.	
27	If I learn a lot in this class, it will be because of the teacher.	Expectancy/control	S et al.	
28	If I don't learn well in this class, it will be mainly because of the teacher.	Expectancy/control	S et al.	
29	I can imitate the sounds of Korean very well.	Language aptitude	S & W	this language
30	I can guess the meaning of new Korean words very well.	Language aptitude	S & W	Vocabulary
31	I am good at grammar in this class.	Language aptitude	S & W	None
32	In general, I am a good language learner.	Language aptitude	S & W	an exceptionally
33	I feel uncomfortable when I have to speak in this class.	Anxiety	S & W	
34	When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing.	Anxiety	S & W	
35	I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam.	Anxiety	S & W	
36	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in this class.	Anxiety	S et al.	my English
37	I am afraid other students will laugh at me when I speak Korean.	Anxiety	S et al.	English
38	I am afraid my teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	Anxiety	S & W	afraid that
39	I feel more tense and nervous in this class than in my other classes.	Anxiety	S & W	
40	Getting a grade in this class is the most important thing for me right now.	Competitiveness	S & W	
41	It is important to me to do better than the other students in this class.	Personal goals	S et al.	My
42	I learn best when I am competing with other students.	Competitiveness	S & W	
43	I learn best in a cooperative environment.	Cooperativeness	S & W	
44	My relationship with the teacher in this class is important to me.	Personal goals	S et al.	
45	My relationship with the other students in this class is important to me.	Cooperativeness	S & W	
46	I work hard in this class even when I don't like what we are doing.	Motivational strength	S & W	
47	My attendance in this class will be good.	Motivational strength	S et al.	
48	I plan to continue studying Korean for as long as possible.	Motivational strength	S & W	English
49	After I finish this class, I will take another Korean class.	Motivational strength	S & W	probably take, English course
50	Even when course materials are dull and uninteresting, I always finish my work.	Motivational strength	S & W	
51	I can truly say that I put my best effort into learning Korean.	Motivational strength	S & W	this language
52	The more I learn about the Koreans, the more I like them.	Attitudes toward the Anglo-Saxon world	Dornyei	British/Americans
53	My favorite artists (e.g., actors, musicians) are Korean.	Attitudes toward the Anglo-Saxon world	Dornyei	Either British or American
54	Korean culture is of vital importance in the world nowadays.	Attitudes toward the Anglo-Saxon world	Dornyei	British/American
55	It is important to take part in Korean cultural activities.	Integrated cultural identity	Maloof	Vietnamese
56	It is important to participate in American cultural activities.	Integrated cultural identity	Maloof	

57	I identify myself as American.	Integrated cultural identity	Maloof	
58	I think I will marry someone who is Korean.	Integrated cultural identity	Maloof	Vietnamese
59	I think I will marry someone who is American.	Integrated cultural identity	Maloof	

* Underlined words were modified from the original source questionnaires. The very last column displays the original words appeared in the sources provided in the table.

To determine internal consistency and dimensionality of the 59-item instruments, it would have been ideal to conduct a factor analysis. However the number of participants (n = 141) was too small. Therefore, in order to assess reliability—defined as scale internal consistency—across the motivational items of the measuring instrument used in the present study, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was considered as the standard measure of internal consistency reliability for the questionnaire (Huck, 2004). Cronbach's coefficients along with means and standard deviations of 59 items are seen in Appendix G. Preliminary reliability tests were run on those eight dimensions that were previously identified as results of dimensionality of motivational items in studies on which the present study was based. Then, based on reliability test results, several individual items that were found unreliable were deleted and the number of dimensions was revised to increase internal consistency of each dimension as well as of the measure itself.

A series of scale-wise Cronbach's alpha coefficients were accordingly calculated for *a priori* grouping of the items. The *a priori* groupings derived from earlier factor analyses conducted by Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), whose instrument contributed 47 of the 59 items used here. The six dimensions suggested by Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) and Jacques (2001) were value, heritage, expectancy, competitiveness, cooperativeness, and motivational strength. In addition to those six dimensions, one more predetermined dimension was borrowed from the instrument

used by Dornyei (1990) and one from that developed by Maloof (1998). The composition of the eight *a priori* dimensions along with their respective reliability coefficients are shown in Table 20:

Social science research generally considers a reliability coefficient of .70 to be acceptable (Dornyei & Schmidt, 2001). Therefore the reliability of the expectancy dimension was not acceptable, and that of the competitiveness dimension was marginal.

Table 20
Initial Dimensional Analysis of Motivational Items and Their Reliability Coefficients

dimensions	Component scales	Items	alpha
Value	Intrinsic motivation	1-6	.829
	Language requirement	7	
	Instrumental orientation/ Extrinsic motivation	8-12	
	Integrative orientation	13-15	
	Interest in foreign languages and cultures	16-18	
Heritage	Heritage language	19, 20	.918
Expectancy	Expectancy	21-28	.564
	Aptitude/Self-efficacy	29-32	
	Anxiety	33-39	
Competitiveness	Competitiveness	40-42	.688
Cooperativeness	Cooperativeness	43-45	.778
Motivational strength	Motivational strength	46-51	.760
Attitudes	Attitudes toward language and culture	52-54	.729
Identity	Integrated cultural identity	55-59	.735

To improve the overall reliability of the scales, and especially those which initial reliability estimates that were less than acceptable, selected items were removed from those scales and excluded from further data analysis. Items that were removed were those which detracted from scale reliability. A total of 12 such items were eliminated, resulting in a decrease from 59 to 47 items included in the final analyses. Table 21 presents the final form of the ten motivation scales, the number of

the items that they are made up of, descriptive statistics for each dimension, and the Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability estimates for each dimension.

In general, instruments with smaller number of items tend to be less reliable than those of more items (Dornyei & Schmidt, 2001). Unlike Jacques's (2001) outcomes, i.e., that low reliability for certain subscales was due partly to the fact that they were made up of only two or three items, the Cronbach alpha scores even for two-item scales in the present study were quite high. Reliability coefficients for each reconstituted dimension ranged from a low of .729 for attitude to a high of .920 for anxiety, with an average of .881 for all the 10 scales.

Table 21
Descriptive Statistics and Reliability of the Revised Version of Ten Motivational Dimensions

Dimensions	Number of items	M	SD	Min	Max	Alpha	Label [a]
Value	17	4.5131	.70315	2.24	6.00	.854	VALU
Heritage orientation	2	4.4823	1.81010	1.00	6.00	.918	HERI
Expectancy	2	5.1950	.74107	2.50	6.00	.802	EXPE
Self-efficacy	3	4.2766	1.02505	2.00	6.00	.751	EFFI
Anxiety	6	4.7553	1.01312	1.00	6.00	.920	ANXI
Competitiveness	2	3.4539	1.27321	1.00	6.00	.824	COMP
Cooperativeness	2	4.6312	.86323	2.00	6.00	.819	COOP
Motivational strength	6	4.7825	.75565	2.83	6.00	.760	MOST
Attitudes	3	4.1135	1.05772	1.00	6.00	.729	ATTI
Identity	4	3.8918	1.14147	1.25	6.00	.772	IDEN

[a] Labels are used only when space is not allowed for the full description of dimensions in a table.

The 47 questionnaire items used in the final analyses were attributed to the 10 motivation scales as follows:

Dimension 1 — Value (VALU).

1. I enjoy learning Korean very much.
2. Learning Korean is a challenge that I enjoy.

3. When class ends, I often wish that we could continue.
4. I enjoy using Korean outside of class whenever I have a chance.
5. I like learning foreign languages.
6. I would take this class even if it were not required.
7. The main reason taking Korean is that my family/friends/others want me to improve Korean.
8. I want to do well in this class to show my ability to my family/friends/others.
9. Being able to speak Korean will add to my social status.
10. Increasing my proficiency in Korean will have financial benefits for me.
11. I am learning Korean to understand films, videos, or music.
12. Studying Korean is important because it will allow me to interact with people who speak it.
13. I am learning Korean to be able to communicate with people who speak it.
14. I want to be more a part of the cultural group that speaks Korean.
15. I enjoy meeting and interacting with people from many cultures.
16. Studying foreign languages is an important part of education.
17. Korean is important to me because it will broaden my world view.

The largest number of items emerged as constituents of the dimension labeled "Value." These items derived from four conceptually different motivational orientations: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, integrative orientation, and interest in foreign languages and cultures.

Prior research showing that integrative and instrumental orientations do correlate with each other (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997) supports the clustering of the four subscales in the present study. In fact, those four orientations associated with value in learning foreign language have in

some past research (e.g., Jacques, 2001; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001) loaded on one factor. The individual items falling into this dimension all have to do with a general positive outlook toward the particular L2 as well as with appreciating learning language and culture. This result may indicate that the original four categories are not as discrete as was thought when the original instrument (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996) was designed.

Dimension 2 — Heritage language (HERI).

1. Korean is important to me because it is part of my cultural heritage.
2. I have a personal attachment to Korean as part of my identity.

This dimension is readily interpretable, which produced a very high reliability estimate with very few items. This can be evidence that low reliability estimates are not clearly related to the number of items. Since it consists of all the items from the original HERI subscales of the questionnaire, all addressing heritage language orientation, it is simply labeled "Heritage language." It concerns the orientation towards learning the language of one's own cultural heritage.

Dimension 3 — Expectancy (EXPE).

1. I am certain that I can master the skills being taught in this class.
2. I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.

The dimension labeled "Expectancy" was assessed by two items concerning learner's "outcome" expectations of success in language class.

Dimension 4 — Self-efficacy (EFFI).

1. I can imitate the sounds of Korean very well.
2. I can guess the meaning of new Korean words very well.
3. I am good at grammar in this class.

Three items concerned with learners' self-judgment of their pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar fell into this dimension labeled "Self-efficacy." Efficacy for foreign language learning, the beliefs that one can actually perform certain learning actions, has been demonstrated to be one dimension of motivation that is highly susceptible to change as a result of instructional interactions (Matthews, 2001).

Dimension 5 — Anxiety (ANXI).

1. When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing.
2. I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam.
3. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in this class.
4. I am afraid other students will laugh at me when I speak Korean.
5. I am afraid my teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
6. I feel more tense and nervous in this class than in my other classes.

The clearest result in Table 21 is for the dimension assessed by 6 items that readily refer to anxiety, including general class anxiety, speaking anxiety, test anxiety, and fear of the opinions of the teacher and other students. Simply labeled as "Anxiety," this dimension produced the highest reliability coefficient. Note that the composite scores for the negatively worded items concerning anxiety were reversed to use as one of the motivational variables for further analyses. In other words, high scores on this dimension would be indicative of low anxiety.

Dimension 6 — Competitiveness (COMP).

1. It is important to me to do better than the other students in this class.
2. I learn best when I am competing with other students.

This dimension made up of two items can be labeled as "Competitiveness." Participants scoring high on this dimension attributed value to the need to compete against other students to ultimately earn good grades.

Dimension 7 — Cooperativeness (COOP).

1. My relationship with the teacher in this class is important to me.
2. My relationship with the other students in this class is important to me.

The two items in this dimension refer to preference for cooperative learning and the value of the relationship with others in the language class. This dimension is labeled "Cooperativeness."

Dimension 8 — Motivational strength (MOST).

1. I work hard in this class even when I don't like what we are doing.
2. My attendance in this class will be good.
3. I plan to continue studying Korean for as long as possible.
4. After I finish this class, I will take another Korean class.
5. Even when course materials are dull and uninteresting, I always finish my work.
6. I can truly say that I put my best effort into learning Korean.

The six items referring to personal efforts and task persistence exerted to succeed in the language class were labeled as "Motivational strength."

Dimension 9 — Attitudes toward Korean culture and language (ATTI).

1. The more I learn about the Koreans, the more I like them.
2. My favorite artists (e.g., actors, musicians) are Korean.
3. Korean culture is of vital importance in the world nowadays.

Adapted from Dornyei (1990), the three items on this scale all addressed personal perceptions or attitudes toward cultures. This dimension is labeled "Attitudes toward Korean culture and language."

Dimension 10 — Korean ethnic/cultural identity (IDEN).

1. It is important to take part in Korean cultural activities.

2. I identify myself as American. (reverse coded)
3. I think I will marry someone who is Korean.
4. I think I will marry someone who is American. (reverse coded)

All four items on this dimension were derived from Maloof's (1998) instrument measuring integrated cultural identity. The two reverse-coded items were concerned with American identity, whereas the other items with Korean identity. This dimension on which all four heterogeneous items fell might be labeled simply "Korean ethnic/cultural identity (Identity in short)." Those asserting Korean identity tend to show low American identity and vice versa.

CP Questionnaire

A separate version of the questionnaire was administered to the 17 native Korean speaking CPs. The questionnaire for CPs contained demographic and background items, including questions about their purpose and length of stay in the US, parental first language and birthplace, as well as self-rated Korean and English proficiency on a 1 to 5 Likert scale where 1 represented "poor" and 5 represented "native(-like)." This questionnaire is reproduced as Appendix D.

Procedures

Administration of the Survey

The survey was administered under typical classroom conditions during the last week of August and the first week of September of Fall semester 2004. The survey questionnaire was distributed to all the KLLs at UGA and Tech who attended the class on the day of the survey and administered by regular classroom instructors, who also obtained the informed consent signatures. Since the survey participation was on a voluntary basis, those students who chose not to participate were free to leave. Sufficient time was allowed to students for checking all the items asked in the 6-page

survey questionnaire including personal biographical data. The survey took approximately 20 minutes. Unfortunately, however, there were about 7 students who did not complete the questionnaire on the same day and turned it later (it was not because of the lack of time but mainly because they did not want to complete it at the time of survey and they took it home and bring it later). Partly because some students misunderstood the instructions and/or did not want to answer, the background information relating to numbers of visit to Korea (in months), previous Korean language study (in months), arrival in the US (in years of age), and length of stay in the US (in years) were incomplete and they were excluded from the further analyses.

The administration of the questionnaire for native Korean-speaking CPs was a little different from that of the questionnaire for learner participants. The questionnaires for CPs were distributed individually to fill out at their leisure, and they submitted their questionnaire to the researcher either directly or through their learner partner upon completion.

Administration of the Recordings and Diary-Keeping

A total of 4 one-hour recordings for each of sixteen conversation pairs followed by one-page diaries kept at the end of each recording session by learners who participated in recordings of conversations were collected. Both learner and native Korean-speaking CP were given $ 5 upon completion of each of the four recording/diary keeping sessions.

CP Meeting Audio-Recordings

The sixteen conversation pairs selected on a voluntary basis for this study were recorded using a variety of recorders such as CD recorder, MP3, and audio cassette tape recorder. Since the conversation meeting was only between KLL and CP, they were provided with recorders with cassette tapes/CDs or MP3 and a diary

sheet before the meetings. Before the first recording of each conversation pair, they were instructed by me in person how they should audio-record their conversation. They were asked to converse as naturally as they could and to keep the recorder on until the conversation meeting ended. The length conversation meetings ranged from approximately thirty minutes to approximately eighty minutes. The four recordings took place for four weeks (for some pairs four consecutive weeks, but others took more than four weeks). The recordings were made at different locations depending upon participants' preferences, but all were recorded in quiet places such as a classroom, library, or dorm room.

Diary-Keeping

The KLLs participating in CP activity recordings were asked to make a diary entry at the end of every conversation meeting. They were given special sheets of paper for this purpose. The instructions read in part "…express your feelings about the conversation you have just had with your Korean CP". The full text of the diary instructions appear in Appendix E. Diaries were used to qualify and amplify findings in a qualitative fashion.

Coding/Transcribing Processing

Survey Data

At the completion of the survey, the questionnaires were collected and the data were initially entered and organized in Microsoft Excel to assist in the display and later statistical analyses. Responses to the motivational items in Part C were scored by assigning 1 through 6 to the response entries where 1 was associated with the most disagreement ("Strongly disagree"). Six items needed to be reverse-coded (Items 25, 26, 28, 56, 57, 59). Regarding the anxiety scale, high mean scores of

anxiety indicate low anxiety. Ultimately, the Excel spreadsheet was imported into SPSS for statistical analyses.

Discourse Data

Four CP meetings for each of 16 KLL-CP pairs were recorded, resulting in approximately 64 hours of recording. For the storage/safety purposes, the audio recordings were digitized onto CDs. Since it was prohibitive to transcribe and code all 64 hours of talk, three 5-minute segments were sampled from each meeting. The samples were the first and last approximate five minutes of talk plus an approximately 5-minute segment starting at 15 minutes into the meeting. In each case, transcribing began at the apparent start of a topical episode and ended at a boundary between topics. The average length of each segment was 5 minutes and 14 seconds, the standard deviation was 0.21, the mode 5 minutes, and the median 5 minutes and 15 seconds.

Upon completion of recordings, the sampled segments of the recorded data were transcribed following a simplified adaptation of Jefferson's (1984) transcript notation system. The guidelines to transcription for this study are given in Appendix F. The transcription conventions adopted capture simultaneous talk, turns, and pauses of more than 3 seconds (e.g., Mori, 2003). According to Allwright and Bailey (1991), transcribing native speaker dyads normally takes about five times the length of the interaction. In this study, however, it took even longer to transcribe, because transcriptions were based on dyad conversations of non-native speakers interacting in their second language. Moreover, voices often overlapped and some speakers were heard less clearly than others. In my experience, three five-minute segments of each recording took up to three hours to transcribe accurately.

The discourse was initially transcribed in the language in which it was produced. Since the transcripts in this study were based on the dyads of non-native speakers interacting in their L2/FL, they were reviewed and edited by a balanced bilingual speaker of English and Korean. All Korean portions of the transcribed sections of meetings were then translated into English. All translated transcriptions were reviewed by a native speaker of English for naturalness and idiomaticity. A second native speaker of Korean back-translated 10 randomly selected transcripts, and the back-translated versions were compared with the Korean language transcripts and tapes. In the examples presented in this dissertation, transcripts of Korean language utterances are mostly represented with three lines: the first line is the original utterance, the second is the English gloss line in italics and the line in quotation marks is an approximate English translation.

Conversation analysis is a valuable methodology for studying SLA (Hatch, 1978). In the present study, using conversations that were recorded from KLLs as they conversed in pairs with their native Korean speaking CPs, some core conversation analysis concepts such as turn-taking and code-switching were examined to describe how HL and non-HL learners talk-in-interaction was organized. Quantitative and qualitative approaches to conversational data analysis of transcript data were combined in this study, following models such as Allwright's (1980) study of ESL classes and Bailey's (1984) study of twenty-four non-native teaching assistants.

Upon completion of transcription, several discourse variables were coded and raw frequencies tabulated for conversational data analyses. Features of Microsoft Word 2002 such as "sort" and "word count" were utilized to assist in this task. Only the learner comments in each transcript were considered for conversational data

analysis, so the learner comments were separated from the CP comments by using the "sort" feature of Microsoft Word and saved into a separate word file. Each of those files of learner comments was the source of data analysis. Then, the "word count" feature was utilized to count words used in learner comments.

The data structure also captured sequence and possible development in the discourse patterns. That is, tags indicated whether each 5-minute speech sample was derived from the beginning, middle, or end of each session and from which of the four sessions the coding were obtained. For each speech sample (total of twelve segments for each of 16 learners), the following items were coded:

a. Total number of words in the segment
b. Number of words produced by the learner
c. Number of Korean words produced by the learner
d. Number of English words produced by the learner
e. Number of conversational turns taken by the learner
f. Number of conversational turns in which the learner switched from Korean to English
g. Number of conversational turns in which the learner switched from English to Korean

Amount of talk was the major indicator of learner's competence and contribution to conversation in this study. Each word in Korean and English was coded to be used as a single conversational feature itself as well as a denominator when the proportions of Korean and English code-switching initiative were computed. Total number of words was also counted and used as a single conversational feature.

In transcribing and coding, cultural loans or established borrowings were not considered code-switching forms. That is, those words that were borrowed into the

Korean language and its culture were counted as Korean. One problem with coding then arose: How can borrowing and code-switching forms be differentiated? As many researchers might experience, it was hard to assume a sharp line between borrowing and code-switching, but borrowings should be clearly distinguished from code-switching forms so that the word count and code-switching count can be properly carried out. In this study, cultural loans characterized as "filling lexical gaps" that were borrowed into the Korean language to refer to new objects or concepts were clearly counted as Korean forms instead of code-switched forms, because they already entered the target language lexicon and its culture. The majority of those borrowings showed a good deal of phonological integration into Korean. For example:

Discourse Excerpt 1 (Ha 1-2)

40. H: 음, 거기도 computer engineering, 그게 뭐지? 컴퓨터..
    um there also computer engineering that is what computer
    'Um, there is also computer engineering, what is that (in Korean)? Computer…'
41. K: 공학
    engineering
    'Engineering'
42. H: 컴퓨터 공학을 들어 갔는데, 어, 그래서 우주공학을 하고 싶고 그니까 뭐,
    computer engineering went but uh so aerospace engineering do want so well
    'I entered computer engineering, but, uh, so I want to major in aerospace engineering and so well..'

In this conversation, the word *computer* in Ha's utterance *computer engineering* in turn 40 was not phonologically integrated into the Korean language and counted as an English word. However, *컴퓨터* 'computer' in the same turn and in turn 42 was the phonologically integrated cultural borrowing and counted as Korean.

However, not all the borrowing forms can be distinguished from code-switching forms on the basis of their phonological integration into Korean, because some speakers made their speech different from that of others by pronouncing loan words as close to the originals as possible. This phenomenon happened mainly to CPs who were learners of English for two possible reasons: English was considered the language with more socio-economic prestige than Korean; and their conversations took place in the country of the language with the native speakers of English. The main focus of the conversational data analysis was on the learners' comments, and this ambiguity did not make a bad impact on the analysis. However, for total word counts of each segment including CP's comments for the ratio statistics purpose a distinction between borrowing and code-switching should be made. In this respect, the phonological criterion was the best way to distinguish established borrowings from code-switching forms, especially for proper nouns such as 조지아텍 'Georgia Tech', 버지니아 'Virginia' 셀린 디옹 'Celine Dion', 스타벅스 'Starbucks' etc., which had no alternative term with the same meaning available in Korean. However, the distinction based on the phonological integration sometimes was not apparent, and it relied heavily on the transcriber's intuition, which may be controversial. To avoid subjective controversy like this, the transcripts of the learner-native partner conversations were reviewed by four Korean-English bilinguals.

Code-switching as a single conversational feature can be used as an indicator of learner's contribution to the conversation or competence in the language to compare between other learners. However, quantitative code-switching measured only by the distribution of the total number of turns of code-switching from Korean to English or English to Korean without considering it in relation to amount of talk might not be indicative of learner's initiative in conversation, because it was closely

related to frequencies of words produced by learner. Therefore, assessing a relative importance of code-switching on the basis that it was most closely related to amount of speech was significantly necessary, and namely Korean code-switching initiative and English code-switching initiative were measured in terms of the distribution of the total number of turns of code-switching in each direction in relation to the distribution of the total number of Korean/English words produced by the learner used as denominators.

It should be noted that in the present study only code-switching within a turn taken by learner, referred as inter-sentential/intra-sentential code-switching, was examined rather than a sequential examination of code-switching in the turn-by-turn organization of interaction. Therefore, only turns containing both languages were counted.

Number of Words. For each of the 5-minute segments of the transcripts, in order to count total number of words used by learner in each transcript, the "sort" feature of Microsoft Word was used to separate the learner's utterances from the CP's. Then, it was saved as a separate file and total number of words was counted by using the "word count" feature of Microsoft Word. To obtain an accurate count, those additional elements that were included in the original transcripts, parenthetical remarks for commentary of any kind (e.g., to indicate point in conversation where an interactant laughs or writes) and symbols used to identify who is speaking were excluded for word-count. It should be noted that all such back channel utterances that are acknowledgment expressions as *uh (huh), um (hum), yeah, okay, right*, which were primarily used to function as hesitation fillers and agreement expression, were included in word-count. In conversation in Korean, those words 음/어/네/예 'yes' and

음/어 'um/uh', were regarded as backchannel utterances. Also, a Korean particle that was attached to an English noun lexical item was counted as a separate word.

Number of Words in Korean. For comparison purposes, among the words in total, the number of words in Korean was separately calculated to simply determine whether HLs used Korean over English more than non-HLs did. To count Korean words uttered by learners, Korean words in each transcript were separated from English words and saved as a separate file. Then, using the "word count" feature of Microsoft Word, the number was calculated. Those additional conversational elements mentioned above were left out for an accurate word-count purpose as well.

Number of Conversational Turns. Conversation is basically accomplished through a series of turns. In an attempt to understand how many times the learner participant took the floor, the total number of conversational turns was calculated as a good indicator of this. For each segment, when transcribing the recorded conversations, speakers' aural paralinguistic behaviors such as cough and laughter without verbal representations were considered to be turns. Actual turns taken into consideration for conversational data analysis, however, were comprised only of verbal representations including verbal expressions classified as backchannel responses such as *yeah*, *oh*, or *uh huh*. Also, overlapping talk was considered to be instances of separate turns. The turn ended if the speaker overlapped a paralinguistic backchannel marker.

Korean Code-Switching Initiative. In order to assess the notion of Korean code-switching initiative taken by learners, number of instances of code-switching from English to Korean was used as the nominator and number of English words produced by learner within each of the five-minute segments was used as the

denominator in computing a percentage, which was used as an independent measure of learner's contribution to the conversation or competence in the target language.

English Code-Switching Initiative. It is assumed that for non-HLs English is the language of conversation and that English code switching initiative would be more taken in predominantly non-HL conversation than in HL conversation due to their lack of competence or low proficiency in Korean. To investigate this assumption, the number of turns of learner's reverted code switching from English to Korean were tabulated for comparison between HL and non-HL. Then, to assess the notion of English code-switching initiative taken by learner the number of turns of learner's code-switching from Korean to English was divided by number of Korean words produced by learner within each of the five-minute segments.

Diary Data

A total of 48 learner diary entries were obtained from 64 conversational meetings (two of the participants did not make any diary entries, and four of them made only two entries). They ranged from 24 to 209 words in length (93.77 words in average, SD 41.06, mode 79, and median 77.88). Diary entries handed personally in the following class or submitted via email were retyped and stored them using Microsoft Word for the sake of analysis. Very little was edited and highly personal entries such as the names of the participants were eliminated and changed. Because not all the learners participating in the audio recordings kept diaries on every occasion, diary entries were used only for the supplemental purposes, to enrich understanding of learners as well as their conversations, when applicable.

Variables

It would be a good idea at this point to list all of the independent variables and all of the dependent variables of the study.

Independent Variables

Ten independent variables were considered in this study for motivational analyses. They included demographic variables of interest that were often investigated in previous second language acquisition/foreign language learning research (e.g., Jo, 2001; Kondo-Brown, 2001; Lee, 2002). They also include variables unique to this study, such as heritage language status and class level. Table 22 summarizes the independent variables and the manner in which levels were determined. Refer to the participants section of this chapter for their detailed descriptions.

Table 22
Independent Variables for Motivational Analyses

Variables	Dimensions
Age	Ranging from 18 to 30
Level of study	1) Class I, 2) Class II, 3) Class III, 4) Class IV
Gender	1) Male, 2) Female
Birthplace[a]	1) Korea, 2) US
First language[a]	1) Korean, 2) English
Parent birthplace	1) Korea, 2) Others
Parent first language	1) Korean, 2) Others
Self-assessed proficiency of Korean	1) High, 2) Mid, 3) Low
Degree of exposure to Korean in youth	1) Passive, 2) Active
Heritage status	1) None-heritage, 2) Moderate-heritage, 3) High-heritage

[a] Those who were not born in either Korea or US (a total of 5) and whose first language was not either Korean or English (a total of 7) were excluded for further considerations.

Conversational data analysis employed some variables that served as independent variable to quantify the discourse data. They are listed in Table 23, followed by the detailed descriptions of participant variables.

Table 23
Independent Variables for Conversational Analyses

Participant variables	Dimensions
Heritage status of learner	1) Heritage, 2) Non-heritage
Gender of partner	1) Male, 2) Female
Scope of relationship between partners	1) Acquainted 2) Unacquainted
Meeting variables	Dimensions
Segment of meeting	1) Beginning, 2) Middle, 3) End
Sequence of the meeting during the term	1) First, 2) Second, 3) Third, 4) Fourth

Heritage Status of Learner

As the result of the systematic classification based on the learners' ethnic/linguistic background information, the two criteria of heritage status of learners (heritage- and non-heritage) serve as an independent variable to compare the conversational features with each other. Since the number of participants who provided the conversational data was too small (n = 16), for this series of analyses two moderate heritage students were combined into heritage learner criterion to make the cell size of each criterion even (heritage = 8, non-heritage = 8).

Gender of Partners

For this study, although all the CP participants were living in the US, they were interacting as Koreans, assumed that they were keeping the Korean value of social and cultural appropriateness in their conversational interaction. Depending on the gender of the native Korean-speaking CP, conversational interactions of this study in which there was no imposed form that organized the structure of the interaction and revealed the informal nature of the setting through their speech, might retain gender differences in conversational features investigated in this study.

Scope of Relationship Between Speakers

Based on the hypothesis that relationship between learner and CP of the present study might be an indicator of conversational dominance, determining the

distribution of number of turns, words, and code-switching, the scope of relationship between partners (precedes and extends beyond CP meetings or initiated with and limited to CP meetings) served as an independent variable.

Dependent Variables

There were two sets of dependent variables in this study: one set for motivational analyses and the other for conversational analyses. Table 24 and 25 present the dependent variables of this study.

Table 24
Dependent Variables for Motivational Analyses

Variables
Value
Heritage orientation
Expectancy
Self-efficacy
Anxiety
Competitiveness
Cooperativeness
Motivational strength
Attitudes
Identity

Table 25
Dependent Variables for Conversational Analyses

Variables
Total number of words produced by the learner
Total number of words in Korean produced by the learner
Total number of conversational turns taken by the learner
Korean code-switching initiative taken by the learner (number of turns that switch code from English to Korean divided by number of English words)
English code-switching initiative taken by the learner (number of turns that switch code from Korean to English divided by number of Korean words)

The first dependent variable set includes the 10 motivational dimensions. See earlier section of this chapter for the detailed descriptions of the motivational dimensions.

As mentioned in the relevant literature review, these conversational features are frequently investigated in research on conversation/discourse analysis (e.g., Auer, 1998; Garton, 2002; Heller, 1988; Macaro, 2001; McHoul, 1978; Sacks et al, 1974; Schegloff, 2000b; Tanaka, 2000; Li Wei & Milroy, 1995).

Data Analysis

Rationale for Mixed Research

I believed that mixed method research in which quantitative and qualitative techniques are mixed in a single study would offer the best design for the amount and kind of evidence for this study. The overall study was primarily quantitative but it was followed by a supportive qualitative phase. As a way of best answering my research questions, I sought elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from a quantitative phase with the results from a qualitative phase (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). More specifically, in order to investigate how student language/social/ethnic background was associated with their motivation and with their conversational interactions with native Korean-speaking CPs, the study utilized elements of qualitative analysis, especially for selected conversational analyses and diary analyses. Where sample size was large enough, as in correlations and analysis of variance of questionnaire data (where the overall n was 141), inferential (probability-based) statistics were used. With only 16 CP pairs, much of the data analysis for that portion of the study also relied on inferential statistics as well as frequencies and descriptive statistics. Once the quantitative analyses yielded rough patterns of findings, selected qualitative analyses were conducted to attempt to explicate those

patterns. For example, diary entries were examined to determine whether they can explain differences between HL and non-HL learners in code switching or motivational patterns revealed in the quantitative analyses. Similarly, qualitative conversational analyses were conducted on segments of talk that appear to occur at critical junctures for various of the HL and non-HL learner/native speaker pairs.

Group Differences in Motivation and in Discourse Features

Analysis of variance was used to determine the effects of heritage status of learners on motivation by means of a one-way MANOVA. The goal of MANOVA is to analyze the significance of differences in grouping variables on the various dependent variables. MANOVA can investigate predictions along more than one dimension and examine patterns of differences among independent variables in order to better control for family-wise error rate that can yield spurious significant results when so many dependent variables are analyzed. Among a number of statistics to evaluate MANOVA hypothesis that the population means on the multiple dependent variables are equal across groups, Wilks's lambda, symbolized as Λ, was used in this study, because it is frequently reported in the social science literature. Wilks's Lambda is a positive-valued statistic that ranges from 0 to 1. Decreasing values of the statistic indicate effects that contribute more to the model. Each multivariate statistic is transformed into a test statistic with an approximate or exact *F* distribution (Green & Salkind, 2003). A more straightforward way to see this is to look at partial eta squared. The partial eta squared statistic (η^2) associated with each *F*-test reports the practical significance of each variable, based upon the proportion of the total variation accounted for by the effect. Larger values of partial eta squared indicate a greater amount of variation accounted for by the model effect, to a maximum of 1 (Huck, 2004).

If a one-way MANOVA is significant, follow-up analyses can assess whether there are differences among groups on the population means for individual dependent variables. A common follow-up approach is to conduct multiple ANOVAs, one for each dependent variable. For example, a one-way ANOVA as a follow-up to MANOVA allowed us to determine whether there was a significant difference among three heritage status groups (high, moderate, and none) on each of the ten motivation dimensions.

In addition to MANOVA, three-way repeated measures ANOVAs were run to evaluate the effects of personal, interpersonal and meeting variables of the conversation participants on the five conversational variables at the conventional alpha level ($p < .05$).

Relations between Learner Background and Motivation

In addition to the analyses of variance examining effects of heritage status of learners on motivation, a more exploratory analysis of the relations of the other learner background variables on each of the motivation variables was conducted to determine if any of the background variables predicted learner's motivation. Accordingly separate linear regressions were run for each of the 10 motivation variables. In each case, the 9 demographic/personal variables (that is, excepting heritage status) were treated as independent variables or predictors.

Relations among Dimensions of Motivation and between Motivation and Discourse Variables

In relation to the purpose of studying the large set of motivational variables, the basic questions are whether there is a relationship between motivational variables and conversational variables, and how strong or weak that relationship is, if a relationship in fact exists. To answer those questions, the numerical summary of

bivariate relationships called a correlation coefficient can be used. Symbolized as *r*, a correlation coefficient is normally ranging from -1.00 to +1.00. Any value above .00 represents a positive correlation and a direct relationship, and any value below .00 is a negative correlation and an indirect or inverse relationship. When *r* assumes a value close to either end, the relationship is considered high or strong, and when *r* falls close to .00 the relationship is considered random. Low correlations with *r* close to zero imply independence whereas high positive or negative correlations signal lack of independence (Green & Salkind, 2003). In other words, two variables that have low correlations are considered to be independent. For data such as those measuring motivation in the present study, the appropriate bivariate correlational technique is Pearson's product-moment correlation.

In addition to these quantifications, segments of interaction as well as diary entries were non-systematically selected for qualitative presentation to illustrate broader patterns and/or aberrant cases that may be of particular interest.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The presentation of results in this chapter is organized around each of the three research questions introduced in Chapter 1. The first section presents results of the larger study of motivations for learning Korean as an additional language and the impact of Korean heritage status on those motivations. The remainder of the chapter pertains to data collected from the 16 Korean language learners who provided conversation partner data. It presents a descriptive quantitative discourse analysis of the conversational data, along with more qualitative analyses of those data and of the learners' diary entries. The qualitative analysis of code-switching is delineated in more detail.

Motivation for Korean Language Learning

Means and standard deviations for the ten composite motivational variables appear in table 26.

Table 26
Means and Standard Deviations for Ten Motivation Measures

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value	4.51	.70
Heritage	4.48	1.81
Expectancy	5.20	.74
Self-efficacy	4.28	1.03
Anxiety	2.24	1.01
Competitiveness	3.45	1.27
Cooperativeness	4.63	.86
motivational strength	4.78	.76
Attitudes	4.11	1.06
Identity	3.89	1.14

As a preliminary to conducting analyses of the effects of demographic variables and personal variables on motivation for learning an additional language, correlations among the ten composite motivational variables were calculated in order to consider the degree of collinearity among these variables. These correlations are reported in Table 27. To help reduce the family-wise error rate, given the numerous correlations calculated here, the more conservative alpha level of .01 (one-tailed) was taken as the criterion for statistical significance.

Expectancy as well as self-efficacy shared substantial amounts of variance with the other variables. The results of the correlational analyses presented in Table 27 show that in all cases except for the variable value motivation, correlations of expectancy with the other motivations were statistically significant at the .01 level and greater than or equal in magnitude to .25. All those correlations were positive except that with anxiety. These correlations suggest that participants who displayed relatively high expectancy for language learning also evidenced relatively high levels of attachment to the language as part of their identity and heritage, a relatively high level of cooperative as well as competitive motivation, expressed relatively favorable attitudes toward the target language and culture, but felt relatively low anxiety about learning Korean. All the correlations of self-efficacy with the other variables showed the same pattern of relations as those of expectancy. Moreover, expectancy and self-efficacy were moderately and positively correlated with each other.

Table 27
Correlations Among the Ten Motivation Variables (n = 141)

	Value	Heritage orientation	Expectancy	Self-efficacy	Anxiety	Comparative	Cooperative	Motivational strength	Attitudes
Value									
Heritage orientation	.048								
Expectancy	.124	.225*							
Self-efficacy	.132	.344*	.573*						
Anxiety	.039	-.158	-.401*	-.261*					
Comparativeness	.192	.155	.250*	.439*	-.071				
Cooperativeness	.427*	.120	.390*	.408*	-.066	.464*			
Motivational strength	.547*	.094	.414*	.222*	-.029	.130	.482*		
Attitudes	.492*	.206*	.280*	.419*	.025	.350*	.505*	.497*	
Identity	.115	.478*	.271*	.495*	-.161	.334*	.303*	.089	.495*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Finding One: Relations Between Heritage Status and Motivation

To investigate if the population means for the scores on the motivational scales differed for learners from different heritage backgrounds, a one-way MANOVA of the 10 composite motivational variables was conducted. The independent variable was heritage status of the KLLs at three levels (high, moderate, and none). As explicated in the preceding chapter, heritage status took into account parental first language and birthplace and learners' own language use history. The point of running MANOVA prior to univariate analyses was to help protect against family-wise error rate with so many variables being analyzed. The finding of a statistically significant MANOVA effect was followed by separate univariate ANOVAs for each of the 10 motivation variables.

The MANOVA did reveal a significant multivariate effect for heritage status on motivation, Wilks's $\Lambda = .12$; $F(20, 258) = 24.64$, $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .66$. The large η^2 value indicated a large effect size, indicating that two-thirds of the variance in KLLs' motivation to learn Korean was attributable to heritage status. Accordingly the MANOVA was followed up with 10 separate one-way ANOVAs. Cell means and standard deviations for each of the 10 motivational variables appear in table 28.

For purposes of testing the hypothesis about effects of heritage status on motivation, mean differences between cell means were of less interest than whether the variance attributable to any main effect for heritage fit a linear trend. That is, since the three levels of heritage status were ordinally arrayed (each level represented a greater degree of heritage than the preceding ones), it became possible to partition the variance of the main effect in each one-way ANOVA into a preplanned linear contrast. Table 29 contains tests for linearity between heritage status and each of the ten motivational variables.

Table 28
Means and Standard Deviations of Ten Motivational Variables by Korean Heritage Language Group

Variable	Heritage group	M	SD
Value	None	4.6248	.66873
	Moderate	4.3697	.72335
	High	4.4996	.71352
Heritage orientation	None	1.7973	1.04389
	Moderate	5.1190	1.07127
	High	5.5181	.62687
Expectancy	None	5.0000	.71686
	Moderate	5.2619	.76842
	High	5.2651	.73806
Self-efficacy	None	3.6937	.64011
	Moderate	4.1905	1.10339
	High	4.5582	1.04000
Anxiety	None	2.4459	.95181
	Moderate	2.2778	1.05189
	High	2.1466	1.02786
Competitiveness	None	3.1892	1.16280
	Moderate	3.1190	.99881
	High	3.6566	1.35234
Cooperativeness	None	4.5946	.68554
	Moderate	4.2381	.98259
	High	4.7470	.88129
Motivational strength	None	4.7883	.83301
	Moderate	4.9841	.67681
	High	4.7289	.73837
Attitudes	None	3.9279	.92341
	Moderate	3.6190	1.00712
	High	4.3213	1.08006
Identity	None	3.0338	.69513
	Moderate	2.9643	1.21266
	High	4.5090	.84594

Table 29
Linear Trend ANOVAs and Association Measures for Effects of Heritage Status on Ten Motivational Variables

	MS	*F*	η^2
Value	.26	.53	.01
Heritage	327.09	478.13**	.79
Expectancy	1.62	2.98	.02
Self-efficacy	19.24	20.78**	.13
Anxiety	2.31	2.26	.02
Competitiveness	6.75	4.26*	.04
Cooperativeness	1.15	1.58	.04
Motivational strength	.21	.36	.01
Attitudes	5.54	5.21*	.06
Identity	65.57	85.79**	.42

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$

The linearity tests indicated that there were significant linear relationships between heritage status and heritage orientation ($F = 478.13$, $p < .01$), self-efficacy ($F = 20.78$, $p < .01$), competitiveness ($F = 4.26$, $p < .05$), attitudes ($F = 5.21$, $p < .05$), and identity ($F = 85.79$, $p < .01$).

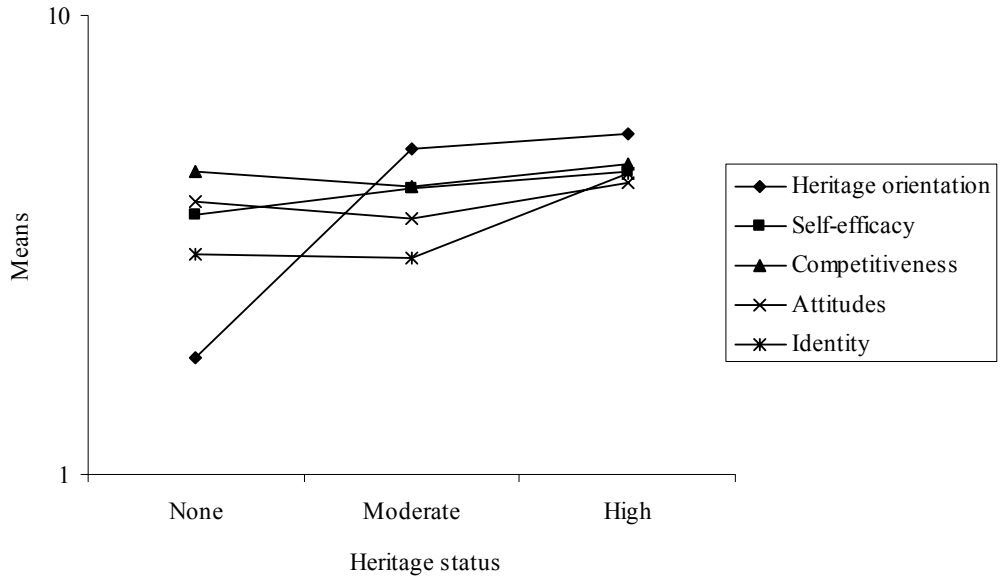

Figure 3.
Significant Linear Relations between Heritage Status and Five Motivational Variables

The η^2 association measure for heritage orientation was .79, indicating that the amount of variance shared between heritage motivation and heritage status was very substantial and of practical significance. As shown in Figure 3, inspection of cell means of heritage orientation by heritage status indicates a monotonic upward trend. The association between identity and heritage status was relatively strong, η^2 = .42. Inspection of cell means of identity by heritage status indicates a non-monotonic upward trend. The association between heritage status and self-efficacy (η^2 = .13) was statistically significant and moderate. Inspection of cell means of self-efficacy by heritage status indicates a monotonic upward trend. The associations between heritage status and competitiveness (η^2 = .04) and between heritage status and attitudes (η^2 = .06) were found to be statistically significant, but accounted for relatively small amounts of variance. Inspections of cell means of both competitiveness and attitudes by heritage status indicate a non-monotonic upward trend.

Finding Two: Relations Between Learner's Background and Motivation

In addition to the multivariate and univariate analyses of variance examining effects of heritage status of learners on motivation, it was of interest to conduct a more exploratory analysis of the relations of the other learner background variables on each of the motivation variables. Accordingly separate linear regressions were run for each of the 10 motivation variables. In each case, the other demographic and personal variables (that is, excepting heritage status) were treated as independent variables or predictors. For purposes of these regressions, then these independent variables were: (1) age, (2) class standing, (3) gender, (4) first language, (5) birthplace, (6) self-reported level of Korean proficiency, (7) parental first language and (8) birthplace, and (9) language use history. All of these independent variables were entered

simultaneously (classical regression model) in a separate multiple regression for each of ten dependent variables. The particular explanatory power of the nine predictor variables in each regression was indicated by the standardized beta coefficients (β) and t-ratios (t).

Nine of the ten regressions were statistically significant, explaining between 10 percent and 78 percent of the total variance in the criterion motivation measures. The one motivation scale which the background variables did not significantly predict was values. The results of multiple regression analyses are presented in Tables 30 through 39.

Table 30
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Value Motivation

	β	t
Age	.01	.14
Class level	-.15	-1.20
Gender	-.06	-.69
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	.01	.09
Parents' L1	.22	.50
Parents' birthplace	-.64	-1.45
KLL's language use history	.42	2.13*
Overall R^2	.07	
Overall F (7, 133 df)	1.37	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

The linear combination of all nine personal predictors were found to account for only a small percentage of variance of the value motivation, $R^2 = .07$, adjusted $R^2 = .02$. The overall F test for the regression equation was not statistically significant ($p = .22$). Among those nine predictors, however, language use history did predict value motivation to a statistically significant degree.

Table 31
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Heritage Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	-.04	-.90
Class level	-.10	-1.60
Gender	.07	1.57
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	-.05	-.70
Parents' L1	.03	.12
Parents' birthplace	.54	2.51*
KLL's language use history	.40	4.21***
Overall R^2	.78	
Overall F (7, 133 *df*)	77.73***	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

In contrast, the regression of the nine background variables on heritage orientation revealed a large amount of variance accounted for, $R^2 = .78$, adjusted $R^2 = .77$, and a statistically significant overall F test ($p < .01$), indicating that these predictor variables explained 78 percent of the variance in the heritage orientation. The particular explanatory power of these predictor variables in this regression suggests that parents' birthplace ($\beta = .54$) and KLLs' language use history ($\beta = .40$) each significantly and independently predicted heritage motivation.

The relation between the nine personal variables and expectancy for learning motivation was statistically significant, $R^2 = .27$, adjusted $R^2 = .24$. Among the nine personal variables, class level ($\beta = -.32$) and self-assessed Korean proficiency ($\beta = .74$) were statistically significant predictors of expectancy for learning motivation. Of those significant predictors, class level manifested a negative regression weight, which indicates an inverse relation between class level (I through IV) and expectancy motivation.

Table 32
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Expectancy Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	-.05	-.58
Class level	-.32	-2.89**
Gender	-.03	-.44
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	.74	6.03***
Parents' L1	-.15	-.37
Parents' birthplace	-.14	-.35
KLL's language use history	.16	.93
Overall R^2	.27	
Overall *F* (7, 133 *df*)	7.19***	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

The linear combination of background variables was significantly related to self-efficacy for learning, $R^2 = .49$, adjusted $R^2 = .46$, and a statistically significant overall *F* test *(*$p < .01$). Self-efficacy for learning can be accounted for by the linear combination of personal variables. Self-assessed Korean proficiency ($\beta = .70$) and KLLs' language use history ($\beta = .29$) were significant predictors of self-efficacy for learning.

Table 33
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Self-efficacy Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	.00	.07
Class level	-.09	-.99
Gender	-.11	-1.75
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	.70	6.80***
Parents' L1	.35	1.07
Parents' birthplace	-.61	-1.84
KLL's language use history	.29	2.00*
Overall R^2	.49	
Overall *F* (7, 133 *df*)	18.00***	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

Table 34
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Anxiety Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	.00	-.02
Class level	.47	4.07***
Gender	.00	-.01
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	-.47	-3.67***
Parents' L1	.37	.89
Parents' birthplace	-.10	-.24
KLL's language use history	-.40	-2.23*
Overall R^2	.20	
Overall F (7, 133 *df*)	4.60***	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

The contribution of the nine personal variables to anxiety was found to be statistically significant, $R^2 = .20$, adjusted $R^2 = .15$ indicating that these predictor variables collectively explained 20 percent of the variance in anxiety. Significant independent predictors of anxiety were class level ($\beta = .47$), self-assessed Korean proficiency ($\beta = -.47$) and KLL's language use history ($\beta = -.40$). Among those significant predictors, class level predicted anxiety positively, whereas the other two variables were inversely related to anxiety. In other words, the relatively higher class level in which the learner was enrolled, the relatively greater anxiety he/she had. Those learners with relatively lower self-assessed Korean proficiency and with relatively more passive language use history likewise reported relatively greater anxiety.

Table 35
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Competitiveness Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	-.11	-1.27
Class level	-.01	-.07
Gender	-.15	-1.76
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	.40	3.07**
Parents' L1	.18	.43
Parents' birthplace	-.49	-1.18
KLL's language use history	.27	1.46
Overall R^2	.17	
Overall *F* (7, 133 *df*)	3.91**	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

The regression equation with all nine personal predictors exhibited statistical significance with respect to the competitive motivation, $R^2 = .17$, adjusted $R^2 = .13$, indicating that these predictor variables collectively explained 17 percent of the variance in competitive motivation. Among the nine predictors, the unique contribution of self-assessed Korean language proficiency ($\beta = .40$) was statistically significant and best predicted competitive motivation.

Table 36
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Cooperativeness Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	.08	.88
Class level	-.05	-.43
Gender	.01	.09
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	.43	3.30**
Parents' L1	-.43	-1.02
Parents' birthplace	.05	.12
KLL's language use history	.23	1.27
Overall R^2	17%	
Overall *F* (7, 133 *df*)	4.00**	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

The personal variables accounted for a statistically significant percentage of

the variance in cooperative motivation scores, $R^2 = .17$, adjusted $R^2 = .13$, indicating that these predictor variables explained 17 percent of the variance in cooperative motivation. The unique contribution of self-assessed Korean proficiency was found to be significant ($\beta = .43$).

Table 37
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Motivational Strength Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	-.03	-.30
Class level	-.34	-2.78*
Gender	.10	1.11
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	.32	2.34*
Parents' L1	.49	1.12
Parents' birthplace	-.70	-1.60
KLL's language use history	.11	.56
Overall R^2	.10	
Overall F (7, 133 *df*)	2.10*	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

The predictor variables accounted for a relatively small but statistically significant percentage of the variance in motivational strength scores, $R^2 = .10$, adjusted $R^2 = .05$, and a statistically significant overall F test ($p < .05$), indicating that these predictor variables explained 10 percent of the variance in motivational strength. The variables that significantly and independently predicted motivational strength motivation were class level ($\beta = -.34$) and self-assessed Korean proficiency ($\beta = .32$). The negative regression weight for class level and the positive regression weight for self-assessed Korean proficiency suggest that relatively higher class level to which these language learners had been assigned relatively lower self-assessed Korean proficiency were both associated with relatively lower motivational strength.

Table 38
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Attitude Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	-.02	-.23
Class level	-.02	-.21
Gender	-.03	-.39
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	.48	3.67***
Parents' L1	-.30	-.72
Parents' birthplace	.09	.23
KLL's language use history	.10	.55
Overall R^2	.17	
Overall *F* (7, 133 *df*)	4.01**	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

The regression equation with all nine personal predictors significantly predicted attitudes toward language learning and target culture motivation, $R^2 = .17$, adjusted $R^2 = .13$, indicating that these predictor variables explained 17 percent of the variance in attitudes toward language learning and target culture. The unique contribution of self-assessed Korean proficiency to predicting attitudes toward learning the language and its culture was statistically significant ($\beta = .48$).

Table 39
Multiple Regression Analysis of Nine Personal Variables against Identity Motivation

	β	*t*
Age	-.04	-.51
Class level	.12	1.28
Gender	-.10	-1.52
Learner's L1	–	–
Birthplace	–	–
Self-assessed Korean proficiency	.34	3.29**
Parents' L1	.08	.24
Parents' birthplace	.03	.08
KLL's language use history	.24	1.66
Overall R^2	.48	
Overall *F* (7, 133 *df*)	17.41***	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .005$; ***$p < .01$

The final regression equation employing personal and background variables to predict a dimension of motivation treated identity-related motivation as the criterion variable. This equation was statistically significant, $R^2 = .48$, adjusted $R^2 = .45$. The squared multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) was .48, indicating that nearly half the variation of identity-related motivation could be accounted for by the linear combination of personal variables. Self-assessed Korean proficiency independently predicted identity-related motivation ($\beta = .34$).

In sum, learners' background variables such as age, gender, learner's L1 and birthplace and parents' L1 and birthplace were all found irrelevant to each of the ten motivational dimensions, whereas variables such as class level, self-assessed Korean proficiency, and language use history significantly predicted learner motivation. However, the cluster of all the background variables collectively showed strong effects on all the motivational variables with the single exception of value motivation.

Qualitative Considerations of Motivation for Korean Language Learning

Having used the quantitative data (scale ratings) to identify learners' motivations for their learning in relation to their background, I now use these as a backdrop as I look at the qualitative data (diary entries) for further insights into their motivations for Korean language learning. In keeping a diary, learners who participated in conversation meetings documented anything they felt to be important to their current learning experiences with their conversation partners. In their diary entries, learners expressed their expectations, desires, and motivations for learning the language itself.

For heritage learners, learning Korean meant being able to speak a language that others—not only family members, but also people they would meet on a daily basis—expected them to speak. HL learners documented numerous occasions in

which others simply assumed that they spoke Korean. Such expectations were important reasons why these students found themselves learning Korean. They felt that they needed to have some fluency in their heritage language, based primarily on wanting to be able to communicate with family members and friends. The following excerpt clearly illustrated “heritage orientation”;

Diary Excerpt 1 (Yu’s fourth diary)

> I always noticed the different words that my dad uses to call his aunt and uncle and the words that my mom uses to call her aunt and uncle, but I never really knew the correct terms. It’s going to be helpful when I talk to my family members (to know who I’m speaking to)!

In Diary Excerpt 1, the learner seemed happy to learn Korean words for family members, because she wanted to be able to speak to her family members by addressing them with correct terms. As a HL learner, she came to this learning experience already aware of how important it was for her to speak to other Koreans properly in terms of age, social status, etc. She had just not yet acquired the needed skills.

As the following diary excerpt reveals, HL learners sometimes felt pressure from peers and family members about their proficiency in Korean. That pressure was often a potent motivation for learning the language, but too much pressure could bring those heritage learners some side effects or negative feelings toward learning. As an instance of “anxiety motivation”,

Diary Excerpt 2 (Yu's first diary)

> When I'm speaking Korean to my friends or family, I kind of make up my own grammar and "Konglish" words. The people closest to me are used to this so when I make up things, they understand what I'm trying to say. Therefore, I continue to do it. When I'm speaking to other Korean people, however, I become ultra-aware of how little I actually know how to say. For example, when I'm trying to tell H (her conversation partner) something, it takes me forever because I don't know the correct way to say it. ……. it's kind of embarrassing for me, a 19-year-old Korean girl, to not know how to speak Korean. I know it's a learning process and this is what's supposed to happen when one is learning a language, bur regardless, it's still embarrassing.

In the same vein, the following excerpt reveals "anxiety motivation":

Diary Excerpt 3 (Hyung's fourth diary)

> I usually felt uncomfortable speaking Korean in a group of people, especially if they were fluent…

Learning Korean also allowed HL learners a pathway into their heritage culture. While having lived outside the region and its culture, geographically and socially, they felt a need for some cultural and linguistic experiences or expertise that would help connect them more closely to their national/ethnic identity. In the following excerpt, the learner reflected her ethnic identity as a Korean physically as well as emotionally, representing the motivational dimension of "ethnic/cultural identity":

Diary Excerpt 4 (Yu's third diary)

> Then H (conversation partner) taught me the Korean national anthem, which I enjoyed a lot. Even though I haven't really heard the anthem before, I didn't understand a lot of the vocabulary in the song, and I'm probably more American than I am Korean, hearing the anthem filled me with such Korean nationalism. H said something about how hearing the anthem during the Olympics is very glorifying and emotional, and I understood because hearing and singing the song kind of made me feel the same way. A lot of my friends jokingly tell me that I am "whiter" than they are, but if my white friends heard the Korean anthem, they wouldn't feel the same about it if it was the Star Spangled Banner. So I guess even though I behave as a "white" person would, I realized that I most definitely identify myself as a Korean in America. This isn't just because of my physical appearance but my emotional state as well.

Diary Excerpt 5 (Yu's fourth diary)

> Last week, we watched a Korean movie ("Ditto"). I enjoyed it a lot – not just because of the plot, script or acting but because it made me a little more aware of Korean pop culture.

HL learners usually felt the needs to gain or maintain their heritage membership, "heritage orientation", as they entered a college,. As seen in Diary Excerpt 8 above, by sharing popular cultural aspects of the heritage society with other members such as music, movies, songs, fashion, technology, and so on, heritage learners at the college level felt strong needs for learning its language to enhance their enjoyment. One heritage learner even said that he felt excluded when he realized that his knowledge of Korea and its culture was marginal, compared to other Korean-Americans. What motivated this population of learners to learn their HL is a result of their cultural understanding and enhancement and their culturally-based choice of action. They showed "attitudes toward Korean culture and language" while learning their HL.

The moderate-HL learners in the following excerpt seemed to take advantage of their conversation partners primarily as tutors to supplement class work. This illustrates “value motivation”, specifically “instrumental orientation”, and “self efficacy”.

Diary Excerpt 6 (Clay’s third diary)

> I and my teacher have noticed a dramatic improvement. My Korean verbal skills are very good, but my speed of speech is coming along. I seem to pronounce new vocabulary with greater accuracy, this is directly related to my time spent learning with her. She allows me to ask questions and is able to answer them. I know from my recent midterm performance that I am improving. The time spent working together is very valuable.

The moderate-HL learners seemed very comfortable with their conversation partners in asking questions, and their partners’ explanations seemed very helpful. The learner and his teacher in Diary Excerpt 6 noticed the significantly improved his Korean through conversations with his conversation partner. He mentioned in his fourth diary entry, “I sound a little more Korean everyday and a little less foreign.”

In addition to seeing the value of improving their proficiency in Korean through learning Korean with a native-speaking conversation partner outside the classroom as well as in the classroom, non-HL language learners revealed the importance of their direct contacts with native speakers for their experiences. For example, one non-HL learner expressed how much he appreciated the target culture through the conversations with his native-speaking conversation partner in his two consecutive diary entries:

Diary Excerpt 7 (Mat's first diary)

> Practicing Korean with Ana made me feel very benefited by "outside of class" language practice. You can learn any 'mechanics' in a classroom, but as usual the real knowledge is gained through practical experience.

Diary Excerpt 8 (Mike's second diary)

> I learned some really cool cultural information from Sun. It seems Koreans enjoy a strong cultural identity.

In Diary Excerpts 7 and 8, two non-HL learners found learning Korean and especially Korean culture difficult and very enjoyable. Like HL learners, they also revealed some "attitudes toward the target language and its culture".

Diary Excerpt 9 (Mel's first diary)

> Korean titles of respect are also hard to understand from an American viewpoint, and I don't fully understand titles in every scenario.

Diary Excerpt 10 (Mike's second diary)

> Another thing I like to find out is when I come upon synonyms for a word or phrase that I previously learned I always ask which one is used more or which one is more polite in order to try to distinguish a difference between the two.

In Diary Excerpts 9 and 10, the learners encountered one cultural aspect of the Korean language in conversation, politeness. Like the writer of the Diary Excerpt 10 said, although it would be hard for Westerners to understand, the concept of politeness is one of the keys to understanding the Korean culture and people. They as

a learner of Korean realized that without having enough linguistic knowledge of politeness, it is not easy to maintain social relationship as well as communication in Korean.

Learners experience cultural diversity through language learning. The cultural experience may enhance their motivation for learning the language. The following excerpt illustrates another example of "attitudes toward the language and its culture".

Diary Excerpt 11 (Mel's second diary)

> Today we worked on the word chain activity. I learned a lot of new words. My CP told me this was sort of like a game in Korea, so it was fun to see the kinds of ways Korean people have fun.

By noticing the differences between the target language and their first language, learners broaden their visions of the language and much more. For example:

Diary Excerpt 12 (Mel's second diary)

> In English, most of the time the letters are all the same size, and so I have had to learn to rethink how I write Korean characters. They are different sizes depending on the syllable

Similarly to the pressure that HL learners usually had about learning Korean but to some different extent, non-HL learners also felt anxieties, as reported in the following excerpt:

Diary Excerpt 13 (Mat's first diary)

> Often, in class, I would feel slightly uncomfortable asking 'basic' questions, since many of the other students were much more advanced.

In his diary entry, as seen in Diary Excerpt 13, the non-HL learner's concern about competing with the other advanced learners in the same class revealed that he felt burdened about being placed in the same class with those learners who were considered more advanced, mostly HL learners. He showed "competitiveness motivation" and "anxiety motivation".

Conversational Data Analysis: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

In this section, descriptive quantitative analysis of the conversational data collected from the 16 Korean language learners is examined. In the subsections that follow, in-depth interpretations of selected conversations and diary data are provided as an attempt to explicate a number of conversational characteristics.

Descriptive Statistics of the Conversation Variables

Five conversational features were utilized as the dependent variable in this portion of the study: (1) total number of words uttered by the learner, (2) number of conversational turns taken by the learner, (3) number of words in Korean produced by the learner, (4) Korean code-switching initiatives (proportion = number of turns that switch code from English to Korean /number of English words) taken by the learner, and (5) English code-switching initiative (proportion = number of turns that switch code from Korean to English/number of Korean words) taken by the learner. Table 40 measures of central tendency and dispersion for five dependent variables across all of the independent variables.

Table 40
Descriptive Statistics of the Dependent Variables

Variables	*N*	*Min*	*Max*	*M*	*SD*
Total words (#)	16	115.58	299.08	195.51	56.88
Korean words (#)	16	22.50	288.00	91.84	70.34
Turns (#)	16	31.08	69.42	51.29	10.13
Korean Code-switching initiative (%)	16	2.74	49.21	15.25	13.71
English Code-switching initiative (%)	16	1.96	19.42	8.92	5.48

Sixteen Korean learners provided audio recordings of conversation partner interactions. Each of these contributed recordings of four different conversations. Five-minute discourse segments were sampled from the beginning, middle, and end of each of the 64 resulting conversations. A total of 192 segments of discourse were thus obtained. Values of each of the five dependent variables were tabulated for each of these discourse segments. Table 41, below summarizes the five dependent variables for each of the combinations of segment (beginning, middle, end) and for each order of conversation meeting in the class sequence (first, second, third, fourth). Appendix G displays the same segmented data, broken out also by gender of partner. Appendix H displays the same segmented data, broken out also by whether learners had a prior acquaintance with the conversation partner. Appendix I displays the same segmented data, broken out also by learner Korean language heritage status.

Table 41
Means and Standard Deviations (shown in parentheses) of Five Dependent Variables by Meeting Number and Discourse Segment

Meeting No.	Discourse segment	Total words	Korean words	Total turns	Korean code-switching initiative	English code-switching initiative
1	beginning	219.19(87.68)	106.44(91.47)	49.69(15.25)	16.23(20.55)	9.65(9.50)
	middle	183.19(59.31)	80.31(81.11)	47.69(8.04)	20.64(27.39)	9.61(7.38)
	end	195.69(75.25)	95.13(91.78)	52.56(15.69)	16.79(24.29)	7.64(8.16)
2	beginning	199.50(51.99)	93.50(63.43)	55.19(13.40)	15.72(19.63)	9.41(7.17)
	middle	208.56(85.98)	92.25(78.39)	52.63(14.83)	15.03(18.77)	12.00(12.63)
	end	213.56(74.70)	78.81(65.86)	53.50(11.24)	9.88(10.20)	11.35(11.39)
3	beginning	190.63(68.33)	84.31(59.47)	52.88(12.80)	16.29(20.10)	9.13(7.79)
	middle	196.88(82.70)	98.88(84.24)	50.88(14.10)	16.23(17.09)	8.00(9.51)
	end	196.31(87.62)	94.63(83.76)	53.13(14.57)	18.71(26.00)	9.91(12.10)
4	beginning	184.25(62.44)	87.88(64.73)	48.38(14.14)	17.92(16.56)	9.24(6.71)
	middle	160.50(61.69)	78.75(57.89)	46.94(14.55)	18.77(19.07)	8.44(5.91)
	end	197.81(88.58)	111.25(104.63)	52.06(13.91)	23.38(25.11)	10.53(11.77)

Finding three: Relations between Conversation Variables and Personal/Interpersonal/Meeting Variables

A series of three three-way repeated measures ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the effects of personal variables (heritage status), interpersonal variables (prior acquaintance with CP and gender of CP) and meeting variables (meeting sequence and discourse segment) on conversational variables. The dependent variables for each of the ANOVAs included total number of learners' words, Korean words, conversational turns, Korean code-switching initiatives and English code-switching initiatives. The between-subjects factors were (1) gender of partner at two levels (male- or female-partner), (2) relationship with partner at two levels (previously acquainted or previously unacquainted), and (3) heritage status of learner at two levels (heritage- or non-heritage; note for this series of analyses, where n = 16, two moderate-HLs were combined with high-HLs). Separate ANOVAs were conducted for each of these between-subjects factors; the data did not permit any examination of their interactions.

Gender of Partner

Univariate mixed factorial 2 x 4 x 3 ANOVAs were conducted for each of the five conversational variables: total numbers of words, Korean words, conversational turns, and Korean code-switching initiative and English code-switching initiative. Participants were nested in the independent variable, gender of partner, at two levels: male-partner (n = 9) and female-partner (n = 7). In addition, participants were crossed with the repeated measures meeting order (1^{st}, 2^{nd}, 3^{rd}, 4^{th}) and segment sequence (beginning, middle, end). The main effects of the within-subjects factors and interaction effects were tested using the multivariate criterion of Wilks's lambda (Λ).

The means and standard deviations for each of five conversational variables of the factor are presented in Appendix J.

Gender of partner and total number of learner words in conversations. The results of a three-way mixed ANOVA conducted for total number of words showed no main effect of gender of partner, $F(1,14) = .053$, $p = .822$, partial $\eta^2 = .055$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .71$, $F(3, 42) = 1.67$, $p = .19$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .69$, $F(2, 28) = 1.76$, $p = .19$, were likewise nonsignificant. The interaction effects of sequence x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .85$, $F(3, 42) = .67$, $p = .57$, segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .70$, $F(2, 28) = 1.45$, $p = .25$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .59$, $F(6, 84) = 1.22$, $p = .31$, and sequence x segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .65$, $F(6, 84) = .86$, $p = .53$, were all not significant.

Gender of partner and total number of learner Korean words in conversations. The results of a three-way mixed ANOVA conducted for total number of Korean words showed no main effect of gender of partner, $F(1,14) = .815$, $p = .382$, partial $\eta^2 = .055$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .97$, $F(3, 42) = .19$, $p = .90$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .70$, $F(2, 28) = 1.496$, $p = .24$, were also nonsignificant. The interaction effects of sequence x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .79$, $F(3, 42) = .81$, $p = .50$, segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .89$, $F(2, 28) = 1.26$, $p = .30$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .59$, $F(6, 84) = 1.99$, $p = .08$, and sequence x segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .54$, $F(6, 84) = .12$, $p = .99$, were all not significant.

Gender of partner and total number of learner turns. The results of a three-way mixed ANOVA conducted for total number of learner turns showed a main effect of gender of partner, $F(1,14) = 5.39$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .28$. Examination of the cell means showed that females (M = 57.16) exceeded males (M = 46.73) in their turn-

taking. However, there were no main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .67$, $F(3, 42) = 1.55$, $p = .22$ nor of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .50$, $F(2, 28) = 2.08$, $p = .14$. The interaction effects of sequence x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .84$, $F(3, 42) = .82$, $p = .49$, segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .88$, $F(2, 28) = .35$, $p = .71$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .53$, $F(6, 84) = .36$, $p = .90$, and sequence x segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .76$, $F(6, 84) = .39$, $p = .89$, were similarly not significant.

Gender of partner and learner Korean code-switching initiatives. The results of a three-way mixed ANOVA conducted for Korean code-switching initiative undertaken by the KLL showed no main effect of gender of partner, $F(1,14) = 1.81$, $p = .20$, partial $\eta^2 = .11$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .62$, $F(3, 42) = 1.54$, $p = .21$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .97$, $F(2, 28) = .09$, $p = .91$, were likewise nonsignificant. The interaction effects of sequence x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .79$, $F(3, 42) = .54$, $p = .65$, segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = 1.00$, $F(2, 28) = .04$, $p = .96$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .73$, $F(6, 84) = .53$, $p = .79$ and sequence x segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .74$, $F(6, 84) = .30$, $p = .94$, were all not significant.

Gender of partner and learner English code switching initiatives. The results of a three-way mixed ANOVA conducted for KLLs'English code-switching initiatives showed no main effect of gender of partner, $F(1,14) = .24$, $p = .63$, partial $\eta^2 = .017$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .89$, $F(3, 42) = .68$, $p = .57$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .99$, $F(2, 28) = .02$, $p = .99$, were also nonsignificant. The interaction effects of sequence x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .72$, $F(3, 42) = .74$, $p = .54$, segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .90$, $F(2, 28) = 1.43$, $p = .26$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .75$, $F(6, 84) = .60$, $p = .73$, and sequence x segment x partner gender, Wilks's $\Lambda = .69$, $F(6, 84) = .67$, $p = .67$, were all not significant.

Prior Relationship with Conversation Partner

Univariate mixed factorial 2 x 4 x 3 ANOVAs were conducted for each of the five conversational variables: total numbers of words, Korean words, conversational turns, Korean code-switching initiative and English code-switching initiative. Participants were nested in the independent variable, prior relationship with conversation partner at two levels: prior acquaintance (n = 5) or prior non-acquaintance (n = 11). In addition, participants were crossed with the repeated measures, meeting order (1^{st}, 2^{nd}, 3^{rd}, 4^{th}) and segment sequence (beginning, middle, end). The means and standard deviations for each of five conversational variables broken down by prior relationship status are presented in Appendix K.

Prior relationship status and total number of learner words in conversations. The ANOVA results conducted for total number of learner words across the scope of relationship between partners revealed no main effect of relationship of partners, $F(1, 14) = 1.08$, $p = .32$, partial $\eta^2 = .07$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .72$, $F(3, 42) = 1.28$, $p = .29$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .82$, $F(2, 28) = 1.09$, $p = .35$, were nonsignificant. The interaction effect of sequence x partners' relationship was significant, Wilks's $\Lambda = .43$, $F(3, 42) = 4.42$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .24$. The eight cell means appear in Table 42.

Table 42
Cell Means of Total Number of Learner Words by Sequence X Partners' Relationship

Partners' relationship	Sequence of meeting	Total learner words
Acquainted	First	245.13
	Second	202.20
	Third	204.27
	Fourth	217.73
Unacquainted	First	178.55
	Second	209.49
	Third	190.24
	Fourth	164.09

However, a Bonferroni post hoc test performed to follow up the significant interaction of sequence x partners relationship for total number of words revealed no significant pair-wise comparisons for the simple effects examined within the interaction.

It is possible that the deviation in cell size (more than twice as many acquainted as unacquainted) accounts for this statistical aberration.

The interaction effects of segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .99$, $F(2, 28) = .04$, $p = .96$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .44$, $F(6, 84) = 2.19$, $p = .052$ and sequence x segment x speakers relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .45$, $F(6, 84) = 2.08$, $p = .06$, were all nonsignificant for this dependent variable.

Prior relationship status and total number of learner Korean words in conversations. The ANOVA results for total number of Korean words indicated a significant main effect of relationship between partners, $F(1, 14) = 19.99$, $p < .001$. The strength of this effect, as assessed by partial η^2 , was strong, with the relationship factor accounting for 59 % of the variance of the dependent variable. Inspection of cell means indicated that learners who were previously acquainted with their partners produced more Korean words (M = 169.32) than this learners who were previously unacquainted (M = 56.63). The results also indicated significant main effect of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .82$, $F(2, 28) = 3.41$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .20$, but no significant main effect of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .75$, $F(3, 42) = .92$, $p = .44$. The interaction effects of sequence x speakers relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .59$, $F(3, 42) = 2.85$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .17$, segment x speakers relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .52$, $F(2, 28) = 6.44$, $p = .005$, partial $\eta^2 = .32$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .35$, $F(6, 84) = 4.22$, $p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .23$ and sequence x segment x speakers relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .44$, $F(6, 84) = 2.97$, $p = .011$, partial $\eta^2 = .18$ were all significant.

The Bonferoni tests revealed three statistically significant simple effects. That is, learners who previously knew their CPs produced more Korean words at each segment (beginning, mid, end) than learners who had no previous acquaintance with their CPs. Figure 4 displays interactions as well as the six cell means of learner Korean words.

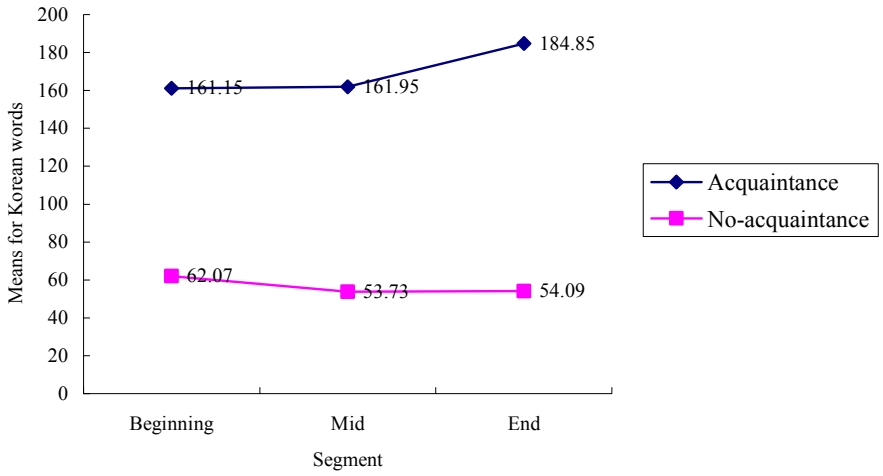

Figure 4.
Interactions of Segment and Prior Relationship and Cell Means of Total Number of Learner Korean Words

A Bonferroni post hoc test performed to determine which specific comparisons of the significant interaction of sequence x segment x speakers relationship differed total number of Korean words revealed that among those who had prior interpersonal relationships with their CPs there were significantly different mean differences between first and third meetings at the beginning of the meeting, between second and fourth meetings at the end of the meeting, and between third and fourth meetings at the end of the meeting. Also, there were significantly different mean differences between beginning and middle of the meeting at the third meeting,

between beginning and end of the meeting at the fourth meeting, and between middle and end of the meeting at the fourth meeting. Among those who had no prior relationship with their CPs, there was no significantly different mean difference between four meetings at each segment. However, differences in means of number of Korean words between prior relationship and no prior relationship with CPs were significantly different at each meeting sequence at each segment. Figures 5-8 depict interactions of segment of each meeting (beginning, mid, end) and prior relationship of learners with their CPs (acquaintance vs. non-acquaintance) by sequence of meeting (first, second, third, fourth) and cell means of Korean words for each.

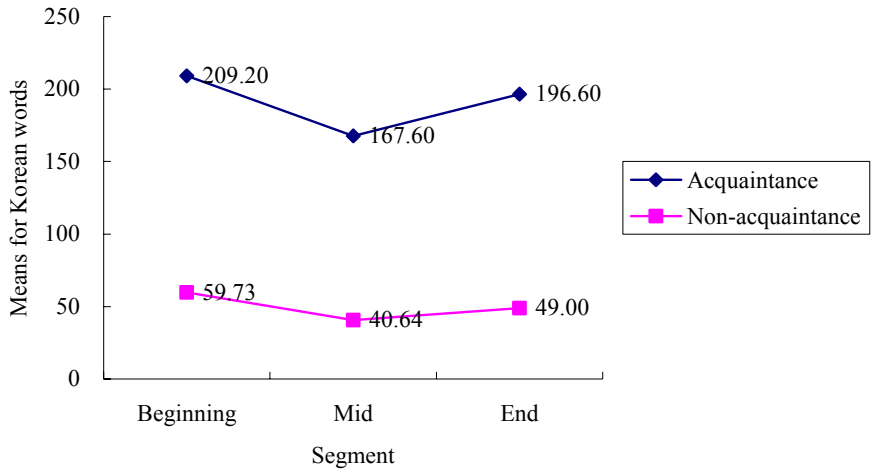

Figure 5.
Interactions of Segment and Prior Relationship at First Meeting and Cell Means of Total Number of Learner Korean Words

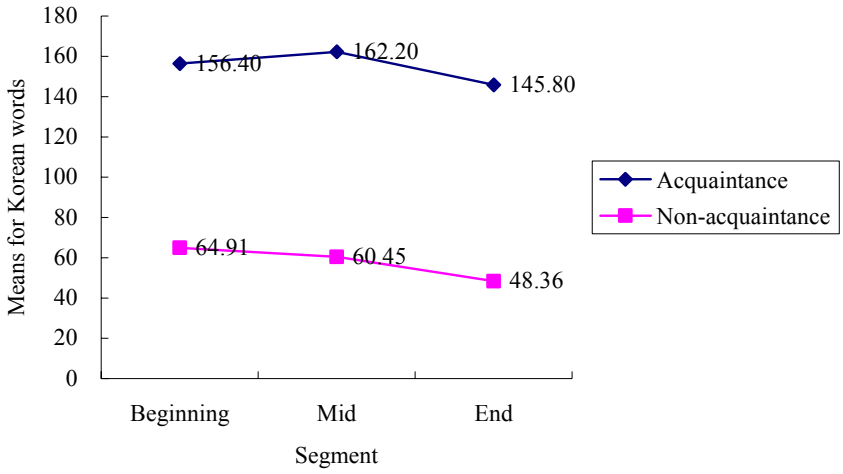

Figure 6.
Interactions of Segment and Prior Relationship at Second Meeting and Cell Means of Total Number of Learner Korean Words

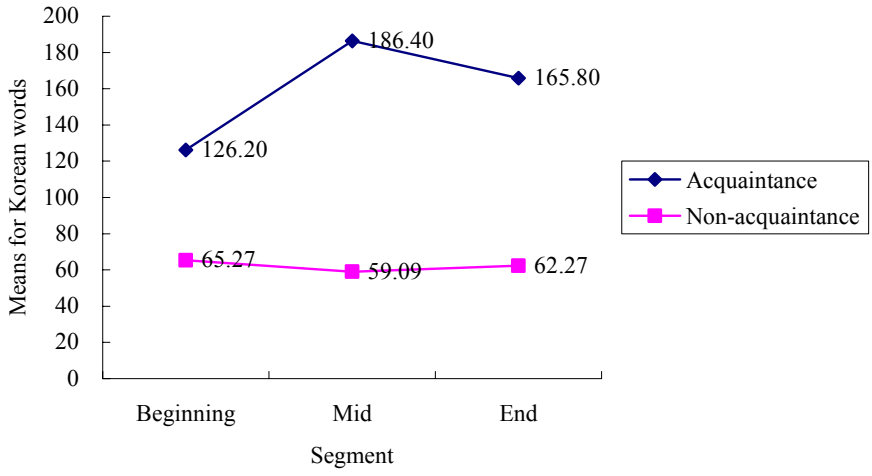

Figure 7.
Interactions of Segment and Prior Relationship at Third Meeting and Cell Means of Total Number of Learner Korean Words

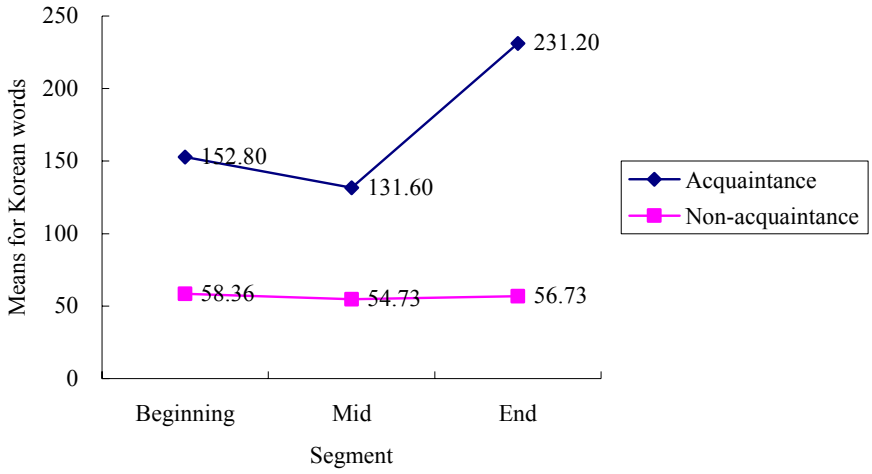

Figure 8.
Interactions of Segment and Prior Relationship at Fourth Meeting and Cell Means of Total Number of Learner Korean Words

Prior relationship status and total number of learner turns in conversations. The ANOVA results conducted for total number of turns across the scope of relationship of partners revealed no main effect of relationship of partners, $F(1, 15) = 1.46$, $p = .25$, partial $\eta^2 = .10$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .67$, $F(3, 42) = 1.61$, $p = .20$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .60$, $F(2, 28) = 1.92$, $p = .17$, were nonsignificant. The interaction effects of sequence x speakers relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .98$, $F(3, 42) = .09$, $p = .97$, segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .92$, $F(2, 28) = .95$, $p = .40$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .50$, $F(6, 84) = .41$, $p = .87$ and sequence x segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .71$, $F(6, 84) = .50$, $p = .81$, were not significant.

Prior relationship status and learner Korean code switching initiatives. The ANOVA results for Korean code-switching initiative indicated the significant main effect of relationship of partners, $F(1, 15) = 18.17$, $p = .001$. The strength of the main effect of this factor on Korean code-switching initiatives produced by the learner, as

assessed by partial η^2, was strong, with the relationship factor accounting for 57% of the variance of the dependent variable. Inspection of cell means indicated that KLLs who knew their partners before the class began (M = 29.69) exceeded those who had been previously unacquainted with their CPs (M = 8.68) in switching discourse from English into Korean. The results also indicated a significant main effect of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .54$, $F(3, 42) = 3.40$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .20$, but no significant main effect of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .92$, $F(2, 28) = .50$, $p = .61$. The interaction effect of sequence x partners' relationship was significant, Wilks's $\Lambda = .69$, $F(3, 42) = 3.09$, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .18$, but the interaction effects of segment x speakers relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .85$, $F(2, 28) = 1.55$, $p = .23$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .29$, $F(6, 84) = 1.38$, $p = .23$ and sequence x segment x speakers relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .28$, $F(6, 84) = 1.59$, $p = .16$, were not significant.

Bonferroni post hoc tests were performed to determine which specific "simple effects" pair-wise contrasts within the sequence x partners' relationship interaction were statistically significant. The Bonferoni tests revealed only two statistically significant simple effects: (1) learners who previously knew their CPs engaged in more Korean code-switching at their first meeting than at their last (fourth) meeting, whereas (2) learners who had no previous acquaintance with their CPs engaged in more Korean code switching in their last meeting than in their first. Figure 9 displays interactions as well as the eight cell means of Korean code-switching initiative.

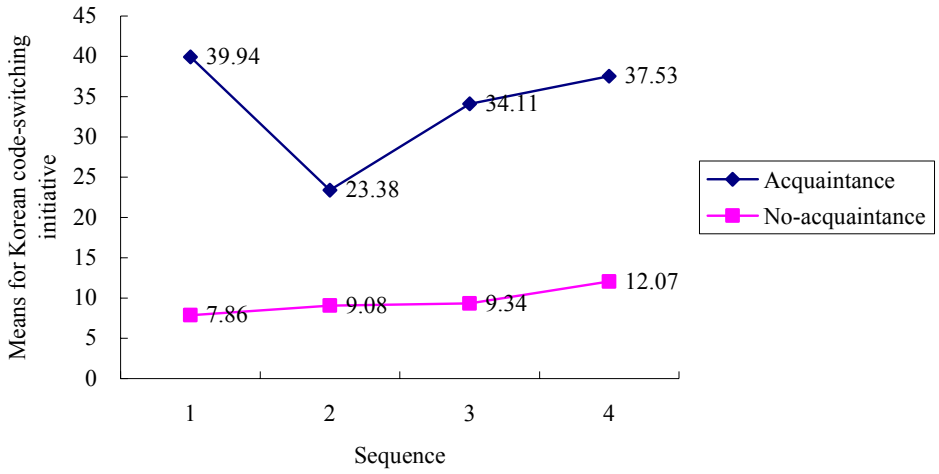

Figure 9.
Interactions of Sequence and Prior Relationship and Cell Means of Korean Code-Switching Initiative

The interaction effects of segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .85$, $F(2, 28) = 1.55$, $p = .23$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .29$, $F(6, 84) = 1.38$, $p = .23$ and sequence x segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .28$, $F(6, 84) = 1.59$, $p = .16$, on Korean code-switching were not statistically significant

Prior relational status and learner English code-switching initiatives. The ANOVA results for the effect of prior partner relationship on English code-switching initiatives revealed no main effect of relationship of partners, $F(1, 15) = 3.94$, $p = .07$, partial $\eta^2 = .22$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .94$, $F(3, 42) = .38$, $p = .77$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = 1.00$, $F(2, 28) = .03$, $p = .98$, were nonsignificant. The interaction effects of sequence x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .90$, $F(3, 42) = .31$, $p = .82$, segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .94$, $F(2, 28) = .69$, $p = .51$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .83$, $F(6, 84) = .48$, $p = .83$ and sequence x segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .65$, $F(6, 84) = .54$, $p = .78$, were all not significant.

Qualitative evidence of impact of prior relational status. Providing complementary evidence of the effects of the relationship of partners factor on conversational variables, the following excerpts (Diary Excerpts 14-17) from diary entries give a clear idea of how conversations of acquainted pair and of unacquainted pair proceeded.

Diary Excerpt 14 (Hyung's first diary)

> I felt comfortable around [CP] because I already know her. Usually, I feel uncomfortable speaking Korean about-with- people I don't know. My voice is usually higher in Korean when I speak.

Diary Excerpt 15 (Ha's fourth diary)

> I felt comfortable talking to him, even though my skills didn't match up to his. That's probably because I feel comfortable around him in general, and he isn't a total stranger to me.

Diary Excerpt 16 (Mat's first diary)

> Since I knew my conversation partner before this class, there was no awkwardness or hesitance in our meetings, and I could freely discuss anything I needed to.

Diary Excerpt 17 (Tim's first diary)

> It is also hard for me to talk to a person I've never met before, especially when we don't have much in common.

Even for HL learners, heritage language status was not always enough to create solidarity between HL learners and their Korean conversation partners when no prior relationship was in place. The HL learner in Diary Excerpt 18, for example,

expressed her frustration about the gap in backgrounds between her and her conversation partner:

Diary Excerpt 18 (Doo's first diary)

> It was kind of hard to make friends because we are so different from each other. I think it would be easier to find things to say if the CP was more my age. Also, I would be using words that are more common to me.

In this diary, the heritage learner revealed how she felt about conversing with a non-acquainted partner. Moreover, it appeared that her Korean word usage was affected by the relationship of partners.

In some cases, however, KLL's seemed to ignore their specific prior relationships with their CPs. Instead, they adopted a very Korean-like style befitting the status difference between a student and a teacher. One example of surprising separation of prior relationship from the learning interactions was found in Discourse Excerpt 2. In this case, the male learner and female CP were romantically involved in relationship that began well before the class.

Discourse Excerpt 2 (Mat's beginning segment of the third meeting)

1. M: 안녕하세요?
   hello
   'Hello'
2. A: 안녕하세요, 매트 씨?
   hello Mr. Mat
   'Hello, Mr. Mat'
3. T: Okay, ah,
4. A: 오늘은 이십 과를 공부해 볼까요?
   today twenty lesson study try
   'Today, shall we try to study Lesson twenty?'
5. M: 네. Ah, okay. I'll read it…..
   yes
   'Yes'

In Discourse Excerpt 2, the native-speaking conversation partner (Ana) started her conversation by asking if the learner (Mat) was ready to study a unit of his textbook, then Mat started reading the textbook in a slow speech rate. Because Mat perceived his role in the conversation as a language tutee rather than as a boyfriend of his conversation partner, his manner of speech in Korean was kept polite, for example his greeting (*안녕하세요*, 'hello') in turn 1 and his response to Ana's question (*네* 'yes') in turn 5. This level of politeness and rigidity in the instructional conversations was odd, because this KLL and his conversation partner were already close acquaintances outside of this class.

Heritage Status of Learner

Univariate mixed factorial 2 x 4 x 3 ANOVAs were conducted for each of the five conversational variables: total numbers of words, Korean words, conversational turns, Korean code-switching initiatives and English code-switching initiatives. For this third series of ANOVAs, participants were nested in the independent variable, Korean heritage language status of the learner at two levels: heritage (n = 8) and non-heritage (n = 8). In addition, participants were crossed with the repeated measures, meeting order (1^{st}, 2^{nd}, 3^{rd}, 4^{th}) and segment sequence (beginning, middle, end).

Heritage status and total number of learner words in conversations. A three-way ANOVA conducted to examine main and interaction effects on total number of words across heritage status of learner revealed no main effect of heritage status, $F(1,14) = .70$, $p = .42$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .72$, $F(3, 42) = 1.74$, $p = .17$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .78$, $F(2, 28) = 1.37$, $p = .27$, were nonsignificant. The interaction effects of sequence x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .86$, $F(3, 42) = .96$, $p = .42$, segment x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .99$, $F(2, 28) = .07$, $p = .94$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .58$, $F(6, 84) = 1.22$, $p = .30$ and sequence x

segment x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .90$, $F(6, 84) = .45$, $p = .84$, were likewise not significant for this dependent variable.

Heritage status and total number of learners' Korean words. The ANOVA results for total number of Korean words indicated a significant main effect of heritage status of learner, $F(1,14) = 8.76$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .39$. Inspection of cell means demonstrated that heritage KLLs (M = 134.09) exceeded non-heritage KLLs (M = 49.59) in production of Korean. The results also indicated no significant main effects of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .97$, $F(2, 28) = .17$, $p = .92$, and of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .72$, $F(3, 42) = 1.22$, $p = .31$. The interaction effects of sequence x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .85$, $F(3, 42) = 1.07$, $p = .37$, segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .83$, $F(2, 28) = .92$, $p = .41$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .65$, $F(6, 84) = 2.05$, $p = .07$ and sequence x segment x partners' relationship, Wilks's $\Lambda = .49$, $F(6, 84) = .39$, $p = .89$, were all not significant for this dependent variable.

Heritage language status and learners' total turns. The ANOVA results conducted for total number of turns indicated that the heritage status of learner exerted no main effect, $F(1,14) = .58$, $p = .46$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. The main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .66$, $F(3, 42) = 1.82$, $p = .16$ and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .52$, $F(2, 28) = 2.00$, $p = .15$, were nonsignificant. The interaction effects of sequence x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .70$, $F(3, 42) = 1.38$, $p = .26$, segment x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .88$, $F(2, 28) = .66$, $p = .53$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .36$, $F(6, 84) = .36$, $p = .90$ and sequence x segment x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .30$, $F(6, 84) = 1.26$, $p = .29$, were likewise not significant for this dependent variable.

Heritage language status and learners' Korean code-switching. The ANOVA results for Korean code-switching initiative indicated a significant main effect of

heritage status of learner on Korean code-switching initiatives, $F(1,14) = 8.98$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = 39$. Inspection of cell means indicated that heritage KLLs (M = 23.81) exceeded nonheritage KLLs (M = 6.68) in switching from English into Korean discourse. However, the results also indicated no significant main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .63$, $F(2, 28) = 1.64$, $p = .19$, and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .97$, $F(3, 42) = .08$, $p = .92$. The interaction effects of sequence x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .89$, $F(3, 42) = .48$, $p = .70$, segment x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .98$, $F(2, 28) = .22$, $p = .81$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .67$, $F(6, 84) = .58$, $p = .74$ and sequence x segment x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .78$, $F(6, 84) = .32$, $p = .92$, were all not significant for this dependent variable.

Heritage language status and learners' English code-switching initiatives.

The ANOVA results conducted for English code-switching initiatives revealed a main effect of heritage status, $F(1,14) = 15.25$, $p = .002$. The strength of this between-subjects main effect on English code-switching initiatives produced by learners, as assessed by partial η^2 , was strong, with the heritage status factor accounting for 52 of the variance of the dependent variable. Inspection of cell means indicated that nonheritage KLLs (M = 12.80) exceeded heritage KLLs (M = 5.04) in switching from English to Korean discourse. The results also revealed no significant main effects of sequence, Wilks's $\Lambda = .85$, $F(2, 28) = .76$, $p = .52$, and of segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .99$, $F(3, 42) = .04$, $p = .96$. The interaction effects of sequence x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .78$, $F(3, 42) = 1.48$, $p = .23$, segment x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .94$, $F(2, 28) = .17$, $p = .85$, sequence x segment, Wilks's $\Lambda = .71$, $F(6, 84) = .65$, $p = .69$ and sequence x segment x heritage status, Wilks's $\Lambda = .66$, $F(6, 84) = 81$, $p = .57$, were all not significant for this dependent variable.

Qualitative evidence regarding impact of heritage language status on learner discourse. Examination of both diary data and discourse transcripts suggest that HL learners conversed with their native-speaking CPs more freely—that is, with fewer limits on topic and fluency—than their counterpart non-HL learners. The conversation topics they evolved as they conversed were wide ranging, as evidenced in the following diary entry:

Diary Excerpt 19 (Ha's first diary)

> We talked about different topics ranging from relationships to high school.

In general, even those HL learners who were provided guidelines for the conversation meeting by their teacher tended to extend the topics of their conversations well beyond those topics prescribed by the guidelines. Although they began the conversations in conformance with the guidelines, they often found some other topics that interested both interactants as they conversed. In this way, their conversation topics became more diversified than those of non-HL learners. The following excerpt exemplifies verbosity of the conversation between a HL and her CP.

Discourse Excerpt 3 (Yu's beginning segment of the third meeting)

23. H: 노래 같은 거, 노래 좋아해요?
    song like thing song like
    'Do you like songs?'
24. Y: 좋아해요.
    like
    'I like them'

25. H: 혹시 한국 노래 같은 거 들어요? 아는 거 있어요?
by chance Korean song like that listen to know thing have
'Do you by any chance listen to Korean songs? Do you know any of them?'
26. Y: 안 들어요.
not listen to
'I don't listen to'
27. H: 네, 한국 노래 안 들어요.
yes Korean song not listen to
'I see, you don't listen to Korean songs'
28. Y: 못 알아 들어요.
cannot understand
'I can't understand'
29. H: 못 알아 들어요.
cannot understand
'I can't understand'
30. Y: 예.
yes
'Yes'
31. H: 뭐 이렇게 음악, 이런 음, 이런 것들 뭐,
thing like this music this mu(sic)[5]*, this things any thing*
'Like this, music, this kind of mu(sic), like this'
32. Y: Sometimes 나 친구들 이렇게 틀리면, I mean, 틀으면 나 듣는데 근데
sometimes I friends like this turn on I mean turn on I listen to but
혼자서 안 틀어요
alone not turn on
'Sometimes when my friends turn on the music I listen to it but don't turn on myself'
33. H: 어. 친구들이랑 같이 들을 때는 있는데 혼자서는 안 듣는다구요.
oh with friends together listen to when have alone not listen to
'I see. You sometimes listen to with your friends but don't by yourself'
34. Y: 네.
yes
'Yes'

In this excerpt, the heritage learner (Yu) was expected to practice during the conversation meeting children's songs that she had learned in class, but the song practicing task was completed within the first couple minutes, because she already knew the song. (The song was one of the popular children's songs in Korea.) Therefore Yu and her CP extended the topic of their conversation well beyond those

[5] This is signaling that only the first syllable was produced in the Korean words for 'music.'

tasks prescribed by the guideline and talked about wide-ranging topics, including their favorite music and singers, the Korean anthem, etc. By contrast, one non-HL learner who had been provided with the same guideline took the first two five-minute segments of the conversation meeting to practice one children's song, because he did not know the song until he was introduced to it in class. He tried to learn the song line by line with meanings, and practiced singing it with his conversation partner over and over again, to prepare for singing it in class.

As expected, HL learners shared many underlying assumptions and items of background knowledge with their CPs: I am a true or aspiring Korean. Based on their shared assumptions, lots of commonalities were found in their conversations. Those shared commonalities included cultural aspects of the target society, its history, people, current social and political issues, and so on.

Discourse Excerpt 4 (Doo's middle segment of the second meeting)

1. N: 떡볶이도 종류가 굉장히 많아요. 알아요?
   rice cake sauté kind extremely many know
   'There are many kinds of rice cake sauté, do you know?'
2. D: 종류?
   kind
   'Kind?'
3. N: 네. 그러니까 there are so many kinds of [떡볶이
   yes so there are so many kinds of rice cake sauté
   'Yes. I mean there are so many kinds of rice cake sauté.'
4. D: [아, variation?
   ah variation
   'You mean variation?'
5. N: Uh huh.
6. D: 아, 네.
   ah yes
   'Ah, yes'
7. N: Okay
8. D: 그 야채 넣고
   the vegetable put
   'You put some vegetable'

9. N: 그죠. 그 안에 인제 또 뭐가 들어가느냐에 따라서 굉장히
right that in well also what put depending very
많이 차이가 나죠. 어떤 거 어떤 거 들어가는 것 같아요?
much difference occur which one which one put seems
떡볶이 안에?
rice cake sauté inside
'That's right. Well, depending on what ingredients you use it differs. What ingredients do you think are used to make rice cake sauté?'
10. D: 떡볶이, 아, 아, 떡? ((laughs))
rice cake sauté ah ah rice cake
'Rice cake sauté, ah, ah, rice cake'
11. N: 아, 네. 떡 들어가고, 네.
ah yes rice cake put yes
'Ah yes, rice cake is used. Yes.'
12. D: 어, 간장?
uh soy sauce
'Uh, soy sauce.'
13. N: 네.
yes
'Yes'

In Discourse Excerpt 4, the HL learner (Doo) was talking about how to make one common Korean dish (*떡볶이*'rice cake sauté') with her CP. She already had some idea of how to make it and what ingredients were needed. Her knowledge of the dish as a HL learner made this conversation possible. In particular, her background cultural knowledge allowed her to dialogue on a nearly equal status with her CP, whereas a non-HL interactant would have been put in the position of merely posing questions on this topic.

In contrast to the broader talk and commonalities shared between conversation partners and HL learners, in general, non-HL learners engaged in instructional conversations with their native-speaking CPs that were more rigidly structured. The following two excerpts from two different conversations give a clear idea of how conversations between non-HL learners and CPs proceeded.

Discourse Excerpt 5 (Mike's beginning segment of the first meeting)

1. M: um, okay, so, that's for later, and what are we supposed to do today? Oka y, um, um I guess we need to start on this.
2. S: Yeah.
3. M: Okay so, ask your partner what his, her name is and write the name in Kor ean. ((reads the instruction))
4. S: So ask the partner what her name is?
5. M: Yeah
6. S: And write his name in Korean?
7. M: Yeah.
8. M: I guess, yeah, I don't know. We just learned our name in Korean, so, uh..
9. S: This is my name, can you read this?
10. M: 이선호 ((laughs))
11. S: ((laughs)) Okay.

In Discourse Excerpt 5, the non-HL learner (Mike) tried to find out what to expect in the conversation and read the guideline sheet in turns 1 and 3. By focusing on Mike's topic initiation and his CP's reactions to his initiations, one can conclude that Mike as a non-HL learner tended to strictly follow the guidelines provided by his teacher and practice what he had learned in class for reinforcement/review purposes within the framework of the curriculum.

Discourse Excerpt 6 (Bri's beginning segment of second meeting)

1. M: At first, we review [this page
2. B: [Okay.
3. M: And then we [explain it, okay?
4. B: [Okay
5. M: 이 분은, this person, 그 분은, that person, 저 분은, that person
   this person *that person* *that person*
   'this person' 'that person' 'that person over there'
   over there. So, you can read. Can you read the first sentence?
6. B: Yeah. 이 분은 다미 씨예요.
   this person Dami is
   'This person is Ms. Dami'

In Discourse Excerpt 6, the CP (Myung) certainly took on teacher-like roles for the learner (Bri). Myung started the conversation with the comment about what

they were going to do during the conversation (in turns 1 and 3). Then, she asked Bri to read the passage as dictated by the guidelines provided by the teacher. Throughout the conversation, they just went over the required handouts from the teacher, and asked a few questions of each other on the side. They rarely turned away from or went beyond the topics provided in the guidelines, most of which had already been discussed in class. These conversations with non-HL KLLs focused mainly on their learning the language itself within the supplied framework.

Related to their rigidly structured instructional conversations, a great deal of language drill as a mode of instruction characterized the conversation of non-HL learners with their conversation partners. They usually repeated what their partners had said. The following excerpt exemplifies the phenomenon of language drill that was commonly used as a strategy in their conversations:

Discourse Excerpt 7 (Clay's end segment of the third meeting)

68. S: So let me, ah let's practice this. 일요일
Sunday
'Sunday'
69. C: 일요일
Sunday
'Sunday'
70. S: 일요일
Sunday
'Sunday'
71. C: 일요일
Sunday
'Sunday'
72. S: Very good. 월요일
Monday
'Monday'
73. C: 월요일
Monday
'Monday'
74. S: 월요일
Monday
'Monday'

75. C: 월요일
Monday
'Monday'

Discourse Excerpt 7 shows that the interlocutors relied heavily on drill. The CP (Soo) simply asked the learner (Clay) to repeat after her those key words that Clay had learned in his class lessons. These interlocutors seemed to believe that a lot of drills would motivate and facilitate the learner's comprehension and even his communicative desire.

When native Korean CPs perceived themselves in the role of instructor rather than as conversationalist, they engaged in drill, grammatical explanation, repeated utterances, clear and emphatic pronunciation, use of unmarked and frequent vocabulary, short and simple clauses, slow pace with many pauses—many of the features of "foreigner speak" (see Ravid et al, 2002). Those aspects of speech accommodation/modification were predominantly found in conversations of non-HL learners with their conversation partners. The following two excerpts (8 and 9) further illustrate this phenomenon:

Discourse Excerpt 8 (Al's mid segment of the first meeting)

41. J: Good, okay. Next, 이것은?
this
'This?'
42. A: Oh that's 발
oh that's foot
'Oh that's foot.'
43. J: Um hum
44. A: Isn't that so much, yeah, so
45. J: yeah,
46. A: 발
foot
'Foot'

47. J: 발
foot
'Foot'
48. A: [발
foot
'Foot'
49. J: [팔, 팔
arm arm
'Arm, arm'
50. A: Um, 이것은 손이에요?
um this hand is
'Um, is this hand?'
51. J: Um hum.
52. A: And 아니오 이것은 팔이에요.
and no this arm is
'And, no this is arm.'
53. J: Right.
54. A: Okay. 팔.
arm
'Arm'
55. J: Um hum.

Discourse Excerpt 8 above contains some aspects of "foreignese" speech accommodation such as simple, unmarked, and short words, slower speech rate, frequent feedback of CP (*good, okay, um hum, yeah, right*), In Excerpt 30, while using the simplified incomplete utterance in turn 1, Ji (CP) tried to check Al's (non-HL learner) comprehension of the vocabulary. Then, she repeated the targeted vocabulary items for a clear and emphatic enunciation (turns 47 and 49). In order to maintain and facilitate communication, the pair focused on lexical clarification. This lexically-focused pattern was very obvious in conversations of other non-HL learners and their CPs as well.

Discourse Excerpt 9 (Tim's beginning segment of the first meeting)

2. B: 네, 한국말 할 수 있어요? Trying to speak Korean
   yes Korean speak can
   'Yes, can you speak Korean?'
3. T: Ah… 잘 못, 잘못, 한국말.. 한국말 한 번... 한국말 해 봐요.
   well not not good Korean Korean one time Korean do try
   'I can't speak Korean well, not well. Why don't you try to speak Korean?'
4. B: 제가요?
   me
   'You mean me?'
5. T: Yeah. It makes sense?
6. B: ((laughs)) 한국말 얼만큼 해요?
   Korean how much do
   'How well do you speak Korean?'
7. T: Uh, huh?
8. B: 한국말 얼만큼 하세요? 얼, 만, 큼
   Korean how much do how much
   'How well do you speak Korean, how well?
9. T: 얼만큼?
   how much
   'How well?'
10. B: 얼마?
    How much
    'How well'
11. T: [How much?]
12. B: [한국말 얼마나] 잘 하실 수 있어요?
    Korean how much well do can
    'How well can you speak Korean?'
13. T: [몰라요]
    not know
    'I don't know'
14. B: [How can I], how much can you speak English?
15. T: Korean, [you mean?]
16. B: [Uh Korean, Korean]
17. T: I don't know. Maybe.. [조금]
    little
    'Just a little'
18. B: [조금?] Little bit? Then,
    little
    'Just a little?'

In Discourse Excerpt 9, Tim revealed typical learner strategies such as repetition (self-repetition in turn 3 and repetition of what his conversation partner said

in turn 9) and exaggerated enunciation. His CP (Bum), demonstrated classic "foreignese" strategies of segmentation and repetition to get one same meaning across to Tim in turns 2, 6, 8, 12, 14, and 16.

The following excerpt from a non-HL learner's conversation is another case of lexical clarification in the form of speech accommodation:

Discourse Excerpt 10 (Al's beginning segment of the first meeting)

62. A: Okay. So, I just say, 아버지?
okay so I just say father
'Okay. So I just say father?'
63. J: 아버지 is a polite way to say it. You're great. You can just say 아빠. Either

father is a polite way to say it — 'Father is a polite way to say it.'
you can just say dad — 'You can just say dad.'

way is fine.
64. A: Okay. 아빠
dad
'Dad'
65. J: 아빠
dad
'Dad'

In Discourse Excerpt 10, the CP (Ji) tried an elaborated explanation of the lexical word perceived as complicated and marked for the learner (*아버지* 'father'), while giving the unmarked and simpler alternate word that is probably easier to memorize by non-HL learners than the one Al used. In a sense, the use of the unmarked word or the phenomenon of lexical simplification might be considered counter-productive, since eventually Al will need to know the more formal variant. On the other hand, the simplified lexical input provided by Ji was comprehensible to Al, a non-fluent non-HL learner. By ensuring Al's comprehension of the word, Ji motivated and facilitated Al's communicative motivation.

In their diary reports, learners often expressed their fears, frustrations, difficulties, and also the successes experienced while learning the target language with teachers and CPs in and outside the classroom. The following two diary entries (Excerpts 20 and 21) illuminate the difficulty that one non-HL learner dealt with.

Diary Excerpt 20 (Tim's first diary)

> Trying to "free-talk" with a language you've only studied for 2 semesters in college leads to disaster unless you've had a lot of speaking practice ("free-talk" means that you don't follow partners or talk about limited things). I haven't had a lot of speaking practice like this, (In class you are learning a specific thing so all your sentences follow the same pattern and you don't have to think), so I made all the usual beginner mistakes-like forgetting obvious words (e.g., 여덟), being nervous and not being able to conjugate verbs/words on the fly.

Diary Excerpt 21 (Tim's second diary)

> I tried to stay away from open discussion this week, because my skill level can't support that at this point. Instead we learned some new grammar from the workbook.

Clearly, then, conversation, or "free-talk," with a native-speaking CP places a great deal of linguistic and cognitive demand on learners, especially non-HL learners. In response, some KLLs have devised strategies to "stay away from open discussion" to avoid or reduce those cognitive demands. Often, therefore, the non-HL KLLs were the ones to initiate or request drill and correction with their CPs, rather than struggling with conversation.

As the following excerpt of an extreme case shows, it seemed that some non-HL learners did not find conversations with native-speaking CP very helpful for their Korean learning.

Diary Excerpt 22 (Hyo's second diary)

> I mostly helped him with his English, because I did not have any questions about what we covered in Korean class. Although Jay (conversation partner) wants to help me with my Korean, he does not encourage me to use Korean in our conversation. I feel that the most I can do to add Korean into the conversation is an occasional translation of a simple English phrase that comes up.

As Diary Excerpt 22 illustrates, it was not uncommon for some significant portion of the conversation meetings to address the native Korean CP's English language learning needs. Most CPs for KLLs at Tech were recruited from an ESL program at Tech. The UGA Korean program also recruited conversation partners with an advertisement promising benefits to English language learners by virtue of conversation meetings with English-speaking KLLs. Therefore those CPs whose main or partial, purpose for participating in CP activities was to improve their English speaking skill naturally expected some time devoted to their English practice. Consequently, learners had less chance to speak Korean. Since all of the CPs recruited in this manner would have had no prior relationship with their KLL partners, this factor regarding CP motivation is confounded with the interpersonal factor, prior relationship. Another ironic ramification of some Korean CPs' motivation to practice English is that KLLs in such interactions, trying to insert at least occasional Korean vocabulary items, could be regarded as engaging in a high rate of Korean code-switching.

The difficulty KLLs dealt with in conducting extended conversation in Korean was not only lack of vocabulary, but also shortage of topics to talk about. Because lack of vocabulary was exacerbated by lack of shared background with CPs among non-HL learners, this problem especially plagued them. Moreover, those learners who were not required to have a weekly conversation activity—and therefore were not

given conversation guidelines—often had particular difficulties finding conversation topics.

The following is from one conversation of a non-HL learner with his CP. He was taking an intermediate level Korean class in which the conversation activity outside classroom was not a requirement. He was motivated by the desire to improve his proficiency in Korean and to have cultural experiences through conversation meetings. Bum, who was a non-matriculated ESL student at the intensive English institute was assigned to him as a CP.

In one meeting, the topic initiated by Bum was their favorite actor/actress. Bum did try to get Tim to converse and Tim also tried to get actively involved in conversation, but they failed to find conversation topics in which they both held interest and subject matter competence. Finally, after completing 39 turns, they were able to hit upon the topic of one Korean actress they both knew. Due to the lack of other conversation topics available to them, their conversation often halted, with many pauses throughout the conversation, and it resulted in short-term topic maintenance such as the following.

Discourse Excerpt 11 (Tim's mid segment of the first meeting)

43. T: ((laughs)) Uh…. (.4)
44. B: Huh, any words you want to know?

In the following excerpt, the same type of communication breakdown as above can be found. The non-HL learner (Clay) was usually provided guidelines of what to talk about by his teacher. Nonetheless, he or his CP (Soo) often got lost in finding

topics to discuss when they were not given any specific tasks or when they were done with the tasks assigned.

Discourse Excerpt 12 (Clay's end segment of the fourth meeting)

118. S: 아휴 잘 했어요. Yeah 너무 잘 했어요 yeah. Is this only one?
wow well did yeah very well did yeah is this only one
'Wow you did a great job. Yeah, you did very well, yeah. Is this only one (for today)?'
119. C: This is the only one she gave us.
120. S: Okay yeah 아휴 잘 했어요, 클레이 씨.
okay yeah wow well did Clay Mr.
'Okay, yeah. Wow you did well, Mr. Clay.'
121. C: I've been paying attention in class.
122. S: Yeah, very good. Your pronunciation was very good, too.
123. C: Cause I have read it.
124. S: Yeah. It's perfect.
125. C: Thank you.
126. S: 네, 네.
yes, yes
'Yes, yes.'

At the end of giving a drill practice for Clay's pronunciation and vocabulary, Soo asked if there was any other task to get done for the day and Clay said that was the only one to do. Then, their conversation did not continue with a new topic. Instead, Soo tried to encourage Clay by giving him complimentary feedback. They ended their meeting at that point.

As expressed by one HL learner in Diary Excerpt 23, it seemed that managing the topical coverage of the meetings could be a challenge even to HL learners at higher levels.

Diary Excerpt 23 (Hyung's second diary)

> I am not very conversational so I feel there are not many topics to discuss. It is strange. I wanted to speak English but for some parts, my mind set was in Korean.

Similarly another advanced HL KLL reported,

Diary Excerpt 24 (Na's first diary)

It seemed like it was a very long session and it was hard to come up with topics.

As seen in the following excerpt, one HL KLL revealed her concerns about learning Korean with her CP in her diary entry. Her concerns reflected the fact that learning language in classrooms differs considerably from learning language in the CP condition.

Diary Excerpt 25 (Doo's third diary)

> The introduction of so many new words was very confusing to me. The words that are made shorter are especially confusing. I think that I have learned a lot about Korean culture during my CP conversations but not speaking. There is some confusion just on communicating. Because he talks so fast and with words I have not heard before, I don't know what he is saying some of the time. I can figure out what he is trying to say overall, but I definitely miss some sentences. It is still hard to translate what I am thinking because I don't know where to start when making a sentence. Since he talks so fast, I try to talk fast also but it is hard for my mouth to form the words. This is probably because I am not used to forming Korean sounds.

For HL and non-HL KLLs alike, then, it appeared that one of the biggest concerns was to overcome deficiencies in their proficiency. They were acutely aware of their limited knowledge of the target language. For example:

Diary Excerpt 26 (Dan's first diary)

> During the meeting, I feel a --tad-- incompetent because I'm unfamiliar with most of the words.

Diary Excerpt 27 (Hyo's first diary)

> I wasn't sure how fluent his English is……. I still do not feel comfortable speaking in Korean, because I feel that our conversation would be very limited that way.

Similarly, in the following excerpts, some HL learners expressed their anxieties due mainly to their linguistic incompetence in speaking Korean.

Diary Excerpt 28 (Hyung's second diary)

> I still feel embarrassed about talking in Korean and I feel that I am very weak in vocabulary.

Diary Excerpt 29 (Doo's first diary)

> I usually don't like speaking Korean because I stutter a lot, and I don't know a lot of difficult vocabulary, …..

Diary Excerpt 30 (Yu's second diary)

> When I'm trying to say these words to my friends and family, I usually just say the English word, so remembering the Korean word is hard.

Diary Excerpt 30 clearly showed the example of those who were not motivated to speak Korean to their heritage group members and speak English instead. It is evident that motivation affects their heritage language use.

Even some advanced HL KLLs reported their concerns about speaking Korean in their diary entries, as exemplified in Diary Excerpt 31.

Diary Excerpt 31 (Na's second diary)

> Felt insufficient when tried to explain certain situations and things. We also talked a lot about poker but felt awkward talking about in Korean.

It seemed that he set up his expectations very high and he did not feel like being a successful, fluent speaker of Korean.

Similarly another HL learner reported her concern about her being incompetent in speaking Korean in Diary Excerpt 32.

Diary Excerpt 32 (Doo's first diary)

> Most of the time, I felt helpless when trying to speak in Korean. I understand most of what is being said but when I try to speak in Korean, I can't think of the words I want to say. I also have trouble forming sentences if I am not writing them down. The sentence structure is different than the English sentence structure. I guess I try to translate an English sentence into Korean instead of trying to form Korean sentences from the beginning.

It appeared that she knew what caused the problem with her Korean. Her self-awareness of her Korean might guide and affect her future conversation.

In the same vein, not only HL learners but also non-HL learners were acutely aware of what they needed to overcome their incompetence in speaking the target language, as evidenced in Diary Excerpts 33 and 34.

Diary Excerpt 33 (Ha's third diary)

> I felt like I could open up more and speak more freely, not caring too much if I messed up, knowing Ki wouldn't care.

Diary Excerpt 34 (Tim's fourth diary)

> As it is right now, when I try to make sentences, there are too many word and grammar holes while I also notice that I forget a lot of things that I have already learned and would be able to probably get in writing I still hadn't practiced enough to be able to speak comfortably on the spot.

As mentioned in Diary Excerpts 33 and 34, learners' self-awareness of their learning phase can play an important role in motivating the learner.

An Organizing Model of the Role of Dyadic Language Proficiency in KLL/CP Discourse

Undoubtedly, language proficiency is the key to communication between native speakers of different languages, and it had a powerful influence on success in the conversation partner meetings in this study. Most research in the area of language learner discourse considers only the proficiency level of the learner. After examining the transcripts of these conversation partner meetings, however, it became apparent that interactional success was a function of the joint language proficiency of both members—that is, dependent on dyadic language proficiency. When both learner and CP interacted in their deficient language—mostly Korean for learner and English for CP—lots of miscommunication and misunderstanding occurred. Perhaps because the HL learners were in general at higher levels of Korean proficiency, it appeared that non-HL learners had more difficulties in getting their meanings across during their conversations with their CPs. For both HL and non-HL learners, Korean was their foreign language, rather than a true second language, because they lacked proficiency in the target language. And despite their residence in the U.S. English remained a foreign language—not a second language—for most CPs. Therefore a model based on the interactants' respective language proficiencies is proposed. The model depicts two

intersecting continua: one for the learner's Korean proficiency, and one for the CP's English proficiency. The model is illustrated in Figure 10.

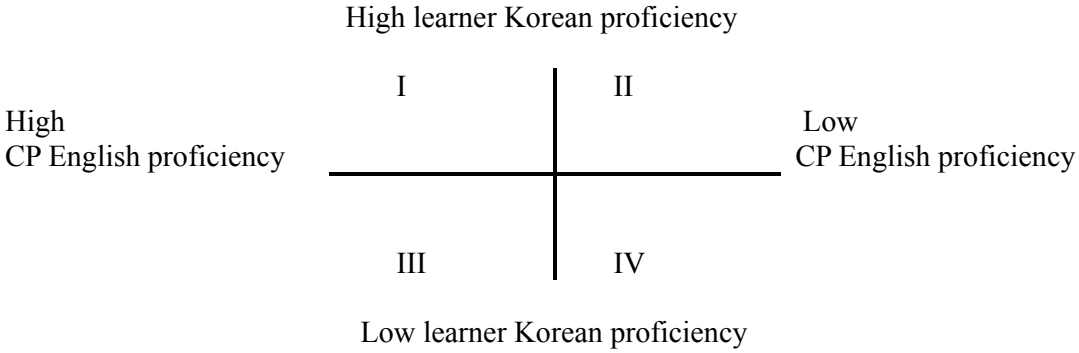

Figure 10.
Combinations of Learner's and Conversation Partner's Language Proficiency

As illustrated in Figure 10, at least four extreme combinations of language proficiency are possible in these multilingual exchanges: I (high Korean-high English), II (high Korean-low English), III (low Korean-high English), and IV (low Korean-low English). Table 43 presents data on each pair's self-rated Korean and English proficiency. They rated themselves on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "poor (not at all)" to "native-like (very well)" in terms of comprehension (listening), speaking, reading, and writing skills.

Considering their self-rated proficiency in Korean and in English, learners' heritage status, and CPs' length of stay in US, all the non-HL learner/CP pairs participating in this study fell into Quadrants III or IV, whereas most HL learner pairs fell into Quadrants I or II. Note that their proficiency rated on a 5-point Likert scale was very subjective and some of them appeared to rate their proficiency lower or

higher than their actual proficiency. Therefore, I ignored the participants' self-rated proficiency if it did not match their actual proficiency in my evaluations. There were six cases: Bri-Myung (adjusted lower), Clay-Soo (adjusted higher), Hyung (adjusted higher)-Yoo, Doo (adjusted higher)-Nam, Mat-Ana (adjusted higher), and Nara (adjusted higher)-Ki.

In addition to classifying L2 proficiency of KLLs and CPs, it would also be possible to classify KLL's L1 English language proficiency and also the CP's level of L1 native Korean proficiency. Rating proficiency in both languages (L1 as well as L2) would yield a more complete model of bilingual interaction. In the present study, however, it was assumed that all participants were fully proficient in their native languages. Therefore, rating L1 proficiency was unnecessary.

Table 43
Classification of Dyads' Joint Language Proficiency

Learner	Class Level	Korean proficiency	Heritage status [a]	Conversation partner	Length of stay in US (month)	English proficiency	Quadrant assigned
Al	I	2	Non-HL	Ji	27	3	III
Bri	I	1.75	Non-HL	Myung	21	3	IV
Clay	I	1.25	HL	Soo	30	2.5	III
Dan	I	2.25	HL	Bo	1	2.25	IV
Doo	II	2.75	HL	Nam	1	2.25	II
Han	I	3.5	HL	Kil	72	4	I
Hyung	III	2.25	HL	Yoo	11	2.5	II
Hyo	II	2	Non-HL	Jay	1	1.25	IV
Mat	II	2.25	Non-HL	Ana	96	2.5	III
Mel	I	2	Non-HL	Hyun	28	3	III
Mike	I	2	Non-HL	Sun	14	2.25	IV
Nara	I	2.75	HL	Ki	72	4	I
Seo	II	3.25	HL	Kun	108	4	I
Steve	I	1.75	Non-HL	Jae	24	2.25	IV
Tim	III	2	Non-HL	Bum	5	1.75	IV
Yu	I	3	HL	Byul	38	3.5	I

Using this four-part classification of dyadic proficiency (rather than just individual proficiency) certain patterns began to emerge. For example, it appears that those pairs in Quadrants IV had the most difficulty with communicating, followed by Quadrants III and II. In Discourse Excerpt 13, the respective foreign language proficiencies the non-HL learner (Bri) and the CP (Myung), place the dyad into Quadrant IV in Figure 9. Bri had a hard time understanding the linguistic materials that Myung tried to convey to her, largely because Myung was unable to provide elaborated grammatical explanations in English when necessary. Without obtaining a sufficiently elaborated explanation of the linguistic inputs that she did not understand from her CP, Bri undertook an inferential process mostly by herself, for example in turns 6, 23, and 25. Bri finally clarified the grammatical points of the utterance on her own (in turns 29, 33, 35, 37, and 39) while Myung's explanation was limited to just repeating the troublesome utterances. Consequently, their conversation placed linguistic constraints, and maybe cognitive as well, on both interlocutors.

Discourse Excerpt 13 (Bri's end segment of the first meeting)

2. B: Oh, um, my, so you'd say 나, 나의, 나의는
   oh um my so you'd say I my I's (wrong form)
   'Oh, um, my, so you'd say I, my, I's'
3. M: 나는, [because
   I because
   'I, because'
4. B: [oh,
5. M: 의 is the, yeah
   's is the, yeah
   ''s is the, yeah'
6. B: So, it's just my.
7. M: Yeah my. I
8. B: Oh.
9. M: 나는
   I
   'I'

10. B: So, [나는
    so I
    'so I'
11. M: [나는
    I
    'I'
12. M: Um hum.
13. B: 나는
    I
    'I'
14. M: Um hum.
15. B: 스티븐, so you don't need this one? ((pointing the particle in the boo k))
    Steven, so you don't need this one
    'Steven, so you don't need this one?'
16. M: You need, 스티븐 씨의
    you need Steven Mr. 's
    'you need it, Mr. Steven's'
17. B: 스티븐 씨의
    Steven Mr. 's
    'Mr. Steven's'
18. M: Uh huh.
19. B: Uh
20. M: 여자
    girl
    'girl'
21. B: So 남자?
    so boy
    'So boy?'
22. M: 여자. You're 여자.
    girl you're girl
    'Girl, you're a girl'
23. B: 여자. Oh, so I am Steven's girl.
    girl oh so I am Steven's girl
    'Girl, oh so I'm Steven's girl'
24. M: Yeah.
25. B: Uh, 여자 친구예요.
    uh girl friend is
    'Uh, I'm his girlfriend'
26. M: Uh huh, good.
27. B: Okay. [So,
28. M: [브리지드는 스티븐 씨의 여자 친구예요. So, 나, I, 나
    Bridget Steven Mr. 's girl friend is so I I I
    는 스티븐 씨의 여자 친구예요
    Steven Mr. 's girl friend is
    'Bridget is Steven's girlfriend. So, I, I, I'm Steven's girlfriend'
29. B: So, so you need this [I am

30. M: [나 Just this 나
I just this I
'I, just this I'
31. B: Okay. [Oh, I understand.
32. M: [나의
my
'my'
33. B: Cause I'm [saying Steven.
34. M: [Yeah.
35. B: [So, you have possessive.
36. M: [Yeah
37. B: So, I need that.
38. M: [Yeah
39. B: [I still need that.
40. M: yeah, yeah.
41. B: Okay

In Discourse Excerpt 13 above, Myung eventually delivered one linguistic input to Bri, the possessive particle *의,* 'of' or ''s' in English. However, both Myung and Bri used short and simple utterances that contained numerous single words in both Korean and English in order to try to make each other understand. In turn 2, B attempted to utter a new linguistic structure based on the task introduced by Myung in the previous turn. In turns 3 and 5, Myung tried to correct Bri's incorrect form without any elaborated explanation. In turn 6, by saying the English equivalent ('my') without Myung's guidance, Bri demonstrated that she had self-clarified her comprehension of the incorrect form that she had attempted in turn 2. Then, in turn 9, Myung gave Bri the grammatically correct form of at least one part of the sentence and tried to reinforce this cue by repeating it in turn 11. In an attempt to perform a comprehension check, Bri asked questions about other parts of the construction in turns 15 and 21 Myung answered Bri's questions with single word utterances, and produced the correct forms in turns 16 and 22. Then, Bri performed the complete utterance expected in English in turn 23 and the predicate of the utterance in Korean in turn 25.

In turn 28, Myung gave Bri the complete utterance expected in Korean and then Bri began to grasp the sense of the grammatical points. Her emerging understanding was demonstrated in her comprehension checks with Myung in turns 29, 33, 35, 37, and 39. This process was definitely time-consuming as well as challenging for both the learner and the CP.

The following two excerpts (Discourse Excerpts 14 and 15) show communication breakdowns occurring between a HL learner and her CP mainly due to the CP's low proficiency in English:

Discourse Excerpt 14 (Doo's mid segment of the second meeting)

27. N: 네, 위도. 위도가 낮으면 낮을수록 그, 뭐라고 그러죠?
yes latitude latitude low getting low it what call
적도라 그러죠.
equator call
'Yes, latitude. As the latitude is getting lower, what do you call it?
We call it equator.'
28. D: 적도?
equator
'Equator?'
29. N: 지구가 이렇게 있었을 때 이렇게 가운데 지나가는,
earth like this be when like this middle cross
'The one crossing in the middle of the earth like this'
30. D: 아..
ah
'Ah'
31. N: 영어로 생각이 안 나네
English thought not recall
'I cannot recall it in English'
32. D: ((laughs))
33. N: (.3) 아무튼…
anyway..
'anyway'

In Discourse Excerpt 14, the proficiency in Korean and English of the HL learner (Doo) and the CP (Nam) fell into Quadrant II in Figure 3 (i.e., relatively high KLL Korean proficiency and relatively low CP English proficiency). When Doo tried to clarify the meaning of the Korean lexical item (*적도* 'equator') by asking Nam (in turn 28) for its English equivalent, Nam seemed unable to identify the English translation, and he failed in his effort at lexical clarification as well (turns 29 and 31). After all, the interlocutors ended up with a long pause of silence due to the language barrier they encountered.

In Discourse Excerpt 15 below, on the other hand, Doo was unable to comprehend the meaning of the English word ('fan'), given in Nam's comment due to Nam's unintelligible pronunciation in turn 7. When Nam spelled it out in turn 11, Doo finally understood what English word Nam had been trying to pronounce.

Discourse Excerpt 15 (Doo's mid segment of the third meeting)

7. N: 그러니까, 그러니까 그 팬들을 위해서, 팬 뭔지 알죠? /pen/?
   So so those fans for, fan what know /pen/
   'So, so for those fan, you know what fan is, don't you? /pen/?'
8. D: /pen/?
9. N: 네.
   yes
   'Yes'
10. D: 아니오.
    no
    'No'
11. N: F, A, N.
12. D: Oh, fan.. 네. 아, 네, 네, 네.
    oh fan yes ah yes yes yes
    'Oh, fan. Yes. Ah, yes, yes, yes.'

In the model proposed in Figure 3 above, the CP's own foreign (English) language proficiency plays an important role in conversation, because of the nature

and purpose of the conversation activity. Both HL and non-HL learners who lacked Korean proficiency sought help with their learning to improve their proficiency and native Korean-speaking CPs were expected to give them help needed. Korean CPs with higher levels of English proficiency were able to generated participate more actively in the conversations, and in fact were able to provide more information about Korean language structures, compared with CPs with more limited English proficiency. In the same vein, those learners with higher levels of Korean proficiency, mostly HL learners in this study, had less communication breakdowns in their conversations even with their CP whose English proficiency was limited. In short, accounting for the success of the conversation partner meetings required a dyadic perspective.

Finding Four: Relations Between Conversation Variables and Motivation

Research question 3 asked if there are any relations between learner motivation and affective variables on the one hand and measured discourse features of conversation partner meetings on the other. To evaluate this question, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed between the ten motivational scales and the five conversational variables examined in this study. Data for these analyses were obtainable only from the sixteen conversation participant KLLs. As in previous analyses, the motivation/affective variables included (i) value, (ii) heritage language orientation, (iii) expectancy, (iv) self-efficacy, (v) anxiety, (vi) competitiveness, (vii) cooperativeness, (viii) general motivational strength, (ix) attitudes toward Korean culture and language, and (x) degree of learner Korean ethnic/cultural identity. The five conversational variables of each meeting included (i) total number of words uttered by the learner, (ii) number of words in Korean uttered by the learner, (iii) total number of conversational turns taken by the learner, (iv)

Korean code-switching initiatives taken by the learner and (v) English code-switching initiatives taken by the learner. For purposes of testing this hypothesis, data were summed across the four meeting sequences and the three segments within each meeting.

The means and standard deviations of ten motivational dimensions and of five conversational features of the sixteen learner participants are presented in Tables 44 and 45.

Table 44
Means and Standard Deviations of Ten Motivational Variables and Five Conversational Variables for the Sixteen Conversation Partner KLLs

	M	*SD*
Value	4.76	.71
Heritage	3.97	2.00
Expectancy	5.25	.63
Self-efficacy	4.19	.73
Anxiety	2.18	1.08
Comparativeness	3.47	1.40
Cooperativeness	4.53	1.04
Motivational strength	5.02	.69
Attitudes	3.96	.89
Identity	3.66	.90
Total learner words (#)	195.51	56.88
Learner Korean words (#)	91.84	70.34
Total learner turns (#)	51.29	10.13
Learner Korean code-switching initiative (%)	15.24	13.71
Learner English code-switching initiative (%)	8.92	5.48

Correlation coefficients were computed to determine whether the ten motivational scales correlate with the five conversational variables for the sixteen conversation partner participants, as presented in Table 45. Across 50 correlations, because of the small N and the exploratory nature of this work, a *p*-value of less than .05 was required for significance.

Table 45
Correlations Between Ten Motivational Variables and Five Conversational Variables for the Sixteen Conversation Partner Participants

	Total words	Korean words	Total turns	Korean Code-switching initiative	English Code-switching initiative
Value	-.334	-.458*	.061	-.307	.318
Heritage	-.199	.536*	.200	.572*	-.658**
Expectancy	-.064	.080	-.144	.188	-.114
Self-efficacy	.204	.286	-.600**	.354	-.128
Anxiety	.110	-.127	-.019	-.176	.210
Competitiveness	-.042	-.050	-.004	.081	.090
Cooperativeness	-.461*	-.282	.140	-.104	.067
Motivational strength	-.176	-.260	.041	-.141	.018
Attitudes	-.083	-.092	.081	.064	.023
Identity	.166	.462*	-.457*	.545*	-.088

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Nine of the 50 correlations were statistically significant. As can be seen in Table 45, value was significantly correlated negatively with total number of Korean words produced by learner, indicating that those learners who valued language learning relatively highly produced relatively fewer Korean words. The correlations of heritage orientation with total number of Korean words, with Korean code-switching initiative, and with English code-switching initiative were also statistically significant. Note that heritage orientation exhibited an especially strong negative influence on English code-switching initiatives. In other words, those who showed relatively high Korean heritage orientation produced relatively numerous Korean words and took relatively numerous Korean code-switching initiatives but relatively few English code-switching initiatives. The significant correlation of self-efficacy with total turns, and that of cooperativeness with total words, also revealed inverse relations, indicating that those learners who showed relatively low levels of self-efficacy took relatively numerous turns and those who had relatively low orientation

toward cooperativeness produced relatively numerous words. Identity was negatively correlated with total turns, whereas it was positively correlated with Korean words and with Korean code-switching initiatives.

Qualitative Evidence Bearing on Relations Between Motivation and Discourse Patterns.

The diary data in this study provide additional understanding of relations between learners' conversation features and motivation from the learner's perspective.

First of all, the conversation meetings with native Korean-speaking language partners appeared to have met both HL and non-HL learners' perceived needs. The learner participants mentioned a number of academic and personal benefits of conversation meetings outside the classroom. The following excerpts from learners' diaries illustrate their sense of satisfaction and how the meetings affected their motivation to learn.

Diary Excerpt 35 (Dan's third diary)

> Overall, I feel my partner is tremendously helping even if it seems to be small in the larger scheme of things

Learners also expressed their expectations about learning the language itself in their diary entries. Interacting with native speakers often helped learners see areas in which they would need further work in order to meet their own expectations.

Diary Excerpt 36 (Ha's first diary)

> Even though I felt that I could speak Korean pretty well, I noticed while I was talking I had to stop and think about what I was going to say, and how I wanted to say it. I noticed that I need to learn a lot more vocabulary.

In addition to the value that KLLs placed on the conversation partner meetings for their language acquisition value, the learners appreciated the meetings for the broader cultural knowledge they were simultaneously acquiring. For example:

Diary Excerpt 37 (Mike's second diary)

> He teaches me stuff that I don't get to learn from the book.

By contrast, in their reports, learners often expressed their fears, frustrations, difficulties, and also the successes experienced while learning the target language with teachers and conversation partners in and outside the classroom. The following excerpts show how their affects influenced learners' conversational features.

Diary Excerpt 38 (Tim's second diary)

> I'm not really comfortable asking him some words and then making a sentence with them. In that case I might as well use English.

In the following excerpt from the same non-HL learner's fourth diary, he again expressed his frustration about conversation with his conversation partner in Korean:

Diary Excerpt 39 (Tim's fourth diary)

> I felt bad not being able to explain the actor/actress thingy but I didn't think it'd be good to just totally switch to English.

One optimistic point found in his concerns, however, is that he was aware of the importance of trying to speak in Korean instead of switching codes to English. Also, as these excerpts both show, this learner's level of metalinguistic awareness were quite high.

Conversational Patterns and Functions of Code-Switching

A close look at code-switching can contribute to the qualitative interpretation of conversations of KLLs with their native Korean-speaking CPs. While this analysis is cognizant of the sorts of broad communicative and pragmatic factors that might be expected to play a role in choosing a code (e.g., power, solidarity), the CP meetings also imposed some unique constraints not always at play in other multilingual settings. Within most multilingual dyads, each speaker might favor his or her own native language as the "unmarked" code for conversation. In this study, however, the instructional objective of the conversation meetings—that is, to practice Korean language production—might itself be powerful enough to determine the choice of code (English or Korean). Committed learners were expected to look for occasions to use their target language, Korean, as the "marked" code regardless of whether they were HL or non-HL learners. However, in reality, a number of other factors appeared to play a role in determining the choice of code.

Speakers' Linguistic Competence and Preference/Desire

When I was little, 애기였, uh, I don't know Kindergarten or so
'When I was little, was a baby, uh, I don't know Kindergarten or so'

The choice by the learners in this study of English versus Korean seemed to signal their linguistic competence in and/or preferences for one language or the other. In particular, code-switching within turns reflected the learner's competence in the language.

For KLLs who were especially strong in Korean, the proportion of switching in the direction from English to Korean (Korean code-switching initiative) would be higher than those who were not competent to speak Korean. On the other hand, if the speaker's preferred code was English, over the course of his/her speaking the learner would code-switch from Korean to English, and the proportion of the switching from Korean to English (English code-switching initiative) would likely be higher.

In conversational turns that consisted of a sequence of switches from one code to the other, either from Korean to English or from English to Korean, three major types of code-switching were apparent in both HL and non-HL learners' conversations: (a) learners who were competent enough to do so attempted to speak their target language and kept switching back to Korean and consequently Korean code-switching initiatives; (b) learners who were not competent to speak Korean often switched back to their native language and produced English code-switching initiatives; (c) learners who were not competent to speak Korean but firm in their commitment to speak Korean as a language learner tried to speak Korean as much as they could by constantly switching from English to Korean. In this case, since the matrix language was English, the switch back to English necessarily followed.

Discourse Excerpt 16 below illustrates a highly proficient HL KLL switching back to Korean after lapsing into English.

Discourse Excerpt 16 (Ha's beginning segment of the fourth meeting)

47. K: 하는 그 어, 그 법정 court, 법정에 가 본 적 있어?
    Ha that uh that court court to court go see chance have
    'Have you been to the court, Ha?'
48. H: 어, 가 본 적 있어.
    yes go see chance have
    'Yes, I've been there'

49. K: 왜?
why
'Why?'
50. H: 티켓
ticket
'Ticket'
51. K: 티켓?
ticket
'Ticket?'
52. H: Driving ticket, 운전 speeding ticket
driving ticket driving speeding ticket
'driving ticket, driving speeding ticket'
53. K: 아. 뭐, 뭐 때문에 먹었는데?
ah what what for got
'I see. Why did you get it?'
54. H: 오십오에서 칠십육 정도, 아니 그거 내가 칠십팔
at fifty five seventy six around no that I seventy eight
'(I drove) about seventy six miles per hour at fifty five speed limit, no maybe seventy eight.'
55. K: 어. [어땠어?
oh how was
'I see. How was it?'
56. H: [이십 마일 넘었으니까는
twenty mile exceeded so
'Because I exceeded twenty miles'

57. K: 어
yeah
'Yeah'
58. H: Reckless driving 으로 court 에 가야 했어
for reckless driving to court go had to
'For reckless driving I had to go to the court'
59. K: 그거 딱 한 번이었어?
that just one time was
'You had the only one?'
60. H: 어, 한 번.
yeah one time
'Yeah, once'
61. K: 어, 그래 가지고 어떻게 됐는데?
yeah so how became
'Yeah, so what happened then?'
62. H: 그거는 아버지가 lawyer 하나 구해서 lawyer 나 대신 가서 그냥,
that father lawyer one find lawyer I instead go just
뭐라 그러지? Normal ticket 으로 바꿔서 끊어 줬어.
what called to normal ticket change gave
'For that, my father bought one lawyer and he went for me and just, what do you call it (normal ticket)? It changed to a normal ticket.'

63. K: 어떤 티켓으로?
which to ticket
'To which ticket?'
64. H: 그냥, 그냥, 그냥 보통, 보통
Just just just normal normal
'Just, just normal, normal (ticket)'

Discourse Excerpt 16 shows a type (a) code-switching, that is code switching in which learners who were competent enough to do so attempted to speak their target language and kept switching back to Korean and consequently used numerous Korean words. The HL learner (Ha) extensively used Korean, because of his evident comfort level with target language and with his native-Korean speaking partner, Ki. In the sequence of switches, Ki himself attempted to change his conversational code to English in turn 47, in an apparent attempt to give his interlocutor a break in case Ha didn't understand the word (*법정* 'court'). Ha, however, did not follow Ki's lead. Rather, he resisted switching his conversational code from Korean to English in his answer in the following turn (turn 48). Ha did sometimes switch his code to his more comfortable, preferred, native English, when he encountered concepts for which he did not know the Korean equivalents. But the code switching in those cases was a matter of simple lexical alternation. Throughout the remainder of the conversation Ha continued speaking Korean. In turn 64, he even corrected the word uttered in English in the previous turn to Korean, with Ki's offering Ha the chance to do so in turn 63. [Note: The Koreanized English loans word in this excerpt (*티켓* 'ticket') was considered unrelated to code-switching, because it has achieved general acceptance in the target language.]

In another HL learner's conversation shown in Discourse Excerpt 17, the pattern of conversational code-switching was in the opposite direction, from English

to Korean. In this case, the KLL's matrix language was deemed to be English, due to her lack of competence in Korean. Her Korean code-switching initiatives consisted of single lexemes. It was of the type (b) code-switching, in which learners who were not competent to speak Korean often switched back to their native language and produced English words instead of Korean.

Discourse Excerpt 17 (Yu's mid segment of the first meeting)

1. B: 그니까 언제부터 한국말 배우기 시작했어요?
   so when since Korean learn started
   'So since when did you start learn Korean?'
2. Y: 어, 어, 어렸, 어렸을 때,
   uh uh little was little when
   'Uh, uh, was little, when I was little'
3. B: 어렸을 때
   was little when
   'When I was little'
4. Y: When I was little, 애기였, uh, I don't know "Kindergarten" or so
   when I was little was baby uh I don't know "Kindergarten" or so
   'When I was little, was a baby, uh I don't know "Kindergarten" or so'
5. B: 유치원
   Kindergarten
   'Kindergarten'
6. Y: Since Kindergarten
7. B: 유치원 때부터
   Kindergarten since
   'Since Kindergarten'
8. Y: Yeah 유치원
   yeah Kindergarten
   'Yeah, Kindergarten'
9. B: 유치원
   Kindergarten
   'Kindergarten'
10. Y: 유치원
    Kindergarten
    'Kindergarten'
11. B: 유치원
    Kindergarten
    'Kindergarten'
12. Y: Is it "Kindergarten?"
13. B: Yeah, "Kindergarten"

In contrast with the pattern of Discourse Excerpt 16, the HL learner (Yu) in Discourse Excerpt 17 tried to speaking Korean while replying to her conversation partner's (Byul) question in Korean. However, she did not feel competent speaking Korean, and at turn 3 she switched back to her preferred code, English. Then, in the same turn she switched back to Korean (*애기였*, 'was a baby'). However Yu's lack of competence in Korean drove her to switch back to her L1, as was explicitly stated in the English sentences: *uh, I don't know kindergarten or so* in turn 3. Once she found with the Byul's help the Korean vocabulary she was seeking, she uttered the single lexeme in Korean in turns 8 and 10. After those exchanges, she switched back to English again in turn 12. In fact, Yu switched her code from English to Korean a total of 5 times out of a total of 9 instances of code-switching and used a total of 36 words in Korean over a total of 76 words in English during the whole approximately 5-minute long segment. Some of these switches to English were single backchannel utterances such as *okay*, *uh huh*, *yeah*, etc, and some of switches to Korean were simple repetition of new vocabulary, as in turn 8.

As expected, and as confirmed in statistical results reported earlier, non-HL learners showed much lower self-rated competence in Korean than did their HL classmates. Not surprisingly, therefore, type (b) code-switching commonly occurred in their conversations. As for the type (c) code-switching, however, some of those less-competent non-heritage learners were as committed to speaking Korean during the conversation meetings as were HL KLLs, and they tried to practice their Korean as much as they could. Discourse Excerpts 18 and 19 reflect types (b) and (c) of the moderate- or non-HL learners, respectively.

Discourse Excerpt 18 (Dan's mid segment of the third meeting)

24. B: [마시러 갈까?
    to drink go
    'Shall we go to drink?'
25. D: [what's, uh, I don't know
26. B: 물 마시고 싶어, 마시러 갈까?
    water drink want to drink go
    'I want to drink water. Shall we go to drink?'
27. D: Um
28. B: 자 이거 마셔, 자 이거 마셔. To drink
    here this drink here this drink to drink
    'Here, drink this, here drink this. To drink'
29. D: no,
30. B: to drink
31. D: okay
32. B: yes.

In Discourse Excerpt 18, the moderate-HL learner Dan gave up trying to use the target language, and most of his utterances were in English, even though his conversation partner (Bo) tried to get him involved in conversing in Korean. In turns 28, 30 and 32, Bo eventually gave up trying to switch the code of conversation to Korean from the English imposed by Dan in the preceding turns.

Discourse Excerpt 19 (Tim's end segment of the third meeting)

60. T: Uh, (.5) 동생 있어요?
    uh younger sibling have
    'Uh, do you have any younger sibling?'
61. B: 아니오.
    no
    'No'
62. T: Oh
63. B: 형 있어요.
    older brother have
    'I have older brother'
64. T: 형?
    older brother
    'Older brother?'

65. B: 형. 나, 형인데, 저보다 다섯 살 많아요. 저보다 다섯 살 많아요.
older brother I older brother than me five years more than me five years more
'Older brother. My older brother, he is five years older than me. He is five years older than me.'
66. T: 다섯 살?
five years
'Five years?'
67. B: 그래서 직장에서 일해요. 학생이 아니라
so at workplace work student not be
'So he works, is not a student.'
68. T: 직장?
workplace
'Workplace?'
69. B: Like he got a job. He got a job
70. T: Uh huh.
71. B: He's not a student.
72. T: Ah.
73. B: He has business by himself
74. T: Yeah.
75. B: Yeah.
76. T: (laughs) (.4) 한국에 살고 있어요? 살고 있어요?
Korea in live exist live exist
'Is he living in Korea, living in Korea?
77. B: Yeah.
78. T: Ah.
79. B: 저 여기 혼자 왔어요 아무도 없어요, 아는 사람도...
I here alone came anybody not have know person
'I came here all by myself. I have nobody to know'
80. T: Hum?
81. B: 혼자 왔다구요. 미국에 혼자 있어요. 다른 가족들 다 한국에 있어요. (.3)
Alone came US to alone exist another family all Korea in exist
'I said I came alone. I'm alone in US. My family is all in Korea'
Got it?
82. T: 가족에, 가족은
f*amily in family*
'In your family, your family'
83. B: 다 모두 한국에 있고
a*ll together Korea in exist and*
'They're all in Korea and'
84. T: 모두 한국에
all Korea in
'All in Korea'
85. B: 저 혼자
I alone
'By myself'

86. T: 하, 혼
Al(one), alo(ne)
'Al(one), alo(ne)'
87. B: 미국에 있고
US in exist and
'I'm in US and'
88. T: 혼자 왔어요?
alone came
'You came alone?'
89. B: Yeah. (11)
90. T: Uh, (.3) 형은, 결혼했어요?
uh older brother got married
'Uh, did your older brother get married?'
91. B: 아직, 아직은. 할 거예요, 할 거래요. I'm not sure.(laughs)
not yet not yet do will do will said I'm not sure
'Not yet, not yet. He will, he said he will. I'm not sure'
92. T: ((laughs))
93. B: He told me, but I'm not sure.
94. T: ((laughs))
95. B: 할 거라고는 하는데 모르겠어요.
do will said not know
'He said he will, but I don't know'
96. T: ((laughs))

In contrast Dan's embracing his preferred English matrix code, in the present excerpt, the non-heritage learner Tim tried to purposefully to maintain Korean production. In turns 60, 76 and 90, for example, he himself used Korean to initiate new topics. In addition to initiating new topics and asking questions in Korean, he repeatedly attempted to utter those key Korean lexemes that he heard from his conversation partner (Bum) in the proceeding turns (see turns 64, 66, 68, 82, 84, 86 and 88).

Nonetheless, due to his lack of competence in Korean, Tim did switch back to his L1 from time to time. For him, maintaining Korean was likely to carry a great deal of cognitive burden, revealing conflict between his commitment to practicing his L2 and his lack of competence. Evidence of this burden comes from long pauses (pauses

longer than 3 seconds) when making a new sentence in Korean (turns 60, 76 and 90) and inconsistency of his attempts throughout the example segment as well as all of his segments transcribed in this study.

Sometimes, however, the burden of trying to express emotions and higher order thinking was evident even among more advanced HL learners. In the face of those linguistic burdens, even these relatively advanced learners often had to occasionally code-switch into English, as evidenced in Diary Excerpt 40.

Diary Excerpt 40 (Ha's first diary)

> I could understand K (conversation partner) perfectly, but I had a little trouble expressing my feelings and trying to get across what I was saying. This made me feel a little more self conscious about speaking Korean. A lot of specific things I wanted to say, I had to say it in English because I did not know the Korean equivalent word.

Repair/Reformulation in Learner Discourse

저는 I'm nineteen, let's say, 열아홉 살이에요
'I, I'm nineteen, let's say I'm nineteen'

Code-switching in this data set occasionally aimed at repairing or correcting language errors (Alfonzetti,1998) in both directions, from Korean to English and from English to Korean. Many within-turn code switches represented efforts at linguistic self-repair. (Of course the data contain many instances of CPs correcting KLLs, as well. However, since this study examines only learner language, those episodes are not reported here.) An example of self-repair is given in Discourse Excerpt 20.

Discourse Excerpt 20 (Hyung's end segment of the third meeting)

35. H: 어. 그거 배웠고
Yeah that learned and
'Yeah, I learned that and'

36. Y: 음
yeah
'Yeah'
37. H: 음. 또 중국 restaurant, 중국 식당에 가서
yeah also Chinese restaurant Chinese to restaurant go then
'Yeah. Also I went to Chinese restaurant, Chinese restaurant and then'
38. Y: 음
yeah
'Yeah'
39. H: 자장면 먹고
Chinese noodle ate and
'We ate Chinese noodle and'
40. Y: 엄마가 좋아하셨어?
mom liked
'Did your mom like it?'
41. H: 기름이 너무 많아서
oil too much so
'It was too oily so'
42. Y: 음
yeah
'Yeah'
43. H: 좀 그랬는데
a little so but
'It was so-so, but'
44. Y: 자장면 먹고 싶다
Chinese noodle to eat want
'I want to eat Chinese noodle'
45. H: 난 짬뽕
I Chinese spicy noodle soup
'For me, Chinese spicy noodle soup'

As in Excerpt 20, the heritage KLL Hyung momentarily switched his code to English (*restaurant*), while the surrounding stretch of talk was entirely in Korean. Apparently the English word came to mind before its Korean equivalent. However, without any pause he immediately switched his code back to Korean when he recalled the vocabulary item he had momentarily forgotten.

In another Korean HL learner's conversation, the switches back and forth carried out by the learner signal the solution to a memory lapse problem.

Discourse Excerpt 21 (Ha's end segment of the second meeting)

41. K: 차를 타고 간 거야?
    car ride go
    'Did you go there by car?'
42. H: [차 타고
    car ride
    'By car'
43. K: [어
    I see
    'I see'
44. H: 가서 본 다음에, 거기서 모텔에서 잔 다음에,
    go and see then there at motel sleep next
    'After we went and saw we slept at a motel, then'
45. K: 어
    yeah
    'Yeah'
46. H: 일어나서 무슨 tutor, 아니 tutor 아니고 tutor, 아이고, touring,
    got up then that tutor no tutor no tutor alas touring
    'After we got up that tutor, no tutor, no tutor, alas touring'
47. K: tour
48. H: touring 그거 보고 다시 내려 왔지.
    Touring that saw again down came
    'Touring, we had it and came back'

In Discourse Excerpt 21, Ha (the HL learner) was talking with Ki (the conversation partner) about a college visit that he took in his senior year of high school to decide to which colleges he should apply. In turn 46, he switched to English when he had difficulty finding a right word in Korean, but the English word (*tutor*) he uttered was likewise not what he was looking for, and in the process of finding an appropriate word he switched back to Korean several times in the same turn. Some of the code-switching entailed Korean back-channel utterances (*아니* 'no', *아니고* 'no', *아이고* 'alas') commenting on his self-repairing. His search for the English word points to his momentary lack of competence in the matrix language, Korean (in which he was otherwise rather proficient).

The following excerpt drawn from one non-heritage learner's conversation is another example of self-repair by code-switching.

Discourse Excerpt 22 (Mat's end segment of the first meeting)

137. A: How old are you? Are you like ten?
138. M: no, 아니오, 매트는
no no Mat
'No, no, Mat is'
139. A: 다섯 살이에요
Five years be
'He is five old years'
140. M: 저는
I
'I'
141. A: 저는 세 살이에요
I three years be
'I'm three years old'
142. M: No, 저는 I'm nineteen. Let's say, 열아홉 살이에요, 저는
no I I'm nineteen. Let's say, nineteen years be I
'No, I, I'm nineteen. Let's say, I am nineteen years old'
143. A: um hum
144. M: 열아홉 시, 열아홉 살이에요
Nineteen hours, nineteen years be
'Nineteen hours, nineteen years old'
145. A: (laughs) okay

In Excerpt 22, Mat (a non-HL learner) was conversing with his conversation partner, who was also his girlfriend. In turn 137, Ana (the partner) was joking around about Mat's age in English. In the following turn, Mat converged to Ana's choice of code and replied in English, which was in fact own his preferred language (*no*). But he almost immediately switched back to Korean (*아니오* 'no'), because he, as a motivated learner, seemed aware that speaking English was not appropriate in the conversational context. In turn 142, Mat switched to English from Korean to respond to Ana's joke (*no*), showing his strong objection, and then in a task-oriented move

switched back to Korean (*저는* 'I'). Then, again, he interrupted himself to switch back to English for a rephrasing purpose. He self-repaired his 'wrong' choice of English to Korean (*열아홉 살이에요,* 'I'm nineteen years old') while starting with the English discourse marker (*let's say*) that provided information that the successive Korean utterance would be related to the previous English utterance. At the end of the turn 142, Mat tried to utter the complete sentence again including the subject, but only managed to say, *저는* 'I'. He was then interrupted by Ana and did not complete his utterance. In turn 144, he continued his utterance but made an error. He self-repaired his wrong utterance (*열아홉 시*) by interrupting himself and saying it correctly without any hesitance (*열아홉 살* 'nineteen years old'). This self-repair, however, was accomplished entirely in the target language.

The Role of Speakers

Nature 한국말로 뭐야?
'How do you say "nature" in Korean?'
Do you have any English questions?

In addition to the language proficiency of the learner, another factor influencing code-switching pertains to assigned roles and tasks leading to asymmetries in participatory rights and obligations, and consequently to specific patterns of distribution of conversational features (Itakura, 2001). In fact, the conversation partner dyads in this study were inherently asymmetrical. One member of the dyad was cast in the role of non-native speaker and therefore novice, while the other took on the role of native speaker and therefore expert. In the course of conversation, the learner participants taking on the role of novices usually sought some help, often a vocabulary item in Korean, from their native-speaking conversation partners. They signaled this information seeking posture by means of

code-switching. The following excerpts exemplify this phenomenon related to the asymmetric roles of speakers.

Discourse Excerpt 23 (Yu's end segment of the second meeting)

1. B: 엄마랑 전화 통화는 자주 해요?
   mom with phone call often do
   'Do you often talk to your mom on the phone?'
2. Y: 네
   yes
   'Yes'
3. B: 아, 그렇구나, 근데 전화 통화 자주 하면 좀
   ah I see but phone call often do a little
   'Ah I see. But since you often talk on the phone'
4. Y: 네
   yes
   'Yes'
5. B: 자주 안 가도, 네, 그래요
   often not go yes be so
   'you don't have to go often. Yes, I see'
6. Y: Uh, like weekend, 어떻게 해요?
   uh like weekend how do
   'Uh, like weekend, how do you say?'
7. B: Weekend?
8. Y: 네
   yes
   'Yes'
9. B: 주말
   weekend
   'Weekend'
10. Y: 주말, 주말에 시간 있으면 마리에타 가요
    weekend on weekend time have to Marietta go
    'Weekend, if I have time on weekend I go to Marietta'

In Discourse Excerpt 23, the HL learner (Yu) was talking with her conversation partner (Byul) in Korean about how often she talked to and visited her parents. In turn 6, she had difficulty finding the Korean equivalent of "weekend." In an attempt to search for the right word, she interrupted herself by emitting a single backchannel utterance, (*uh)* and the discourse marker (*like)* in English, followed by

the English utterance for the word she tried to say (*weekend)*. Then she explicitly stated the Korean question (*어떻게 해요?* 'How do you say?'), seeking help from her conversation partner. Once she found the word with the help from Byul, she uttered it in Korean in the following turn (turn 10) and completed her utterance in Korean.

Discourse Excerpt 24 illustrates another example of code-switching of a non-HL learner related to the asymmetric expertise of the two speakers.

Discourse Excerpt 24 (Bri's end segment of the third meeting)

68. B: 뭘요
    nothing
    '"Nothing"'
69. M: 뭘요 is a same meaning
    "*nothing" is a same meaning*
    '"Nothing" has the same meaning'
70. B: It's, it's okay
71. M: Yeah, it's okay
72. B: 뭘요
    "nothing"
    '"Nothing"'
73. M: 음, 괜찮아요, 뭘요
    um"no problem" " nothing"
    'Um, "no problem", "nothing"'
74. B: Could I say 아니오?
    could I say "no"
    'Could I say "no"?'
75. M: 아니오, 아니오. 아, 괜찮아요, 뭘요.
    "no" "no" ah "no problem" "nothing"
    '"No", "no" ah, "no problem", "nothing"'
76. B: Okay

The non-HL learner (Bri) was offered help in the form of instruction about the appropriate use of the Korean expression *뭘요* 'nothing', 'don't mention it', 'okay'. In turn 74, she further asked for help from her conversation partner (Myung) by explicitly posing the question *Could I say 아니오?* 'Could I say no?'.

As seen in the excerpts above, the KLL members of the dyads in this study were cast in the role of novice information seeker, while the conversation partners took on the role of expert source of knowledge. On occasion, however, the role was reversed. This occurred when KLLs assumed the more powerful role of expert and teacher by virtue of their status as native speakers of English. Under these circumstances, both speakers were very likely to converge to English, because it afforded the conversation partners an opportunity to practice their English. The following excerpts illustrate code-switching explained by the reversed role of native and non-native speakers.

Discourse Excerpt 25 (Mike's end segment of the first meeting)

48. M: ((laughs)) Oh my god, 과자 주세요, and she will be like, huh? 이뻐요.
cookie give *pretty*
'Give me some cookie, please' 'You're pretty'
((laughs)) All right. How do you say teacher again? Like, like my teacher or teacher? Um there, I have the word somewhere, but I can't remember, uh, it wasn't in my vocab, I feel like a dumb
49. S: 선생님
"Ms. teacher"
'"Ms. Teacher"'
50. M: 선, oh, the whole thing, 선
"tea(cher)" oh the whole thing "tea(chear)"
'"Tea(cher), oh the whole thing, "tea(cher)"'
51. S: 선생님
"Ms. teacher"
'"Ms. Teacher"'
52. M: 선생, 선생
"teacher" "teacher"
'"Teacher", "teacher"'
53. S: 생님
"Ms. (tea)cher"
'"Ms. (Tea)cher"'
54. M: 님
"Ms."
'"Ms."'

55. S: Okay 선생님 means teacher, so
okay "Ms. Teacher" means teacher so
'Okay, "Ms. Teacher" means teacher so'
56. M: Uh huh, so I say 선생님 이뻐요?
uh huh so I say Ms. teacher pretty
'Uh huh. So, I say "Ms. Teacher, you're pretty?"'
57. S: Yeah that's, that's cool.
58. M: I mean like teacher,
59. S: Yeah, yeah
60. M: You're really beautiful like that?
61. S: Yeah, yeah
62. M: All right, 선생
all right "teacher"
'All right, "Teacher"'
63. S: 생님 이뻐요
Ms. (tea)cher pretty
'Ms. (Tea)cher you're prtty'
64. M: 이뻐요 all right, all right, I'll write the whole phrase down, cause I just
pretty
'You're pretty'
don't want to say, hey 수지 씨. 선생님 이뻐요. ((writes it down)) Ok
ay
Sooji Ms. Teacher Ms. pretty
'Ms. Sooji, Ms. Teacher, you're pretty'
65. S: Okay
66. M: Yeah, all right, cool. ((laughs)) All right, so do you have any English qu
estions?
67. S: No
68. M: You think you really just want to ask about
69. S: Um
70. M: I can't guarantee I'm gonna know the answers if you have a really diffic
ult one, but
71. S: Maybe, maybe next time I can, uh, um I may bring uh some papers for qu
estions, so
72. M: All right
73. S: Not this time, maybe next time
74. M: Okay

Discourse Excerpt 25 clearly shows the reversal of the role of speakers. In the beginning of the conversation (turns 48-66), the non-HL learner (Mike) clearly took on the role of language learner as a non-native speaker and learned from his Korean conversation partner (Sun) one Korean complimentary expression and the

pragmatically appropriate context in which he could use the expression. Considerable switching into English was required for this transaction, however. In turn 48, Mike tried to practice the new expression (*이뻐요*, 'you're pretty') by switching his code from English to Korean, then he switched back to English while searching for the Korean lexical item for *teacher.* Once he got the hang of the new lexical item in turns 50-54, he uttered the completed expression *선생님 이뻐요* 'Teacher, you're beautiful.' In his position as novice, he said, *so I say,* to confirm with Sun, in the role of expert.

However, later in this conversation, a different picture emerged in terms of the role of speakers. In turn 66, Mike changed his role to that of native speaker/expert in that he offered help to his conversation partner. He was trying to reciprocate the favor of giving L2 information to Sun and thus chose the code of the conversation and continued speaking English. Sun followed his lead and complied with Mike's choice of code.

Discourse Excerpt 26, extracted from one non-HL speaker's (Hyo) conversation, is one extreme example of the reversed role of speakers (although this example does not involve code switching, *per se*).

Discourse Excerpt 26 (Hyo's end segment of the second meeting)

27. H: Um...or...you can say can I leave a message? ((writes))
28. J: Okay
29. H: Like yeah if you want him to call you back you should probably say thi s first. can I leave a message. and then, maybe they will be like sure, okay. .. and... maybe you can leave a phone number or you can say uh I don't kn ow there's a party at 6 o'clock... or anything...
30. J: Okay
31. H: After, after can I leave a message...I mean you are asking, but.... they'll always say, yes.
32. J: Okay, I ask you just one more thing
33. H: Uh huh

During the entire approximately 5-minute long segment, Hyo took on the role of native speaker of English while giving his conversation partner (Jay) instruction about English telephone conversation expressions and the use of the English word *hot*. In fact, in the entire conversational episode from which this extract was drawn, Hyo took only 6 turns that switched code either from Korean to English or from English to Korean and produced only 5 Korean words over 266 English words. More strikingly, due to the role he took on during this conversation, he produced more words than did his native Korean speaking conversation partner, 271 vs. 160, which was very uncommon among other conversation partner interactions.

Morphosyntactic Integration in Code-Switching

potato-가 뭐죠?
'What is potato (in Korean)?'

In most cases of code-switching in this study, free morpheme forms that were mainly nouns from the nonmatrix language were inserted into the matrix language frame. The matrix language, however, was not fixed in any sense across the conversation. That is, which language functioned as the matrix language often changed within the course of a conversation, depending heavily on the learner's proficiency. In terms of linguistic analysis, congruencies and non-congruencies between Korean and English in terms of morphosyntactic structure were one of the factors that played a role in choosing the code. For example, numerous Korean suffixes and particles do not have counterparts in English. Under this circumstance, if the learner did not have competence enough to use Korean suffixes and particles, they often resorted to inserting a single form that was in most cases a noun in their L1 language frame. The following excerpt illustrates the learner's choice of code depending on the learner's competence in dealing with morphosyntactic discrepancies between Korean and English:

Discourse Excerpt 27 (Hyung's end segment of the second meeting)

30. H: The 환율,
    the currency
    'The currency'
31. Y: 음
    yeah
    'Yeah'
32. H: in 태국,
    in Thailand
    'In Thailand'
33. Y: 음
    yeah
    'Yeah'
34. H: is really low.

Referring to the Myers-Scotton's (1992) matrix language frame model, the matrix language was English and the embedded language was Korean in this conversation. The HL learner's utterances in turns 30, 32, and 34 were interrupted by his partner's back-channel utterances. The utterances in turns 30 and 32 were uttered within the frame of the matrix language + embedded language constituent: the matrix language system morphemes *the* and *in* and the single lexeme embedded language forms *환율* 'currency' and *태국* 'Thailand'. These single code-switching forms were integrated into the syntax of the matrix language. The utterance in turn 34 *is really low* exemplified an matrix language island constituent that consisted only of matrix language morphemes.

On the contrary, the learner who had enough competence inserted single English words into the Korean morphosyntactic structure. In *potato-가 뭐죠?* 'what is potato (in Korean)?', for instance, the nominative particle *-가* followed by a complement verb phrase *뭐죠* is attached to the English code-switching form *potato*. The learner who uttered this was a high-competence HL learner. In fact, this kind of

English lexeme insertion into the Korean matrix language frame occurred only in high-HL learners' conversations and no instance of this phenomenon of morphosyntactically integrated code-switching occurred in non-heritage learners' conversations. More examples of English forms attaching to Korean particles appear in Discourse Excerpts 28-30 extracted from several HL learners' conversations:

Discourse Excerpt 28 (Ha's mid segment of the fourth meeting)

Billion-이 뭐지?
billion what is
'what is billion (in Korean)?'

Discourse Excerpt 29 (Na's mid segment of the third meeting)

그런데 wings-는 좀 비싸.
but wings little expensive
'but wings are a little expensive'

Discourse Excerpt 30 (Yu's beginning segment of the fourth meeting)

what day-는 아니고
what day not be
'what day is not (right)'

The following utterances exemplify the morphosyntactic integration in intrasentential code-switching that occurred due to another syntactic discrepancy between Korean and English, word order.

Discourse Excerpt 31 (Yu's beginning segment of the fourth meeting)

She's, she's a good actress-예요
she's she's a good actress-be
'she's, she's a good actress'

Unlike in English, the predicate verb comes at the end of a sentence in Korean. The HL learner (Yu) finished a complete English utterance, but then inserted the Korean predicate verb at the end. Inserting the Korean predicate at the end of the sentence made for redundancy as well as lack of grammaticality in the English matrix setence. However, this morphosyntactic integration has significance beyond its grammaticality: Yu seemed aware of the syntactic difference between Korean and English, which is that Korean predicate always occur at the end of the sentence. In addition, she was aware of the honorific system of direct grammatical encodings of the relative social status between her and her conversation partner. This awareness is an essential part of linguistic and communicative competence for the speaker of Korean, and it may account forher addition of the Korean predicate verb at the end of the English sentence. She wanted to say, "She's a good actress," and this English sentence can be used to address almost anyone. She might have considered this neutral English sentence rude in light of her interlocutor's Korean identity. Therefore she tried to find a solution to make her utterance polite: placing the polite predicate at the end of the neutral English sentence. In Korean, the choice of certain linguistic forms is obligatory in the light of social convention, and honorific forms can appear in sentence ending. Her use of the Korean predicate that also denotes a polite level of her speech reflects that she was constantly aware of her place in relation to her conversation partner in this learning context. In other words, by adding the redundant Korean predicate, she demonstrated respect to her native Korean speaking conversation partner, which was impossible to show in English. Although this type of pragmatic feature of Korean would have been taught in class, it would be difficult for a non-heritage learner to be constantly aware of this deeper meaning of pragmatic

features of Korean. Not surprisingly, the same type of morphosyntactically integrated code-switching never occurred in the conversations of non-HL KLLs.

Code-Switching for Clarification/Confirmation/Assurance

그건 진짜, It's not appropriate.
'that really, it's not appropriate'

To overcome misunderstanding and/or to clarify uncertainty, regardless of heritage status, KLLs often switched their code to English. Several examples of this phenomenon of code-switching appear in Discourse Excerpts 32 and 33.

Discourse Excerpt 32 (Na's end segment of the second meeting)

1. N: 형은 동생이나 다른 형제 있어?
   Older brother younger sibling or other sibling have
   'Do you have any younger sibling or any sibling?'
2. K: 어, 나는 여동생 두 명 있어
   Yeah I younger sister two persons have
   'Yeah, I have two younger sisters'
3. N: 여동생 두 명
   younger sister two persons
   'Two younger sisters'
4. K: 어, 한 명은 지금, 큰 애는 지금 한국에 학교 다니고 한국에서 의대 다닌다, 의대.
   Yeah one person now older one now in Korea school attend in Korea medical school attend medical school
   'Yeah, one of them now attends a school in Korea. She attends a medical school in Korea. Medical school'
5. N: 아이고
   alas
   'Alas'
6. K: 막내는 사우디에서 공부하고 있을 거야.
   youngest in Saudi Arabia study is doing maybe
   'The youngest one studies in Saudi Arabia, I guess'
7. N: 어디?
   where
   'Where?'
8. K: 사우디에서 학교 다닐 거야.
   Saudi Arabia in school attend maybe
   'She attends school in Saudi Arabia, I guess'
9. N: Saudi Arabia?

10. K: 어
    yeah
    'Yeah'
11. N: The country?
12. K: Yeah
13. N: 왜?
    why
    'Why?'

In Discourse Excerpt 32, the surrounding stretch of talk of the HL learner Na was entirely comfortable in Korean except for turns 9, 11, 19 and 23. He instantly switched his code to English (*Saudi Arabia*) from the code he spoke in the previous turns for the clarification purpose. In the same line, he kept the switched code in turn 11 asking the question *The country?*, because he was still uncertain (or incredulous). After he got an affirmative response in English from his conversation partner in the following turn, he switched back to Korean, his initial choice of code.

The following excerpt was extracted from one non-HL learner's conversation.

Discourse Excerpt 33 (Bri's end segment of the third meeting)

31. M: 안녕하십니까, 감사합니다, 아니 고맙습니다, 고마워요 same.
    "hello" "thank you" no "thank you" "thank you" same
    '"Hello", "thank you" no, "thank you", "thank you" they are the same'
    Makes sense?
32. B: Oh same meaning?
33. M: Yeah, yeah.
34. B: Yes.
35. M: 고맙
    "thank"
    '"Thank (you)"'
36. B: 고맙
    "thank"
    '"Thank (you)"'
37. M: 습니다
    ENDING
    '"(Thank) you"'

38. B: Because of the same 습니다?
    because of the same ENDING
    'Because of the same ENDING?'
39. M: Yeah, 고마워요 and 반갑습니다, 반가워요 makes sense, 워요, 워요, 습니다
    yeah "thank you" and "nice to meet you", "nice to meet you" makes sense, ENDING, ENDING, ENDING
    'Yeah "thank you" and "nice to meet you", "nice to meet you" makes sense, ENDING, ENDING, ENDING'
40. B: So you can put, place that, for that?
41. M: Yeah, just 워요, 워요
    yeah just ENDING, ENDING
    'Yeah, just ENDING, ENDING'
42. B: So one is 반갑습니다 or um 반가워요?
    so one is "nice to meet you" or um "nice to meet you"
    'So one is "nice to meet you" or um "nice to meet you?"'
43. M: 반가워요, 고맙습니다, 고마워요
    "nice to meet you" "thank you" "thank you"
    '"Nice to meet you", "thank you", "thank you"'
44. B: 고마워
    "*thank"*
    '"Thank y(ou)"'
45. M: 워요
    ENDING
    'ENDING'
46. B: So both are "thank you"?
47. M: Yeah, same, same meaning
48. B: Okay

In the conversation above, the different sentence endings with the same meaning, which differed by speech levels of politeness (e.g., *반갑습니다* vs. *반가워요*, 'Nice to meet you', as seen in turn 42), were unclear to Bri, because the subject itself was one of the hardest grammatical features of Korean and her conversation partner's explanation was not sufficiently explanatory. Consequently Bri tried to understand and clarify those unfamiliar forms by switching to her L1 (turns 32, 38, 40, 46).

The following excerpt portrays code-switching from a slightly different angle, still related to the clarification function.

Discourse Excerpt 34 (Na's mid segment of the first meeting)

42. N: 다른 문제
another subject
'Anther subject'
43. K: 여자 친구랑 어디까지 갔어요?
girlfriend with how far went
'How far were you with your girlfriend?'
44. N: 그건 진짜, It's not appropriate.
that really it's not appropriate
'That's really, it's not appropriate'
45. K: Okay 그러면 누구나 다 경험하는 거. 손은 언제 처음 잡아 봤어요?
okay then everybody all experienced thing hand when first hold tried
'Okay, then this is what everybody experiences. When did you hold her hand?'
46. N: 기억이 안 납니다.
memory not recall
'I don't recall'

In Excerpt 34, the HL learner's (Na) was talking about his girlfriend upon his conversation partner's (Ki) initiative. Throughout the conversation, his choice of code was Korean. Considering that Ki and Na were good friends beyond the scope of the conversation partner meetings, the personal topic of the conversation was natural for them. However, it seemed that Na became conscious of being tape-recorded, and he started feeling uncomfortable about the topic. In fact, even before the stretch of talk shown in this excerpted transcription, Na had tried to avoid answering Ki's intimate questions and asked him to change the topic in turn 42 (*다른 문제* 'another topic'). Ki persisted, however, and Na finally found Ki's question in turn 43 inappropriate. In turn 44, Na began to respond to Ki's inappropriate question by speaking Korean at first (*그건 진짜* 'that really'), then he instantly decided to switch to English to show that he was not comfortable with the question and to get the point straight to his partner. His objective in switching the code to English was accomplished, and Ki

made a slight change in the topic of the conversation immediately. In the following turns, Na switched back to Korean while answering less uncomfortable questions.

Code Switching to Emphasize Shared Norms and Culture

드렁큰타이거, You know?
'Drunken Tiger, you know?'

As expected and as hoped, a great many exchanges of cultural information took place between learners and their conversation partners. Learner participants tried to learn more about Korea and to share the target culture with their conversation partners during these meetings. While doing so, code-switching often occurred, in part because those culture-specific terms were mostly Korean, and they affected the amount of Korean that the learners spoke. Two excerpts extracted from transcripts of one HL learner and one non-HL learner exemplify this element of code-switching.

Discourse Excerpt 35 (Yu's end segment of the third meeting)

42. H: 자, 처음부터 끝까지 한 번 불러 볼게요.
well beginning from end till one time sing will try
'Well, I'll try to sing it from the beginning till the end'
43. Y: 네
yes
'Yes'
44. H: 동해물과 백두산이 마르고 닳도록 하느님이 보우하사 우리나라 만세
East sea and Mt. Baekdu until drained and abraded God protect so our country long live
'Until East Sea is drained, and Mt. Baekdu is abraded, May God protect Korea and long live our land'
45. Y: 동해물과 백두산이 마르고 닳도록 하느님이 보우하사 우리나라 만세
East sea and Mt. Baekdu until drained and abraded God protect so our country long live
'Until East Sea is drained, and Mt. Baekdu is abraded, May God protect Korea and long live our land.
46. H: Okay. 좋습니다. 무궁화 삼천리 화려강산 대한사람 대한으로 길이 보전하세
okay be good Rose of Sharon whole land flourishing land Korean people to Korea forever preserve
'Okay, it's good. The whole flourishing land of Rose of Sharon, May Korean people preserve Korea forever'

47. Y: 무궁화 삼천리 화려강산 대한사람 대한으로 길이 보전하세
Rose of Sharon whole land flourishing land Korean people to Korea forever preserve
'The whole flourishing land of Rose of Sharon, May Korean people preserve Korea forever'
48. H: Good job
49. Y: ((coughs))
50. H: 한 번, 한 번 그리고, 뭐 걸어가면서 생각나면 흥얼흥얼 음을 흥얼흥얼 하
one time one time and what while walking if recalled humming melody humming
면 가사는 있으니까. 음을 잃어버리면 하기가 힘들거든요. 음을
if lyric have melody lose to do difficult melody
'Once, once and like if you recall it while walking you can sing the melody because
you know the lyric. If you forget the melody it's hard to sing, the melody.'
51. Y: Uh huh
52. H: ((hums))
53. Y: ((hums))
54. B: 이렇게 Korean anthem 을 알고 있는 건 좋은 거예요.
like this Korean anthem knowing good thing is
'Like this it's good for you to know Korean national anthem'
55. Y: 예
yes
'Yes'
56. B: 근데 지금 몇 시예요?
but now what time is
'By the way, what time is it now?'
57. Y: Eleven forty two
58. B: Eleven forty two, okay, okay
59. Y: 아빠한테 전화해 가지고 노래해 줘야지
dad to call and sing give
'I'll call my dad and sing this for him'
60. B: 아빠한테요?
dad to
'To your dad?'
61. Y: 예
yes
'Yes'

During this conversation, Yu (a HL KLL) learned the Korean national anthem from her conversation partner (Byul). Yu specifically requested this cultural information, which was beyond expectations according to the guideline for the conversation provided by her teacher. She was expected to practice with her

conversation partner one or two of the children's songs that she learned in class for her presentation in the classroom. Since those songs seemed too easy for her, she asked Byul to teach her the Korean national anthem in this conversation. Therefore, during the entire the conversation the use of Korean words was great (a total of 95 Korean words were produced, while total of only 14 English words were produced, during the approximately five-minute segment) due to the culture-specific topic of conversation. In turn 58, Yu switched her code to English to answer the question posed Byul in turn 57 *근데 지금 몇 시예요?* "What time is it now?", because it had nothing to do with sharing cultural information. Perhaps English just came to her mind first, because the topic was changed all of a sudden. However, in turn 60, she went back to the topic they had been discussing previously, and correspondingly switched her code back to Korean. Yu's pride and excitement about learning this culturally linked emblem (i.e., the Korean national anthem) was reflected in her resumption of Korean in this turn-by-turn organization of interaction, and resulted in her greater use of the target language.

Cultural affinity was also at play in this next incident, involving a non-HL learner, Tim. Tim was excited by the culture-specific topic and kept switching his code from and to Korean.

Discourse Except 36 (Tim's beginning segment of the fourth meeting)

1. B: 좋아하는 가수 누구?
   like singer who
   'Who is your favorite singer?'
2. T: (.5) 보아가 좋아요 ((laughs))
   BoA is favorable
   'I like BoA'
3. B: ((laughs))

4. T: 코요테도
   Coyote also
   'Coyote as well'
5. B: 네?
   what
   'What?'
6. T: 좋아해요
   like
   '(I) Like (her)'
7. B: 코요테?
   Coyote
   'Coyote?'
8. T: 코요테.
   Coyote
   'Coyote?'
9. B: 남, 남자예요, 여자예요? 남자가 좋아요, 여자가 좋아요?
   bo(y), boy is girl is boy is favorable girl is favorable
   'Do you like a boy or a girl?'
10. T: Both, whole.
11. B: 에이, 에이.
    no no
    'I don't believe so'
12. T: ((laughs))
13. B: I don't think so
14. T: ((laughs))
15. B: 가수 보아, 코요테 말고 또 누구 좋아요?
    singer BoA Coyote besides also who like
    'Besides BoA and Coyote, who else do like?'
16. T: Huh?
17. B: 보아, 코요테 말고 또 누구 알아요? 가수 중에...
    BoA Coyote besides also who know singer among
    'Besides BoA and Coyote, who else do you know among singers?'
18. T: 알아는, 아는 가수, 수?
    know know singer (sing)er
    'Singer that I know?'
19. B: Uh huh.
20. T: (.5) Uh (.7)
21. B: Anyone else
22. T: 차태현?
    Cha, Taehyun
    'Cha, Taehyun'
23. B: 차태현?
    Cha, Taehyun
    'Cha, Taehyun'
24. T: ((laughs))
25. B: 가수 아니에요, 그냥
    singer not be just
    'He is not a singer, he's just'

26. T: Yeah, 가수예요.
yeah singer is
'Yeah, he is a singer'
27. B: No, he's actor!
28. T: Two CDs.
29. B: Two CDs, but 아, he sucks.
30. T: ((laughs))
31. B: ((laughs)) I don't know. He's kind of actor.
32. T: Yeah. Uh,
33. B: 그리고 또 누구 알아요
and also who know
'And who else do you know?'
34. T: Ah, uh, (.5) uh, 베이비복스?
ah uh uh Babybox
'Ah, uh, uh Babybox'
35. B: 베이비복스? Yeah, I knew you were gonna say them ((laughs))
Babybox
'Babybox?'
36. T: ((laughs)) I was trying to think of guys
37. B: 아, 베이비복스, holy, 베이비복스, 베이비복스 are girl.
ah Babybox holy Babybox Babybox
'Ah, Babybox, holy. Babybox, Babybox are girls.'
38. T: ((laughs))
39. B: 그 중에 이름도 알아요? 베이비복스, 그 사람들?
them among name know Babybox those persons
'Among them do you know anybody's name, Babybox?
40. T: 간미연?
Gan, Miyeon
'Gan, Miyeon'
41. B: 간미연?
Gan, Miyeon
'Gan, Miyeon'
42. T: 좋아요
is favorable
'(I) Like (her)'

(20 turns omitted)

62. T: 드렁큰타이거? you know?
Drunken Tiger you know
'Drunken Tiger, you know?'
63. B: Oh yeah 잘 해요, 랩 잘 해요. Do you, do you like singing?
well do rap well do
'They do rap well, very well'
64. T: Some songs
65. B: What kind?
66. T: I like "남자기 때문에".
I like "man cause"
'I like "Cause I'm a man"'

67. B: 남자기 때문에?
"man cause"
'"Cause I'm a man?"'
68. T: ((laughs))
69. B: 이해해요? 그거?
understand that
'Do you understand that?'
70. T: Huh?
71. B: 알아 들을 수 있어요?
understand can
'Can you understand?'
72. T: No ((laughs))

(8 turns omitted)

81. B: 또 뭐, 배우, 배우, 뭐, 배우 중에 누가 좋아요?
Also which actor actor which actor among who favorable
'Who else do you like among actors?'
82. T: 배우? (.5) Ah, I, I can't think of any right now.
actor
'Actor?'
83. B: Come on. I can wait
84. T: ((laughs)) (.4) 여자만 알아요.
girl only know
'I know only girls'
85. B: Oh, it's okay. Say the name.
86. T: Uh, 전지현, 이은주, uh, 손예진. ((laughs))
uh Jun, Jihyun Lee, Eunjoo uh Sohn, Yejin
'Uh, Jun, Jihyun, Lee, Eunjoo, uh, Sohn, Yejin'
87. B: ((laughs))
88. T: 신민아, (.5) 하, 하, 하, 하, 하지,
Shin, Mina Ha Ha Ha Ha Ha, Ji
'Shin, Mina. Ha, Ha, Ha, Ha, Ha, Ji'
89. B: 하지원.
Ha, Jiwon
'Ha, Jiwon'
90. T: 하지원.
Ha, Jiwon
'Ha, Jiwon'
91. B: 하지원.
Ha, Jiwon
'Ha, Jiwon'
92. T: yeah

In this conversation, Tim engaged in a great deal of cultural exchange with his conversation partner (Bum). They talked about Korean singers, songs, and movie

stars. As was common among non-HL language learners, Tim's Korean language competence was relatively weak, and therefore much of the conversation took place in English. Tim seemed especially firm in his commitment to learn Korean and knowledgeable about Korean culture. (The evidence for this assessment of Tim's commitment actually derives from the investigator's contact with him in class, rather than from data collected strictly in conjunction with this study. It was observed, for example, that especially for a non-heritage language learner, Tim was actively involved in learning Korean and its popular culture in and outside the classroom.) It seemed that his interest in the target culture escalated his learning of the language, considering his repeated efforts to code-switch to Korean every time he had lapsed back into English. He wanted to demonstrate solidarity with Korean culture and tried to speak Korean as much as he could, and his efforts resulted in his frequent Korean code-switching initiatives. Despite his efforts, however, his lack of competence in Korean again necessitated his code-switching from Korean to English, as discussed in the beginning of this section. Besides personal names or proper nouns such as song titles (*남자기 때문에* appeared in turns 66 and 67), whenever he felt competent he tried to make up a sentence or a phrase in Korean (turns 2, 4, 6, 18, 42, 84) and switched his code either from English to Korean (turn 26) or from Korean to English (turn 82) intrasententially. It should be acknowledged that his CP, Bum, seemed to be encouraging code-switching, as he engaged in quite a bit of it himself.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter first provides a very brief summary of the results of the study, organized according to the research questions. It then discusses the findings with regard to previous research on motivation and learner discourse, and draws implications from the findings for FL/HL learning. Finally, it acknowledges limitations and provides suggestions for future research.

Summary of the Results

One purpose of this research was to delineate relations between selected demographic characteristics of learners of Korean and their motivation to learn this additional language. The demographic variable of particular focus was the Korean heritage status of the language learners. Heritage in this study was defined as a function of (a) parents' nationality at birth, (b) parents' native language, and (c) learner's past exposure to the L2. Thus personal language history was intimately bound up in what it meant to be a HL learner in this research. A further purpose of this study was to explore certain aspects of learner discourse in their unstructured interactions with native-Korean CPs. In particular, the study examined associations between those discourse features and learner motivation, learner heritage status, and certain aspects of conversational context such as degree of prior familiarity between learners and their CPs. The headings under which research findings are addressed in the following section correspond to the specific research questions posed in Chapter 1.

How Does Learner Heritage Status Affect Learner Motivation?

The study examined ten motivational dimensions derived from previous studies (e.g., Dornyei, 1990; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001) on motivation and attitudes toward learning additional languages. These dimensions of language learning motivation included (1) value [integrative and instrumental motivation and interest in foreign language], (2) heritage orientation [toward learning target language], (3) expectancy [for the learning process and outcomes], (4) self-efficacy, (5) anxiety, (6) competitiveness [preference for solo achievement], (7) cooperativeness [preference for collaborative achievement], (8) motivational strength [effort toward the learning tasks], (9) attitudes [toward learning language and culture in general], and (10) identity [sense of nationality/ethnicity].

It was anticipated that the motivations of HL KLLs would differ from non-HL KLLs. On the one hand, HL learners could be anticipated to have considerable external motivation (e.g., pleasing family members) as well as internal motivation (e.g., identity considerations). On the other hand, non-HL KLLs must experience considerable motivation in order to select and persist in learning this less frequently taught language. The impact of Korean heritage language status on the overall (multivariate) cluster of motivational dimensions was indeed large, accounting for about 2/3 of the variance in motivation. HL learners generally experienced more intense motivation to learn Korean than did non-HL learners. Five out of the ten individual motivation scales (heritage orientation, self-efficacy, competitiveness, attitudes, and identity) exhibited linear effects of heritage status (high, medium, or none). That is, higher levels of motivation on those scales corresponded to higher levels of Korean cultural heritage.

How Do Learners' Background Factors Affect Learner Motivation?

Personal variables that pertained to all the learners including (1) age, (2) class standing, (3) gender, (4) first language, (5) birthplace, (6) self-reported level of Korean proficiency, (7) parental first language and (8) birthplace, and (9) language use history significantly predicted all the motivational variables except for value. This cluster of predictor variables collectively explained 78% of the variance in the heritage orientation, 27% in expectancy for learning, 49% in the self-efficacy for learning, 20% in anxiety, 17% in competitive motivation, 17% in cooperative motivation, 10% in motivational strength, 17% in attitudes toward language learning and target culture, and 48% in identity-related motivation. The most powerful of the individual predictor variables for nearly all of the motivation scales was self-assessed language proficiency.

Are Conversation Variables Related to Participant/Meeting Variables?

Gender of CP

It was anticipated that, especially in light of male dominance often ascribed to Korean culture (Song, 1994, 1996), that male CPs might dominate the conversational interaction, whereas female CPs might permit more equitable distribution of talk with the KLLs. Of all of the indices of discourse derived from the CP meetings, only total number of turns exhibited a statistically significant effect, however. Those learners who had a female CP were found to take more turns than those who had a male CP.

Partner Interpersonal Familiarity

It was anticipated that prior relationships between CPs and their KLLs would facilitate conversation, increasing output and equitable turn-taking. Learners who had prior interpersonal relationships with their CPs were found to produce more Korean words than did those interacting with CPs assigned just for this class activity. By the

same token, a prior relationship with CPs—relative to no prior relationship—resulted in a higher total number of words, and also more learner initiatives to switch from English discourse back into Korean.

Sequence in the Conversation

Because it was important to discern any changes in time as a result of the CP meetings, the plan for sampling language from the conversations called for examining discourse from each of the four required CP meetings. It was anticipated that KLL conversational competence would show signs of improvement over the four meetings. The primary impact of sequence, however, was limited to the interaction with prior relationship between CPs for two variables: total words and Korean code switching. Finding from the interaction involving Korean words revealed a pattern showing mainly that at later meetings, more Korean words were used in the latter third of the conversation than in earlier sections, whereas in earlier meetings, Korean word usage fell off toward the end of the meetings.

Segment of Conversation

The discourse sampling plan also accounted the fact that language practices will likely vary as a function of the segment of the conversation from which they are drawn (beginning, middle, or end). It is possible, for example, that KLL conversational competence would "warm up" as the conversations progressed. Alternatively, it would be possible for KLLs to "lose steam" as the conversations wore on. However results indicated that segment affected only number of Korean words spoken by the language learners. For this dependent variable, conversational segment participated in a three way interaction with relationship and sequence. Findings from the Bonferroni test revealed that at the beginning of the meeting, those who had prior interpersonal relationships with their CPs produced significantly lower

Korean words at the first meeting than third meeting. At the end of the meeting, they produced significantly higher Korean words at the fourth meeting than the second and the third meetings. Also, at the third meeting they produced more Korean words at the middle of the meeting than the beginning of the meeting, and at the fourth meeting they produced more Korean words at the end of the meeting than beginning and middle of the meeting. Among those who had no prior interpersonal relationships with their CPs there were no significantly different interaction contrasts of conversational segment with relationship and sequence.

Learner heritage status

Discourse analysis of the conversation partner discussions revealed that HL learners exceeded non-HL learners on the total number of Korean words produced as well as on initiatives to code-switch from English to Korean. On the other hand, non-HL learners exceeded HL learners in initiating code-switching from Korean to English.

How Does Learner Motivation Affect Conversation?

It was anticipated that indicators of conversational activity in the target L2 would be manifest in direct proportion to KLLs' motivation. Several motivation variables exhibited moderate correlations (accounting for between 20% and 44% of variance) with discourse variables. In particular, motivation relating to heritage orientation exhibited positive correlations with Korean code-switching initiatives and with production of Korean words, and a negative correlation with English code-switching initiatives. Motivation relating to degree of Korean identity showed positive correlations with amount of Korean words and amount of Korean code-switching initiative across the meetings, but identity motivation was inversely related to total number of turns. Value motivation for learning the language was inversely correlated

with the amount of Korean words produced by learner. Self-efficacy for language learning correlated negatively with total number of turns. Finally, cooperativeness also correlated negatively with total number of words.

Discussion of Findings

The results from both quantitative and qualitative analyses can provide a much clearer picture of the motivational and conversational characteristics of KLLs. Therefore, I now revisit findings drawn from quantitative analyses, amplify and illustrate them in a qualitative fashion, and discuss them in light of previous motivation and discourse research.

Finding One: Impact of Heritage Language Status on Motivation to Learn Korean

The linear relation found in this study between heritage status of learners and five out of ten dimensions of motivation demonstrated rather clearly that heritage status was associated with learners' motivation. Specifically, those KLLs whose parents were native speakers of Korean and born in Korea and who themselves had active histories of Korean language use were more intensely motivated than those learners whose parents were non-native speakers of Korean, and/or born in outside Korea, and who had no active Korean language use histories.

Of course non-HL learners were also motivated, as they would need to be to pursue such a complicated and relatively uncommon L2 (in the US) as Korean. As one non-HL learner documented in his diary, "my incompetence just makes me want to learn it." Regardless of heritage status, then, both HL and non-HL learners needed to have some fluency in their target language. Not unlike learners in other HLs, however, Korean HLs in this study felt that they needed to have some fluency in their HL for specifically heritage-related reasons. They sometimes felt embarrassed that they were not able to communicate with their family members and friends in Korean.

While many previous motivation studies have focused on FL learning motivation of homogeneous learner groups (e.g., Kondo-Brown, 2001; Dornyei, 1990, Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996), this study investigated the measured differences in motivation of two different learner groups learning Korean in a U.S university setting: HL and non-HL learners. That motivation was found to greatly depend on their social, ethnic, linguistic factors. In that respect these findings are consistent with those based on American students learning five different foreign languages, research conducted by Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), whose instrument was modified and used in the present study. While HL learning was not a major focus of the Schmidt and Watanabe study, and their demographic data were not as refined as those collected in the present study, they nonetheless identified an orientation toward learning the language of one's own cultural heritage emerging as a distinctive component of motivation among learners of Chinese, Filipino, and Japanese.

In addition to heritage-oriented motivation for language learning, the present study examined motivation derived from ethnic/national identity. The identity dimension of motivation is based on a separate research program on ethnolinguistic identity (Maloof, 1998) and yet confirms the strong association between Korean ethnic/cultural identity-related motivation and heritage status in this study.

Similarly, other research such as that of Kondo-Brown (2001) suggests even among HL learners, intensity of ethnic/national identification has a bearing on students' motivation. However, the Kondo-Brown study did not include non-heritage Japanese students; her results bear only on learners who could all be expected to come to the language learning classroom with rather high motivation.

One of the most interesting findings of this study revealed especially high levels of anxiety among students in upper level classes. All of these students were HL

learners. Diary data confirmed that anxiety seemed more characteristic of HL than non-HL learners. In their diaries, HL learners expressed their anxieties about coping with the academic, personal, social demands of learning Korean more than did their counterpart non-HL learners. HL learners strove to be successful in learning the language and its culture in order to earn heritage membership. One HL learner stated in one of her dairy entries, "…[I]t's kind of embarrassing for me, a 19-year-old Korean girl, to not know how to speak Korean. I know it's a learning process and this is what's supposed to happen when one is learning a language, bur regardless, it's still embarrassing."

In addition to expectations from family and friends, expectations that were set up by teachers according to the curriculum were very likely higher than those expectations set up by learners themselves according to their actual language proficiency. Perhaps in the process, learners in upper level classes were exposed to larger amounts of input than they could comfortably handle. The gap between course expectations and personal ability may cause a great deal of situational anxiety related to language learning. Due to these interrelated factors that pertain to upper level classes, upper level classes were more anxiety provoking than lower level classes.

On the other hand, non-HL learners' participation in conversation was considered an "investment." They agreed that practice would lead to progress in class and in mastering Korean. In their diary entries, non-HL learners expressed that conversations with their CPs were helpful and beneficial to "bridge the gaps left in class" and to "be able to keep pace with the class".

Finding Two: Impact of Learner's Background on Motivation to Learn Korean

The multiple regression results showed strong effects of KLLs' demographic and language background variables on all the motivational variables examined here

(with the single exception of value motivation). This suggests that learner motivation is indeed a multifaceted construct, impinged upon by cumulative effects of learners' personal characteristics.

The fact that value motivation was the sole exception to this pattern may be attributed to the fact that the composite dimension of value motivation was derived from four conceptually different motivational orientations: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, integrative orientation, and interest in foreign languages and cultures. The clustering of the four subscales in the present study was based on the *a priori* grouping derived from earlier factor analyses conducted by Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) and Jacques (2001). Since the individual items falling into this dimension all have to do with a general positive outlook toward the particular L2 as well as with appreciating learning language and culture, those learners who chose to learn the target language were generally expected to see value in learning foreign language. This result may indicate that the original four categories ought to be assessed separately rather than as an aggregate.

Self-assessed Korean proficiency was the most potent of the personal learner factors that influenced motivation. It was the most powerful predictor of all the motivation dimensions except value and heritage orientation (i.e., the dimensions of expectancy, self-efficacy, anxiety, competitiveness, cooperativeness, motivational strength, attitudes, and identity). Yet even value motivation and heritage orientation were influenced by language use history, if not by self assessed Korean language proficiency. Thus it can be seen that students without any level of prior skill or exposure to the target L2 are likely to have relatively low levels of motivation. Instructors must not presume, even in a less frequently taught language, that students are well motivated simply because they have signed up for instruction. For such

students, it might be wise to devote elements of the curriculum to building up motivation, for which there may be little inherent basis.

The present study found that learners' class level (at four levels from beginner to advanced) was associated with a number of motivational variables. Kondo-Brown's (2001) results likewise suggested that heritage students in advanced Japanese had much more extensive Japanese language contacts and use in informal learning environments and showed more positive attitudes toward learning Japanese and stronger interest in their heritage than did those in lower levels of Japanese. Contrary to her results, however, the regression results of class level in this study showed that class level was negatively related to such dimensions of motivation as expectancy and motivational strength, and positively associated to anxiety. In other words, learners in a lower class level were more likely to show relatively high levels of expectancy and motivational strength and relatively low levels of anxiety, compared with their counterpart learners in higher class levels. Perhaps lower class level learners—as true beginners on their language learning odyssey—were excited about learning a new language and less anxious about learning. But over time, as students progressed in class level, they became less naively enthusiastic and more anxious. It is, therefore, important for instructors to cultivate learners' motivation on an on going basis within the educational context and to invest in continuous motivational maintenance. It is important to avoid instructional methods that decrease motivation and engender negative attitudes.

Finding three: Impact of Personal and Meeting Variables on Patterns of Conversational Discourse

Gender of CP and Discourse Patterns

Gender of conversation partner was deemed an important variable to examine, in light of culture-specific norms for conversational dominance by men (Gass & Varonis, 1986; Song, 1994, 1996). In fact, results indicated that those learners whose conversation partner was female took more chances to hold the floor (57.15 turns on average) than did those learners whose conversation partner was male (46.73 turns on average). This quantitative result confirmed in learners' diary entries as well. For example, one female KLL explicitly commented in her diary that she wished her male CP would give her more of a chance to speak. This result supports the intuitive notion in Korea that 'women should speak like this…' and 'men should speak like that...', also warranted by empirical research on gender and communication in Korean (Song, 1994, 1996). Understanding the features of Korean discourse might help elucidate this tendency. In Korean conversations, hierarchical social structure must be considered in all turn-taking. The Korean social structure is based on vertical hierarchy, and it is very crucial in conversational interaction. As Yoon (1996) noted, a Korean is always expected to use appropriate language according to his/her social relationship with the addressee. Thus, information about the interactants such as age, social rank, occupation, the schools they graduated from, and the social profile of the families is drawn together to determine the relational position to others in every situation, which enables individual interactants to interpret the communicative intent of others and to make an appropriate move toward speakers or hearers. That older, higher social ranked individuals are dominant in turn-taking can be explained in this respect. Gender is another such social factor that determines addressee/addressor

style. In particular, deference in turn taking is afforded to males. The same result was found in the study of young Japanese girls interacting in groups of 4 (Watanabe, 1993).

For this study, although the native Korean-speaking conversation partners were living in a Western society, they were likely interacting as Koreans, maintaining the Korean value of social and cultural appropriateness in their conversational interaction. Although there was not an imposed form that organized the structure of these language learning interactions, the informal, but somewhat instructional, setting of the conversation between learner and conversation partner in this study retained the cultural features of typical Korean conversation, such as the tendency of male dominance.

Impact of Relationships Between Speakers on Discourse Patterns

In general, those learners whose scope of relationship with their partners preceded and extended beyond conversation partner meetings produced more Korean words than did the other learners who met their partners for the first time at a CP interaction for class. Similarly, those learners with prior relationships with their CPs took more Korean code-switching initiatives (i.e., from English discourse back to Korean) than did the other learners who were initially unfamiliar with their CPs. These findings make sense and are somewhat predictable, because learners can be expected to take more active involvement in conversations with known others. These findings also provide evidence consistent with Vygotsky's developmental theory. Research on Vygotskian theory maintains that knowledge is social constructed and learners learn together through social interaction in pairs or small groups (e.g., Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Donato, 1994; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1996). Through the dialogic interactions between learner (novice) and conversation

partner (expert) in the zone of proximal development, the learner's potential level of development was getting enhanced, and ultimately the learner began to appropriate the responsibility for his/her own linguistic performance and to internalize the patterns, norms, and values that conversation partner represented. This developmental process resulted in more words and more Korean code-switching initiatives.

These findings associating prior interpersonal relationships with more Korean language production directly contradict the results of Yoon's (1996) study of six Korean-English bilinguals in terms of code choice and code-switching. Yoon concluded that the closer or more intimate the relationship Korean bilinguals have with one another, the more they use English. Both studies do concur, however that group membership is an important factor in determining the degree of use of Korean or English. The contradiction between the studies may be the result of two different sample populations: (1) KLLs conversing with native Korean-speaking conversation partners in the present study, and (2) Korean-English bilinguals conversing with other bilinguals in Yoon's research. Moreover, the two studies examined different conversational contexts: (1) in the present study a language learning context designed for facilitating learner's communicative proficiency, and (2) in Yoon's study a natural discourse context designed for exchanging ideas and views of cultural diversity. The speakers' overall proficiency in the target language involved may be another reason for the discrepancy between the two studies. Yoon's participants had already achieved full bilingual competence.

In sum, as Noels (2001) pointed out, significant others such as family members, teachers, peers, and members of the L2 community, play an important role in guiding a learner through the language learning process. Learners' interpersonal

networks of contacts—including prior friendships with conversation partners—are an important predictor of language learning.

Impact of Heritage Learner Status on Patterns of Learner Conversational Discourse

As expected, HL learners produced more Korean words and took more Korean code-switching initiatives than did non-HL learners. HL learners were involved most in the phenomenon of Korean code-switching initiative, moving a stream of speech back to Korean if it had strayed into English. At the same time, English code-switching initiatives were most characteristic of non-HL learners. Most likely the second language competence of KLLs and/or their preference with regard to language choice played a role in choosing the code (Korean or English) and, as a consequence, the number of words in Korean produced by learners.

As suggested in the Scotton's (1983, 1988) markedness model, code-switching was viewed in this analysis as interactional, dyadic behavior. More specifically, Scotton explained code-switching as indexical of social negotiation, signaling situation-specific sets of mutual rights and obligations (RO sets). When interactants are of similar group membership, less social negotiation and less code-switching (in either direction) should be manifested. In this study, Scotton's view of code-switching as a negotiation of rights and obligations helped explain the extensive code-switching patterns of non-HL learners. That is, because the non HL learners were patently of a different social identity than the CPs, considerable code-switching—in this case from Korean into English—could be expected. However Scotton's model fails to explain the extensive code-switching exhibited by HL learners—in that case from English back to Korean. Instead, the code-switching into Korean by HL learners may be viewed as a reflection of their attempts to demonstrate social solidarity with their Korean CPs (see Blom & Gumperz, 1972).

Conforming to Myers-Scotton's (1992) matrix language model, the morphosyntactic level of code-switching was one of discourse features of HL learners that distinguished their code-switching from that of non-HL learners. In most cases of code-switching in this study, free morpheme code-switching forms that were mainly nouns were inserted into the matrix language frame (e.g., *Oh, that's 발*. 'oh, that's foot'). Attaching English free morpheme code-switching forms that were mainly nouns into the Korean morphosyntactic structure (i.e., nominative particle) occurred only in cases of HL learners' code-switching (e.g., *Potato-가 뭐죠?* 'What is potato in Korean?'). No instance of this phenomenon occurred in non-HL learners' conversations. This finding signals that although the matrix language was not fixed in any sense across the conversations, whichever language functioned as the matrix language was closely related to learners' heritage status, which in turn depended heavily on the learner's history of Korean language exposure and use.

Based on an examination of conversation excerpts, Chapter 4 proposed a model of KLL-CP interaction that attempted to link L1 and L2 proficiency of both parties. The model posited that quality of KLL-CP communication is most productive if the CP possessed a fairly good command of English. This is because the chance of miscommunication or communication breakdown was much less likely if the CP had a fairly good command of English. Also, his/her grammatical and cultural explanations often needed to revert to English in order to facilitate learners' understanding about the topic under discussion. Maintaining a purely L2 immersion environment may be a noble ideal, but in practice, CP communication in learners' L1 (their own L2) was needed. Perhaps counterintuitively, then, learners who are provided with more knowledge by CPs in English and better understand of what they

are learning can contribute to the conversation as an active participant by having more chance to speak the target language.

Finding Four: Impact of Motivation to Learn Korean on Learner Conversational Discourse Patterns

Although conversational discourse was collected from only 16 learners, and statistical power was accordingly quite low, a few robust relations between conversational variables and motivational variables nevertheless did emerge. Among the correlations, the associations of heritage orientation motivation and identity motivation with the conversational features were of greatest interest, because among the ten motivational dimensions they were considered most closely related to the distinction of heritage and non-heritage status of learners, which was the major focus of this study. In fact, these two motivations were found to be predictive of learner's production of words and code-switching initiatives. Heritage orientation and identity motivation were directly proportional to the number of Korean words produced and Korean code-switching initiatives taken by learners, and heritage orientation was inversely proportional to the number of English code-switching initiatives taken. Those correlational results were to be expected.

Value motivation to learn language, however, manifested a more complex and less easily explicable pattern. Just as Finding 1 revealed lower value motivation for HLs, as compared with non-HLs, so was there an inverse relation between value motivation and production of Korean words. A possible explanation of this counterintuitive result requires that one recollect the nature of the value motivation variable. It essentially combined Gardner's (1985a) well known and oft criticized (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1990, 1994a, 1994b, 2003; Oxford & Shearin, 1994) dichotomy between instrumental and integrative language learning motivation.

That is, those who scored especially high in value motivation would be those who wished to learn Korean both because they feel an affinity to Korean culture, and also because they felt that learning Korean would be of some pragmatic or career value. Perhaps the inverse correlation between those factors and Korean language production signifies that value motivation is salient mainly for beginners. Beginning learners might feel compelled by integrative and instrumental reasons for learning Korean, and yet they lack the Korean proficiency to produce a great many Korean words. On the other hand, the Korean HL learners were motivated by family and ethnic considerations. Gardner's instrumental and integrative reasons were hardly relevant to the HLs in this sample, and yet they were the ones who were capable of producing fluent Korean strings. Therefore, support in an educational setting needs to account for this possible pattern of early enthusiasm fueled by instrumental and integrative motivations, but with more advanced proficiency inspired mainly by issues of identity and heritage not easily conveyed to those who belong to other reference groups by even the most talented and animated instructors.

Self-efficacy for learning has been linked to positive learning outcomes in general (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996) and in additional language learning in particular (e.g., Matthews, 2001). Clearly those students who believe that they possess strategies and fundamental skills for acquiring needed knowledge are most likely to persist in learning tasks and not give up. Students with high self-efficacy for learning believe that they know how to learn, in other words. Since low self-efficacy would be an indicator of their presumed struggles in speaking/learning the target language, I expected that those learners with relatively lower self-efficacy would be less actively involved in conversations and take few turns. Yet in the present study, results revealed an inverse relation between self-efficacy and number of turns taken in

learner conversations. Two alternative explanations for this surprising finding present themselves.

Perhaps low self-efficacy for language learning does not correspond to low involvement in conversation, but only in formal classroom instruction. Instead, low self-efficacy (for classroom learning) may coincide with greater enthusiasm and more active involvement in out-of-class conversation. Learners who did not feel positive about their chances for success in language learning seemed to find more reasons to get involved actively in conversation.

Alternatively, it may be that number of turns may not be associated with learners' language proficiency at all. If high proficiency learners are taking fewer turns, it could be that each turn is itself very long and grammatically elaborate. In that case, frequency of turn-taking might be an inadequate index of language proficiency. At the same time if low proficiency speakers are taking many short, choppy and grammatically unelaborated turns because their turns tend to be one-word sentences and/or backchannel utterances such as *yes*, *no*, *okay*, *um hum*, 네/예 'yes', 아니오 'no', 아 'ah,' that would also render number of turns a problematic index. Indeed, turns only with one-word sentence/utterance were impressionistically very apparent in conversations of learners with low self-efficacy, number of turns did not really signal learner's self-efficacy.

This alternative explanation regarding the quality and elaboration of turns can also apply to the counterintuitive findings of an inverse correlation between identity motivation and number of turns. In an attempt to support this alternative explanation, a post hoc correlational analysis was run to see how turn length correlated with self-efficacy and identity. The average number of words per turn was 4.06 (*SD* = 1.92) in the range of 2.03-9.62. Although the correlations of self-efficacy and identity

motivation with words per turn were low (the coefficients of .32 accounting for 12% of variance and .37 accounting for 14% of variance, respectively) they were clearly positive, suggesting that learners with high self-efficacy and identity motivation might have been taking longer turns with more words uttered, and that is why they took fewer of them.

Cooperative language learning motivation derives from the gratification inherent in relationships with other learners and the teacher and in learning in a cooperative environment (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001). Cooperativeness manifested an inverse relation with total number of words produced (Korean plus English). That finding regarding motivation and language production seems, at least in retrospect, quite explicable. Learners who show greater cooperative orientation are likely to give the interlocutor chances to speak instead of trying to monopolize the floor for long periods and talking too much. Thus cooperative learner motivation might manifest itself in superior listening habits, rather than simply seizing every available opportunity to speak oneself.

Both HL and non-HL learners who participated in diary-keeping as a follow-up to their CP meetings revealed that learners did regard those meetings as fulfilling certain needs for learning Korean. The diaries reflect a significant improvement of student proficiency in Korean. They also reflected enhanced cultural competence through direct contacts with native speakers. These learner perceptions toward learning through interaction are quite consistent with Vygotskian and social cognitive theory (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Knowledge of Korean language and cultural competence was constructed in and through social interaction, with the help of more expert speakers who helped scaffold the knowledge of less accomplished Korean speakers.

Conclusion

In this study, relations between demographic characteristics of learners of Korean and their motivation to learn Korean at the university level were examined. Also, the study examined associations between discourse features and learner motivation, learner heritage status, and certain aspects of conversational context such as gender of CP and degree of prior familiarity between learners and their CPs by examining discourse from each of the four required CP meetings by each of three segments of the conversation from which they were drawn (beginning, middle, or end). Overall, strong effects of KLLs' demographic and language background variables on all the motivational variables except for value motivation suggest that learner motivation is a multifaceted construct, greatly depending on learners' social, ethnic, linguistic characteristics. The sole exception of value motivation may be an indication that regardless of learners' personal characteristics, the KLLs were, to some degree, instrumentally and/or integratively motivated for diverse reasons, showing idiosyncratically varying reasons for interest in the target language and its culture. The findings in this study also suggest that students without any level of prior skill or exposure to the target L2 are likely to have relatively low levels of motivation.

The findings in this study have provided empirical support for the widely recognized assumption that the motivations of HL learners would differ from non-HL learners. They revealed quantitative as well as qualitative differences in motivation of HL and non-HL learners. In other words, the large impact of Korean heritage language status on the multivariate cluster of motivational dimensions suggest that HL learners were generally more intensely motivated to learn Korean than were non-HL learners.

Furthermore, the findings also provide some indications of HL and non-HL learners' different pathways toward their learning of Korean. For example, the strong associations between Korean ethnic/cultural identity- related and heritage-oriented motivation for language learning and heritage status in this study suggest that the Korean HL learners were motivated by family and ethnic considerations. Non-HL learners, on the other hand, were clearly also highly motivated, as they would need to be singularly motivated to seek out classes in such a relatively less taught L2 in the US. As confirmed by both quantitative and qualitative analyses, the negative relation between anxiety and class level also suggest that HL learners were provoked by anxiety about coping with the academic, personal, social demands of learning Korean more than were their counterpart non-HL learners. In this way, it is possible to say that HL learners strive to be successful in learning the language and its culture in order to earn heritage membership. Furthermore, Korean words/English words and Korean/English code-switching initiatives reliably distinguished between HL and non-HL learners.

The varied findings that were the results from a mixture of quantitative and qualitative approaches to this empirical study support the value in conducting a mixed method research study. As the newest research paradigm in educational and applied linguistic research, when appropriate, mixed method research can provide an attractive alternative to qualitative and qualitative research. In this study, the findings from the quantitative and qualitative analyses of discourse complement one another. The overall study was primarily quantitative, but was supplemented and augmented by a qualitative phase that was primarily illustrative in function. Quantitative and qualitative interpretations of conversations suggest that code-switching plays a role in the development of shared norms and the establishment of solidarity especially

between HL learners and their native-speaking CPs. At the same time, code-switching into Korean reflects a learner's sense of Korean identity and solidarity with the CP. Language choices of HL learners symbolized their heritage, confirmed their identity and functioned as accommodation. To non-HL learners, on the other hand, code-switching functioned more as a conversational management resource to help them better understand situational context of the conversation. In future studiesthe focus on HL learners can be expanded while using the strengths and overcoming the weaknesses of this two-phase mixed method research.

Implications for FL/HL Learning

Heritage Language Status as a Continuum Rather than a Dichotomy

In interpreting results regarding the impact of Korean heritage status on Korean language learning, it is important to recall the components which were used to operationalized cultural heritage in this study. Heritage in this study was defined as a function of (a) parents' nationality, (b) parents' native language, and (c) learner's past exposure to the L2. Thus language history was intimately bound up in what it meant to be a heritage language learner in this research. This conceptualization of heritage learner status corresponds to Kondo-Brown's (2001) considerations for Japanese heritage students.

This way of looking at HL status constitutes a considerable innovation, relative to the typical dichotomous categorization (+/-HL status) found in many studies (e.g., Brecht & Ingold, 2002; Krashen, Tse, & McQuillan, 1998; McGinnis, Peyton & Ranard, 2001; Jo, 2001; Kim, 2002; Kim 2003). In this study, KLLs clustered into three heritage status groups: high, moderate, and none. ANOVAs treated heritage as an ordinal variable, and thus instead of just looking at between-cell contrasts, it was possible to test for linear trends in the effects of heritage status. The

descriptive findings regarding heritage status revealed that, despite the clustering used in the ANOVAs here, heritage status was virtually a continuous dimension. Indeed, the regression analyses reported here did indeed "deconstruct" HL status into its several continua. High-HL learners were defined as those with both parents were born in Korea as native speakers of Korean and with active Korean language use histories, moderate-HL learners as those with one parent born in Korea as a native speaker of Korean and with both active and passive language use histories, and no-HL learners as those who had a passive Korean language use in their youths and their parents were not native speakers of Korean were born outside Korea, including one learner of a passive Korean language use whose parents were born in Korea, but with no proficiency in Korean. This identification process revisited the term "HL" and/or "HL learner" on which there has been little consensus in the L2 field, and reiterated the importance to integrate the variety of relevant heritage components such as linguistic background and ethnicity to define the term. This identification process can be just as well applied to different language communities in the US, such as Spanish, Japanese, Chinese, and Vietnamese to help to shape the status of the learners and the languages they are learning and to provide insights into how to design and implement HL programs. In short, the notion of HL and its learners relies heavily on the interaction of various factors and can be defined in a multivariate and nuanced manner, as the present study illustrates.

The Multidimensional Nature of Motivation to Learn Language

Motivation for learning language has been a most fertile area of inquiry (Dornyei, 2003). Early models of language motivation were simplistic, positing a dichotomy between instrumental and integrative motives (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985a). Later, even the originators of those theories eschewed them in favor

of far more complex attitude structures (Gardner, 2001; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a). Mathews (2001) complicated the picture further by positing that generalized theories of achievement motivation needed to be integrated into accounts of language learning.

The present study rejected any orthodoxy about taxonomies of motivation, and instead assumed an eclectic position. Based in large measure on the work of Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), but also borrowing from sources in the social psychology of language (Maloof, 1998) and in achievement motivation (Matthews, 2001) motivation for language learning was in this study indexed by 10 different variables.

Overall, this study supports the prevalent view in the L2 field that motivation plays an important role in determining learner's success or failure in foreign language learning. and that L2 motivation construct is so eclectic, complex, and multifaceted that represents multiple perspectives. Indeed, realizing the effect of motivation on the language to be learned and the learning process itself is crucial to making appropriate adjustments contributing to achieving the maximum benefits of education in a classroom environment. In this regard, we would benefit from "market research" among KLLs so that we can familiarize ourselves with the students' needs, desires and expectations.

Despite the prevalent assumption that learning FLs/HLs is closely related to high motivation, the exact nature of the connection between them is not always clear. Moreover, when the notion of heritage language learning is also involved, the role of motivation becomes even more complicated. In some cases, the findings in this study found essentially negative motivation (i.e., anxiety) among high achieving HLs, and it found inverse relations between some forms of motivation (e.g., self-efficacy and

identity) and certain presumed indices of language proficiency, such as number of conversational turns.

Given the variety of HL learners' needs and motivation that were found to differ from those of non-HL learners in this study, how can a language classroom meet their distinct needs and cultivate their motivation in concert? The response may be far more complicated, but in an effort to answer this question, one can conclude that regardless of what kind of motivation learners bring into the language classroom, it should be exploited and further developed in the process of learning. As Silva (2004) stressed, students at the university level usually learn Korean because they choose to; for them, learning Korean is a personal decision with personal ramifications. As such, they desire a balance of formal and communicative approaches to their language studies. As Noels (2001) noted, different fundamental motivations of learners can be influenced by different people in many different ways. It is, therefore, very important to provide a language learning climate that facilitates learners' motivation on an on going basis and invests in continuous motivational maintenance. It is important to create classroom environments that encourage all sorts of learners to study the language for whatever their diverse motivation may be. Given the discrepancy among the various types of learners brining different needs and expectations to the classroom, creating an effective classroom atmosphere can be extremely challenging.

Then, one question of particular pragmatic importance arises: How can we create a classroom atmosphere and deliver instruction effectively to a group of students with widely disparate experiences and motivations, such as those that HL and non-HL learners bring to the language classroom? One solution is the implementation of effective placement process. It is very common that highly fluent speakers place

themselves, or at least attempt to place themselves, in a beginning level class with less than noble intentions: to fulfill the language requirement quickly, easily, and with a grade of "A." The presence of these linguistically capable students in low-level courses poses larger scale curricular problems. Simply put, “true novice” learners are easily intimidated by the language abilities of those linguistically advanced students who are often in class with them. As a result, whatever interest that these students might have had in the target language often begins to fade. Only the truly persistent continues their studies beyond the first year.

Related to this problem, one serious motivational issue that arises in classrooms is the tension that often develops between HL learners and non-HL learners. Arguably, these groups of students might be taught in separate sections depending on their measured heritage orientation and identity motivations (though issues of equity and cultural diversity militate against that plan). Practicality also militates against separate sections based on heritage orientation; in many colleges and universities, there are not sufficient enrollments to allow for separate sections to separate the two types of learners, especially for less commonly taught languages. (This analysis no doubt would play out differently in the case of the most popular heritage language in the US: Spanish). In the face of those realities, therefore, we need to find ways to harmonize relations among these learners. This requires committed, sustained efforts from administrators as well as educators. Fundamental to these efforts is a clearer understanding of who learns the language and why they have chosen to learn the language. With these basic facts in hand, we are in a better position to create more meaningful curricula for students all across the heritage learner continuum. Furthermore, by appealing to all the aspects of learner motivation we can foster learner’s success in gaining communicative competence.

In conclusion, returning to the solution suggested previously, effective placement needs to be implemented accordingly for both HL and non-HL learners who were found to never truly be relatively linguistically equal. Besides the target language itself, the target culture is of greatest interest for learners, and by focusing more on culture, blending HL and non-HL learners can be accomplished. Indeed, language learning can be accompanied by culture acquisition. Considering the fact that HL and non-HL learners are not different in terms of value (instrumental and integrative) motivation, while giving culture greater value to students, we can appeal to both instrumental and integrative motivations. One way to achieve this goal is to provide students with directly personal connections with the target culture, thereby fostering a sense of connectedness by attaching economic, political, historical, and cultural value to the language learning and culture.

Language Learning through Conversation Partner Activity

While there are many influential factors in second language learning—for example, learner characteristics such as age, personality, and intelligence—the critical dimension in language learning is interaction with other speakers (Hatch, 1983). Learners must practice communicating in the target language extensively to develop their ability to communicate in the target language. As Larsen-Freeman (1991) pointed, the more they engage in the regular use of their target language and receive the greater quantity of input, the more learners demonstrate a r ability to use their target language. In this regard, CP activity outside the classroom is a widely recommended practice (see, for example, Hall, 2001). However, despite the importance of the role of CP or the usefulness of the CP activity, it has been very rarely examined empirically.

Although the present study was not designed to ascertain associations between conversation partner activity and achievement in L2, it did demonstrate that the CP activity can provide learners with extensive speaking opportunities in informal contexts and meaningful interaction in the target language. If learners are convinced of the need to communicate with CPs not simply because the teacher expects them to, but because there is some interesting reason to do so or because there is something to gain from the interactions, conversation activities with native-speaking CPs outside the classroom can incorporate the goals, interests and experiences of the learners. Topics for CP activity that are familiar to the learner provided in an organized structure, but while keeping informality that makes the conversation fun, can stimulate conversation and enhance learning. The CP's use of conversational strategies such as structured questioning to enhance learner's response and/or involvement in conversation and the learner's knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies such as interrupting, asking for clarification, taking turns, etc. can enhance the effectiveness of communication or compensate for breakdowns in communication. This will ultimately be expected to lead learners to developing L2 communicative competence in conversation.

Limitations of the Study

Although the significance of motivation in second/foreign language learning can be widely agreed upon, research into motivation in language learning poses numerous challenging problems with measurement. Research on motivation tends to rely heavily on self-rated questionnaires, and so did the present study. This tendency results in the problems of measuring and identifying motivation, which are considered so complex, in that many studies have produced conflicting findings and varied terminology.

The choice of what items to include on the questionnaire may itself cause a problem. The choices of measurement instruments are very likely determined by the researcher's taste and interests (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). As a result, the questionnaire might neglect some of the participants' opinions or overlook potentially important information. Furthermore, it is not unlikely that questionnaires designed to assess motivational characteristics may in fact be sensitive in some degree to conceptually irrelevant aspects of the subjects instead such as general intelligence or even cooperativeness (Jacques, 2001). One of the related problems is that, as many researchers have discovered, subjects tend to give answers that the researcher wants to hear and/or that are most socially desirable (Oller, 1979; Bailey, 1983).

Additionally, this study certainly manifested difficulties coming up with reliable dimensions of motivation. The 59 motivational items that assessed both HL and non-HL learners' initial motivation toward the language, the target culture, and learning the language were initially adopted from several previously established motivation questionnaires that had demonstrated adequate validity and reliability coefficients. Using previously developed and tested items, rather than "reinventing the wheel," presumably contributed to the construct validity of the measures used in this study.

In order to assess reliability preliminary reliability tests were run on the *a priori* eight dimensions derived from earlier factor analyses conducted in studies on which the present study was based (especially Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001, which itself represented a synthesis of previous research). Coefficients for each dimension varied greatly and some of the categories produced low reliability estimates. Therefore, based on reliability test results, several individual items that were found unreliable were deleted and the number of dimensions was revised to increase internal

consistency of each dimension as well as of the measure itself. One of the limitations of this study comes from the *a priori* groupings of the motivational items. In particular those 17 items that in reliability analyses appeared to converge on the same factor, value motivation, were apparently tapping into distinctly different traits. (The reasonable reliability coefficient might have been due in part simply to the dimension's relatively long length, as scale reliability is in part a function of number of items.) It would have been ideal if this study had been able to conduct a factor analysis to determine internal consistency and dimensionality of the 59-item instruments. However a factor analysis of 59 items would have required a minimum sample size of 300 KLLs.

It is also possible that the difference in dimensionality results may be attributable to the specific population of learners in the present study that was somehow different from previous studies.

Related to learning outcomes measures, one question arises: How can we know if either motivation or conversation partner activity enhanced actual achievement in Korean language learning? In this regard, one limitation of this study derives from its lack of any learning outcomes measure. On simple and admittedly inadequate manner of linking motivation and conversational variables to learning outcomes would be to conduct a post hoc analysis of course grades. Far better would have been an experimental design that administered some standardized test of Korean language proficiency pretest and post-test, to ascertain effects of CP conversational activity on gains in L2 proficiency.

Another limitation is the fact that differences among CPs added considerable variance. CPs were mainly recruited and selected by the KLLs themselves. They were not trained, no quality control was imposed, and each might have exhibited unique

degrees of encouragement or dominance. It could be that the non-HL learners were stuck with the worst CPs. A more controlled study would have selected CPs from some consistent source and given them better orientation and training before the study is conducted.

Another limitation pertains to the selection process of the participants. Since the participation in tape recorded CP meetings was on a voluntary basis, those learners and CPs who agreed to be tape recorded may have more positive or active attitudes toward learning through CP activity outside the classroom than those who refused to yield discourse data. That difference among the volunteers may have had impact on their conversational outcomes. This informed consent process might have resulted in some biases to the research findings. In other words, if this study had not employed a voluntary method and included all the learners who were involved in CP activity as a course requirement the results of the study may have been quite different, and certainly more generalizable to KLLs in general.

Suggestions for Future Research

The data from the measuring instrument having "proven validity" in the present study were found to possess adequate reliability. However, a more sophisticated and illuminating statistical technique called factor analysis is frequently conducted on scores from motivational instruments. Although the instrument used in this study was developed based primarily on previous instruments with just a little modification having "proven validity", identifying how many unique concepts underlie a large set of variables is meaningful. Because factor analysis of the items forms a pattern of dimensionality based on the particular set of scores observed, using a new sample of participants may result in different dimensionality. In this study, unfortunately, due to a relatively small size of the sample, factor analysis could not be

used. Future research should certainly consider a much larger sample of KLLs in this matter to enable more sophisticated approaches to measurement reliability.

Also, as for the conversational data analysis, the findings reported in this study were based on data from a small number of speakers (N=16), even though the data were from a relatively large number of conversations (3 segments of each of 4 conversations). Those findings of this study would be strengthened by confirmation by a larger number of different types of speakers of the interpretations taken here.

With regard to motivational analysis, as Inbar et al. (2001) found, since motivation is a dynamic and unstable construct that tends to change over time depending on learning events (e.g. test results) and classroom context, it would be meaningful if pre-motivation during the first week of semester and post-motivation during the last week of semester were assessed for a comparison purpose as well as for a search for motivational influences that affect a decrease or an increase in motivation over time. Of course correlational studies such as this cannot attribute causation to any factors. One requires a true experiment to infer causation. To the degree that learner motivation along one or more of the motivation variables explored here may be susceptible to experimental manipulation, a stronger case could be made for the impact of motivation on learner conversational discourse.

Conversational data in this study were characterized by both institutional constraints and expectations of informality. Due to the roles developed in the course of conversation such as native and non-native speaker, inequalities among the participants in terms of participatory rights and obligations were expected, as generally seen in institutional talk. In fact, assigned roles and tasks often implied asymmetries in participatory rights and obligations between learner and conversation partner. To some extent, however, conversational data in this study also involved

informality and relative symmetries without institutional constraints depending on the conversational goals and strategies and relational closeness of the participants. In this study, only the learners' comments were taken into consideration for analyses. They were necessarily characterized not only by idiosyncratic factors, but also by the asymmetrical role learners took on in the course of conversations. Although a modest effort was made in the present study to develop a model that classified CP-KLL pairs according to the L1/L2 language proficiency of each, a more robust conversational data analysis would utilize the dyad as the fundamental unit of analysis and acknowledge the dynamic negotiation sequences, which makes learner and CP discourse utterly interdependent on one another. As for the conversational data analysis of code-switching, for example, the conversational contexts for switching were closely linked to the previous turns, and the language that the partner used in the previous turn seemed to strongly influence the learner's code choice. In a dyad, code-switching is characterized by a mutual give and take.

More specifically, in a broader negotiation sequence between the learner and the conversation partner, the social and pragmatic attributes of the codes chosen by each speaker can be dealt with in terms of the notion of convergence and divergence of code-switching (Burt, 1992). For example, in a situation in which the conversation partner finds the limited or low proficiency of the learner's Korean, he/she likely switches back to English in an attempt to converge, and if the learner agrees with the conversation partner's language choice and changes a code to English the speakers fail to converge. Indeed, however, in cases of code-switching in this study, a pattern of convergence occasionally occurred in that each speaker attempted to speak the other's language. The conversations characterized by this pattern might be worth examining.

In addition to their evaluations of learner's target language proficiency, the conversation partners' linguistic preference and competence in the learner's native language can play a major role in determining the code of conversation. In the light of the speakers' desires and wants, if there exist conflicting desires/wants of the conversation partner for the conversation, the conflicts in wants/desires will be reflected in the patterns and frequencies of the conversational code. For example, it could be the case that certain CPs was drawn into this activity because they hoped for a chance to practice their English with a speaker of American English. Other CPs, in contrast, might have been motivated by a genuine desire to perpetuate Korean language on American shores.

This dissertation study stopped short of considering the bottom line for educators of second languages, that is, student achievement. Although this research has covered new ground in the study of language learning motivation and learner discourse—especially with respect to heritage language status—it remains for future research to connect these factors with learning outcomes. It remains largely an article of faith that high motivation leads to accelerated learning in additional languages. And yet this dissertation research shows that motivation is not entirely straightforward. For example, those students with highest achievement (i.e., in the most advanced classes) were also the student with the most intense negative motivation (i.e., anxiety). We have confirmed that HL learners are motivated differently than non-HL learners, and it stands to reason that the causal link between that motivation and language learning outcomes will also vary as a function of heritage learner status.

Similarly, the value of CP activities for achievement in language learning remains a largely untested assumption among educators. The practice is widely

recommended in second language methods texts and other pedagogical literature (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 1991), and it is consistent with sociocognitive theories of learning (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986; Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Diary data in the present study did indicate that students perceived CP meetings to be valuable learning tools, for example "filling gaps" in classroom instruction. On the other hand, it is possible that its value may differ in quality and in degree for HL and non-HL learners' academic and functional language achievement. Future research would be well advised to attend to such topics. Tools and protocols developed in this present study may be of assistance in those future endeavors.

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APPENDIX A. LEARNER CONSENT FORM

I, _____, agree to take part in the research study, entitled *Conversations between adult learners of Korean and their native speaking conversation partners: Heritage language learners and non-heritage language learners* conducted by Jeongyi Lee, Program in Linguistics at the University of Georgia (706-542-5099) under the direction of Dr. Don Rubin, Department of Speech Communication (706-542-3247). I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have all of the information about me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The purpose of this study is to examine fundamental social, psychological and linguistic characteristics of Korean language learners, distinguishing heritage and non-heritage language learners.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things:

1) Answer questions about my linguistic background and motivation, which will take 15 minutes
2) Record on audio or video tape my interactions with my conversation language partner, which will last half hour to one hour each of 4 recordings.
3) Make diary entries in which I record my reactions to the recording session

I will receive a $5 food certificate for each audio-recording and diary-keeping at the end of each session (a total of four $5 certificates).

The benefits for me as a learner of Korean language are that recordings of the conversation activity may help me pay more attention to my learning process and as a result, improve my linguistic skills.

No psychological, social, legal, economic or physical discomfort, stress or harm is expected during or as a result of data collection. If any of those anticipated risks to me occurs, I will ask researcher to stop recording procedure.

No information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others, except if required by law. Every recording and diary will be strictly confidential accessed only by the researcher and will not be used for any purposes other than academic purposes. They will never be publicly distributed. Every single tape will be destroyed as soon as it is transcribed in any event within 1 year of recording. I will be assigned an identifying number and this number will be used on all of the questionnaires I fill out.

The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project (706-389-6376).

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

Jeongyi Lee	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Signature	Date

Telephone: 706-389-6376
Email: jlee1004@uga.edu

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Signature	Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D. Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

APPENDIX B. CONVERSATION PARTNER CONSENT FORM

I, _____, agree to take part in the research study, entitled *Conversations between adult learners of Korean and their native speaking conversation partners: Heritage language learners and non-heritage language learners*, conducted by Jeongyi Lee, Program in Linguistics at the University of Georgia (706-542-5099) under the direction of Dr. Don Rubin, Department of Speech Communication (706-542-3247). I understand that my participation is voluntary. I can stop taking part without giving any reason, and without penalty. I can ask to have all of the information about me returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

The purpose of this study is to examine fundamental social, psychological and linguistic characteristics of Korean language learners, distinguishing heritage and non-heritage language learners.

If I volunteer to take part in this study, I will be asked to do the following things:

4) Answer questions about my linguistic background, which will take 5 minutes
5) Record on audio or video tape my interactions with my language learner, which will last half hour to one hour each of 4 recordings.

I will receive a $5 food certificate for each audio- or video-recording at the end of each session (a total of four $5 certificates).

The benefit for me as a native Korean speaking conversation partner is the opportunity for cultural exchange.

No psychological, social, legal, economic or physical discomfort, stress or harm is expected during or as a result of data collection. If any of those anticipated risks to me occurs, I will ask researcher to stop recording procedure.

No information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others, except if required by law. Every recording and diary will be strictly confidential accessed only by the researcher and will not be used for any purposes other than academic purposes. They will never be publicly distributed. Every single tape will be destroyed as soon as it is transcribed in any event within 1 year of recording. I will be assigned an identifying number and this number will be used on all of the questionnaires I fill out.

The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project (706-389-6376).

I understand that I am agreeing by my signature on this form to take part in this research project and understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records.

Jeongyi Lee	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Signature	Date

Telephone: 706-389-6376
Email: jlee1004@uga.edu

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	**Signature**	**Date**

Please sign both copies, keep one and return one to the researcher.

Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to Chris A. Joseph, Ph.D. Human Subjects Office, University of Georgia, 606A Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address IRB@uga.edu

APPENDIX C. LEARNER QUESTIONNAIRE
Part I. LANGUAGE USE BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please fill in the following personal information.

1. Birth date (Month/day/year): _____ 2. Sex: _____ 3. Major: _____

4. Class standing: Freshman ____ Sophomore ____ Junior ____ Senior ____ Graduate ____

5. Place of birth: State and city_____ Country _____

5a. If born outside the US, how long have you lived in the US?

US_____ years

5b. If you were born outside the US, at what age and in what year did you arrive in the US:

Age_____ Year_____

6. Nationality status (mark the appropriate one):

_____ _____ _____(_____)

US citizen permanent resident others (indicate citizenship and US visa type)

7. What is your first language (the dominant language used in your home when you were growing up)? _____

7a. Your father's first language: _____

7b. Place where your father was born: _____

7c. Your mother's first language: _____

7d. Place where your mother was born: _____

8. What language(s) do you speak? (Write the language(s) and mark your proficiency of the language.)

Language	Proficiency				
	I'm a native speaker	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
English					
Korean					

9. Have you ever visited Korea? Yes _____ If so, for how long (in number of months)?_____

No ____

10. Have you had any previous formal classes or tutoring of Korean language?

_____ _____ (How long: _____ _____ _____)

No Yes Saturday School High School College

	Not at all	A little	fairly	Well	Very well
11. Can you understand Korean?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
speak	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
read	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
write	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

12. When you were a child (under the age of 12), did you <u>hear the people around you</u> speaking in Korean?

	Usually	Sometimes	Never, although both of us understood Korean	Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	Never, because I didn't understand Korean	Never, because neither did understand Korean	Not applicable
father	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
mother	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
siblings	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
grandparent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
neighbor	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
classmates	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
friend	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

13. When you were in adolescence (12 or older), did you <u>hear the people around you</u> speaking in Korean?

	Usually	Sometimes	Never, although both of us understood Korean	Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	Never, because I didn't understand Korean	Never, because neither did understand Korean	Not applicable
father	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
mother	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
siblings	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
grandparent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
neighbor	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
classmates	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
friend	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

14. At the present time, do you <u>hear the people around you</u> speaking in Korean?

	Usually	Sometimes	Never, although both of us understood Korean	Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	Never, because I didn't understand Korean	Never, because neither did understand Korean	Not applicable
father	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
mother	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
siblings	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
grandparent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
neighbor	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
classmates	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
friend	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

15. When you were a child under the age of 12, did you <u>speak</u> Korean to your……..?

	Usually	Sometimes	Never, although both of us understood Korean	Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	Never, because I didn't understand Korean	Never, because neither did understand Korean	Not applicable
father	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
mother	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
siblings	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
grandparent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
neighbor	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
classmates	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
friend	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

16. When you were in adolescence (12 or older), did you <u>speak</u> Korean to your……..?

	Usually	Sometimes	Never, although both of us understood Korean	Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	Never, because I didn't understand Korean	Never, because neither did understand Korean	Not applicable
father	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
mother	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
siblings	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
grandparent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
neighbor	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
classmates	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
friend	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

_____

17. At the present time, do you <u>speak</u> Korean to your……..?

	Usually	Sometimes	Never, although both of us understood Korean	Never, because (s)he/they didn't understand Korean	Never, because I didn't understand Korean	Never, because neither did understand Korean	Not applicable
father	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
mother	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
siblings	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
grandparent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
neighbor	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
teacher	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
classmates	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
friend	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

18. Your current overall GPA:

-2.0 _____ 2.0-2.5 _____ 2.5-3.0 _____ 3.0-3.3.5 _____ 3.5-4.0 _____

19. Your expected grade in this class:

A _____ B _____ C _____ D _____ F _____

Part II Your Study of Korean

	Strongly agree	Agree	Slightly agree	Slightly disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I enjoy learning Korean very much.						
2. Learning Korean is a challenge that I enjoy.						
3. When class ends, I often wish that we could continue.						
4. I enjoy using Korean outside of class whenever I have a chance.						
5. I like learning foreign languages.						
6. I would take this class even if it were not required.						
7. I mainly study Korean to satisfy the school language requirement.						
8. The main reason taking Korean is that my family/friends/others want me to improve Korean.						
9. I want to do well in this class to show my ability to my family/friends/others.						
10. Being able to speak Korean will add to my social status.						
11. Increasing my proficiency in Korean will have financial benefits for me.						
12. I am learning Korean to understand films, videos, or music.						
13. Studying Korean is important because it will allow me to interact with people who speak it.						
14. I am learning Korean to be able to communicate with people who speak it.						
15. I want to be more a part of the cultural group that speaks Korean.						
16. I enjoy meeting and interacting with people from many cultures.						
17. Studying foreign languages is an important part of education.						
18. Korean is important to me because it will broaden my world view.						
19. Korean is important to me because it is part of my cultural heritage.						

	Strongly agree	Agree	Slightly agree	Slightly disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
20. I have a personal attachment to Korean as part of my identity.						
21. I am certain that I can master the skills being taught in this class.						
22. I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.						
23. If I do well in this class, it will be because I work hard.						
24. If I don't do well in this class, it will be because I don't work hard enough.						
25. If I do well in this class, it will be because this is an easy class.						
26. If I don't do well in this class, it will be because the class is too difficult.						
27. If I learn a lot in this class, it will be because of the teacher.						
28. If I don't learn well in this class, it will be mainly because of the teacher.						
29. I can imitate the sounds of Korean very well.						
30. I can guess the meaning of new Korean words very well.						
31. I am good at grammar in this class.						
32. In general, I am a good language learner.						
33. I feel uncomfortable when I have to speak in this class.						
34. When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing.						
35. I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam.						
36. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in this class.						
37. I am afraid other students will laugh at me when I speak Korean.						
38. I am afraid my teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.						
39. I feel more tense and nervous in this class than in my other classes.						

	Strongly agree	Agree	Slightly agree	Slightly disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
40. Getting a grade in this class is the most important thing for me right now.						
41. It is important to me to do better that the other students in this class.						
42. I learn best when I am competing with other students.						
43. I learn best in a cooperative environment.						
44. My relationship with the teacher in this class is important to me.						
45. My relationship with the other students in this class is important to me.						
46. I work hard in this class even when I don't like what we are doing.						
47. My attendance in this class will be good.						
48. I plan to continue studying Korean for as long as possible.						
49. After I finish this class, I will take another Korean class.						
50. Even when course materials are dull and uninteresting, I always finish my work.						
51. I can truly say that I put my best effort into learning Korean.						
52. The more I learn about the Koreans, the more I like them.						
53. My favorite artists (e.g., actors, musicians) are Korean.						
54. Korean culture is of vital importance in the world nowadays.						
55. It is important to take part in Korean cultural activities.						
56. It is important to participate in American cultural activities.						
57. I identify myself as American.						
58. I think I will marry someone who is Korean.						
59. I think I will marry someone who is American.						

APPENDIX D. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNER

LANGUAGE USE AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please fill in the following personal information.

1. Birth date (Month/day/year): _____ 2. Sex: _____ 3. Education level: _____

5. Place of birth: State or city_____ Country _____

5a. How long have you stayed in the US and for what purpose?

US_____ months Purpose/Degree sought _____

5b. How long have you lived in Korean:

Korea_____ years

6. Nationality status (mark the appropriate one):

_____ _____ _____(_____)

US citizen permanent resident others (indicate citizenship and US visa type)

7. What is your first language, that is, the language used most in your home when you were growing up?

7a. Your father's first language: _____

7b. Place where your father was born: _____

7c. Place where your father lives now: _____

7d. Your mother's first language: _____

7e. Place where your mother was born: _____

7f. Place where your mother lives now: _____

8. How would you rate your overall proficiency in Korean? (check one)

	Native(-like)	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Speaking	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Reading	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Writing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Listening	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

9. How would you rate your overall proficiency in English? (check one)

	Native(-like)	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Speaking	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Reading	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Writing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Listening	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX E. DIARY INSTRUCTION SHEET

The purpose of this diary is to record your feelings about the process learning Korean this semester. Use the following space to express your feelings about the conversation you have just had with your Korean conversation partner. Feel free to write whatever you want, but try to describe something about what went on in the conversation, for example, how long it lasted and some of the topics you covered. Also, be honest and open how this conversation made you feel about your language learning, including emotions, desires, issues, difficulties, achievements, how you spent your time, etc. Diary entries do not have to be long. In fact, a few lines or a few paragraphs might be enough. Of course if you wish to use this diary to explore a particular event or issue in more detail, feel free to write as much as you like

Please turn in this diary entry at the class meeting following your conversation partner meeting.

APPENDIX F. TRANSCRIPTION SYMBOLS

[	Beginning of overlapping utterances
]	End of overlapping utterances
(.)	Short untimed pause within an utterance, less than 3/10 of a second
(.3)	Pause in tenths of a second, e.g., here three tenths of a second
(( ))	Non-verbal elements, e.g., ((laughs))
(?)	Inaudible speech

APPENDIX G.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF 59 MOTIVATION ITEMS AND CRONBACH'S COEFFICIENTS OF14 A PRIORI DIMENSIONS

Mean	SD	Motivation (59 items, alpha=.842)
Intrinsic motivation (5 items, alpha=.792)		
5.35	.746	I enjoy learning Korean very much.
4.88	1.156	Learning Korean is a challenge that I enjoy.
3.64	1.338	When class ends, I often wish that we could continue.
4.64	1.148	I enjoy using Korean outside of class whenever I have a chance.
4.95	1.209	I like learning foreign languages.
5.00	1.201	I would take this class even if it were not required.
Language requirement (1 item)		
2.86	1.519	I mainly study Korean to satisfy the school language requirement.
Instrumental orientation/ Extrinsic motivation (4 items, alpha=.684)		
3.13	1.660	The main reason taking Korean is that my family/friends/others want me to improve Korean.
4.17	1.643	I want to do well in this class to show my ability to my family/friends/others.
4.00	1.586	Being able to speak Korean will add to my social status.
4.11	1.445	Increasing my proficiency in Korean will have financial benefits for me.
3.65	1.554	I am learning Korean to understand films, videos, or music.
Integrative orientation (2 items, alpha=.867)		
5.08	1.134	Studying Korean is important because it will allow me to interact with people who speak it.
4.92	1.288	I am learning Korean to be able to communicate with people who speak it.
4.38	1.246	I want to be more a part of the cultural group that speaks Korean.
Interest in foreign languages and cultures (3 items, alpha=.778)		
5.09	.906	I enjoy meeting and interacting with people from many cultures.
5.04	1.041	Studying foreign languages is an important part of education.
4.70	1.151	Korean is important to me because it will broaden my world view.
Heritage language (2 items, alpha=.918)		
4.47	1.970	Korean is important to me because it is part of my cultural heritage.
4.50	1.791	I have a personal attachment to Korean as part of my identity.
Expectancy (2 items, alpha=.802)		
5.18	.822	I am certain that I can master the skills being taught in this class.
5.21	.800	I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class.
4.87	.963	If I do well in this class, it will be because I work hard.
4.87	1.084	If I don't do well in this class, it will be because I don't work hard enough.
3.44	1.256	If I do well in this class, it will be because this is an easy class.
4.12	1.186	If I don't do well in this class, it will be because the class is too difficult.
4.72	1.103	If I learn a lot in this class, it will be because of the teacher.
4.24	1.367	If I don't learn well in this class, it will be mainly because of the teacher.
Aptitude (2 items, alpha=.598)		
4.75	1.103	I can imitate the sounds of Korean very well.
4.05	1.406	I can guess the meaning of new Korean words very well.
4.03	1.236	I am good at grammar in this class.
4.40	1.120	In general, I am a good language learner.
Anxiety (7 items, alpha=.913)		
4.01	1.391	I feel uncomfortable when I have to speak in this class.
4.62	1.216	When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing.
4.57	1.255	I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam.
4.62	1.239	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in this class.
4.80	1.220	I am afraid other students will laugh at me when I speak Korean.
4.85	1.133	I am afraid my teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
5.06	1.123	I feel more tense and nervous in this class than in my other classes.
Competitiveness (2 items, alpha=.824)		
3.76	1.276	Getting a grade in this class is the most important thing for me right now.
3.46	1.350	It is important to me to do better than the other students in this class.
3.45	1.411	I learn best when I am competing with other students.

Cooperativeness (2 items, alpha=.625)		
4.49	.961	I learn best in a cooperative environment.
4.74	.915	My relationship with the teacher in this class is important to me.
4.52	.961	My relationship with the other students in this class is important to me.
Motivational strength (3 items, alpha=.759)		
4.50	.990	I work hard in this class even when I don't like what we are doing.
5.14	1.066	My attendance in this class will be good.
4.86	1.112	I plan to continue studying Korean for as long as possible.
4.74	1.354	After I finish this class, I will take another Korean class.
4.90	.995	Even when course materials are dull and uninteresting, I always finish my work.
4.55	1.168	I can truly say that I put my best effort into learning Korean.
Attitudes toward language and culture (4 items, alpha=.329)		
4.67	1.052	The more I learn about the Koreans, the more I like them.
3.43	1.649	My favorite artists (e.g., actors, musicians) are Korean.
4.23	1.163	Korean culture is of vital importance in the world nowadays.
Learner identity (3 items, alpha=.789)		
4.49	1.093	It is important to take part in Korean cultural activities.
2.51	1.119	It is important to participate in American cultural activities.
2.85	1.652	I identify myself as American.
4.43	1.532	I think I will marry someone who is Korean.
3.80	1.582	I think I will marry someone who is American.

APPENDIX H.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS (SHOWN IN PARENTHESES) OF FIVE DEPENDENT VARIABLES BY MEETING NUMBER, DISCOURSE SEGMENT AND GENDER OF PARTNER

Meeting #	Discourse segment	Gender of partner	Total words	Korean words	Total Turns	Korean code-switching initiative	English code-switching initiative
1	beginning	Male	203.78(105.64)	116.78(108.55)	43.22(15.35)	20.03(27.13)	6.57(6.75)
		Female	239.00(59.39)	93.14(69.58)	58.00(11.14)	11.33(4.95)	13.61(11.51)
	middle	Male	193.44(72.70)	94.89(101.19)	43.44(7.57)	26.44(35.21)	7.19(5.81)
		Female	170.00(37.24)	61.57(45.45)	53.14(4.85)	13.18(10.32)	12.7(28.43)
	end	Male	185.89(84.77)	98.56(101.45)	44.00(10.46)	21.66(31.88)	7.44(9.93)
		Female	208.29(65.15)	90.71(85.40)	63.57(14.77)	10.52(6.17)	7.89(5.92)
2	beginning	Male	198.78(66.91)	111.11(73.63)	51.33(11.39)	19.90(25.54)	7.12(6.58)
		Female	200.43(28.02)	70.86(42.01)	60.14(15.00)	10.34(5.77)	12.36(7.26)
	middle	Male	212.22(94.08)	106.44(90.70)	49.22(14.19)	18.90(22.79)	11.08(12.90)
		Female	203.86(81.44)	74.00(60.83)	57.00(15.55)	10.07(11.70)	13.19(13.19)
	end	Male	227.44(92.82)	88.78(79.71)	50.22(12.62)	10.46(11.60)	13.02(14.04)
		Female	195.71(42.46)	66.00(45.08)	57.7(18.16)	9.13(8.90)	9.20(7.22)
3	beginning	Male	198.33(85.37)	103.22(73.32)	48.11(10.89)	22.26(25.49)	9.74(9.26)
		Female	180.71(41.84)	60.00(21.17)	59.00(13.18)	8.62(4.73)	8.34(5.99)
	middle	Male	218.78(101.70)	122.44(101.39)	47.11(14.68)	20.42(20.44)	5.93(9.36)
		Female	168.71(40.79)	68.57(46.15)	55.71(12.68)	10.84(10.64)	10.66(9.73)
	end	Male	195.00(102.63)	114.67(96.22)	49.67(18.57)	26.87(32.58)	10.54(16.08)
		Female	198.14(71.38)	68.86(61.81)	57.57(5.44)	8.22(6.85)	9.09(4.48)
4	beginning	Male	178.56(60.39)	103.44(81.61)	43.00(11.53)	23.08(19.79)	9.75(8.68)
		Female	191.57(69.07)	67.86(27.63)	55.29(14.94)	11.28(8.47)	8.58(3.35)
	middle	Male	160.67(69.07)	92.33(72.29)	42.78(15.70)	22.88(24.88)	7.03(6.14)
		Female	160.29(56.14)	61.29(27.88)	52.29(11.88)	13.48(5.03)	10.26(5.48)
	end	Male	208.89(109.66)	118.56(131.20)	48.67(15.49)	25.99(32.68)	11.09(15.27)
		Female	183.57(56.25)	101.86(65.05)	56.43(11.13)	20.04(11.37)	9.82(5.86)

APPENDIX I.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS (SHOWN IN PARENTHESES) OF FIVE DEPENDENT VARIABLES BY MEETING NUMBER, DISCOURSE SEGMENT AND PRIOR RELATIONSHIP OF SPEAKERS

Meeting #	Discourse segment	Relationship of speakers	Total words	Korean words	Total Turns	Korean code-switching initiative	English code-switching initiative
1	beginning	Acquainted	281.20(74.97)	209.20(101.77	41.40(18.35)	30.19(33.06)	7.39(9.56)
		Unacquainted	191.00(80.55)	59.73(26.98	53.45(12.82)	9.88(7.37)	10.68(9.76)
	middle	Acquainted	219.20(61.84)	167.60(91.12	46.80(5.50)	50.95(32.91)	7.92(8.65)
		Unacquainted	166.82(52.95)	40.64(31.70	48.09(9.18)	6.86(4.86)	10.37(7.05)
	end	Acquainted	235.00(85.31)	196.60(104.90	49.00(16.32)	38.69(35.92)	2.12(1.04)
		Unacquainted	177.82(66.76)	49.00(27.27	54.18(15.92)	6.84(4.45)	10.14(8.79)
2	beginning	Acquainted	208.60(43.62)	156.40(72.02	49.00(10.75)	30.27(31.51)	5.27(6.33)
		Unacquainted	195.36(56.85)	64.91(32.90	58.00(13.98)	9.10(5.16)	11.29(6.98)
	middle	Acquainted	205.80(70.84)	162.20(90.66	51.20(9.73)	24.03(17.38)	5.37(3.37)
		Unacquainted	209.82(95.27)	60.45(48.69	53.27(17.05)	10.94(18.67)	15.01(14.24)
	end	Acquainted	192.20(37.55)	145.80(48.48	50.40(11.89)	15.82(10.42)	6.32(4.40)
		Unacquainted	223.27(86.46)	48.36(47.99	54.91(11.22)	7.18(9.32)	13.64(12.98)
3	beginning	Acquainted	165.40(73.11)	126.20(81.27	48.80(7.85)	25.84(30.97)	4.58(3.04)
		Unacquainted	202.09(66.35)	65.27(37.25	54.73(14.46)	11.95(12.51)	11.19(8.50)
	middle	Acquainted	236.40(50.18)	186.40(85.89	43.80(10.57)	32.17(19.02)	5.42(4.56)
		Unacquainted	178.91(90.09)	59.09(46.07	54.09(14.73)	8.98(10.43)	9.17(11.07)
	end	Acquainted	211.00(107.78)	165.80(105.04	49.40(15.18)	44.32(34.39)	4.83(4.26)
		Unacquainted	189.73(81.77)	62.27(49.26	54.82(14.70)	7.07(8.01)	12.22(13.92)
4	beginning	Acquainted	217.80(84.30)	152.80(74.36	41.40(8.79)	30.84(18.37)	5.66(4.08)
		Unacquainted	169.00(46.76)	58.36(31.74	51.55(15.28)	12.04(12.43)	10.86(7.18)
	middle	Acquainted	180.80(70.68)	131.60(67.57	41.20(14.99)	34.12(28.50)	6.36(5.38)
		Unacquainted	151.27(58.40)	54.73(34.19	49.55(14.27)	11.79(7.01)	9.39(6.13)
	end	Acquainted	254.60(93.53)	231.20(100.57	49.40(10.64)	47.62(31.17)	2.29(1.84)
		Unacquainted	172.00(76.98)	56.73(43.70	53.27(15.48)	12.37(11.41)	14.28(12.52)

APPENDIX J.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS (SHOWN IN PARENTHESES) OF FIVE DEPENDENT VARIABLES BY MEETING NUMBER, DISCOURSE SEGMENT AND HERITAGE STATUS OF LEARNER

Meeting #	Discourse segment	Heritage status	Total words	Korean words	Total turns	Korean code-switching initiative	English code-switching initiative
1	beginning	Heritage	210.50(96.47)	154.00(108.70)	48.00(19.91)	24.08(27.24)	5.10(2.57)
		Non-heritage	227.88(83.64)	58.88(30.72)	51.38(9.78)	8.37(4.67)	14.21(11.81)
	middle	Heritage	177.00(65.12)	128.38(92.32)	50.00(5.88)	33.67(34.55)	5.85(3.80)
		Non-heritage	189.38(56.66)	32.25(17.12)	45.37(9.58)	7.61(5.06)	13.37(8.36)
	end	Heritage	193.50(93.42)	145.50(108.01)	51.88(18.10)	28.08(30.93)	4.57(4.739)
		Non-heritage	197.88(58.27)	44.75(24.15)	53.25(14.11)	5.50(3.93)	10.70(9.94)
2	beginning	Heritage	186.25(55.67)	132.13(68.66)	60.75(16.16)	23.79(25.81)	5.34(6.01)
		Non-heritage	212.75(47.86)	54.88(22.28)	49.63(7.29)	7.65(3.28)	13.49(6.00)
	middle	Heritage	205.00(83.63)	145.50(78.08)	58.88(15.08)	23.68(23.52)	4.65(3.06)
		Non-heritage	212.13(93.90)	39.00(24.28)	46.38(12.43)	6.39(5.57)	19.35(14.45)
	end	Heritage	183.88(56.81)	125.50(59.09)	53.38(12.78)	15.52(11.43)	3.70(2.99)
		Non-heritage	243.25(81.95)	32.13(28.66)	53.63(10.35)	4.25(4.41)	19.00(11.63)
3	beginning	Heritage	165.63(60.52)	113.38(72.03)	56.00(13.62)	23.60(25.84)	6.19(6.06)
		Non-heritage	215.63(70.09)	55.25(21.45)	49.75(11.97)	8.98(8.74)	12.07(8.57)
	middle	Heritage	175.00(85.19)	136.38(100.19)	49.88(17.68)	24.26(20.31)	3.81(3.76)
		Non-heritage	218.75(79.40)	61.38(44.19)	51.88(10.53)	8.20(8.14)	12.19(11.81)
	end	Heritage	177.25(93.77)	133.13(97.90)	53.50(19.40)	30.10(33.49)	5.49(4.83)
		Non-heritage	215.50(82.36)	56.13(45.42)	52.75(8.84)	7.33(5.55)	14.32(15.69)
4	beginning	Heritage	179.25(53.28)	127.88(69.38)	51.88(19.35)	27.88(18.08)	4.82(2.09)
		Non-heritage	189.25(73.87)	47.88(22.53)	44.88(5.08)	7.96(5.80)	13.66(6.89)
	middle	Heritage	151.38(46.02)	109.75(62.91)	48.88(15.92)	27.31(23.56)	6.28(3.47)
		Non-heritage	169.63(76.46)	47.75(32.05)	45.00(13.84)	10.23(7.58)	10.61(7.21)
	end	Heritage	197.25(99.78)	157.63(117.71)	56.00(15.89)	35.39(28.79)	5.76(5.15)
		Non-heritage	198.38(82.82)	64.88(68.45)	48.13(11.24)	11.38(13.80)	15.29(14.77

APPENDIX K.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ON THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES FOR GENDER OF PARTNER VARIABLE

Variable	Gender	*M*	*SD*
Total words	Male-partner	198.47	72.94
	Female-partner	191.69	31.05
Korean words	Male-partner	105.94	85.46
	Female-partner	73.73	44.17
Turns	Male-partner	46.73	9.87
	Female-partner	57.15	7.44
Korean code-switching initiative	Male-partner	18.95	17.04
	Female-partner	10.48	5.93
English code-switching initiative	Male-partner	8.07	6.75
	Female-partner	10.02	3.43

APPENDIX L.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ON THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES FOR RELATIONSHIP OF SPEAKER VARIABLE

Variable	Relationship	*M*	*SD*
Total words	Acquainted	217.32	73.32
	Unacquainted	185.59	72.69
Korean words	Acquainted	169.32	84.02
	Unacquainted	56.63	37.99
Turns	Acquainted	46.82	11.65
	Unacquainted	53.33	13.86
Korean code-switching initiative	Acquainted	29.69	15.05
	Unacquainted	8.68	6.28
English code-switching initiative	Acquainted	5.10	3.77
	Unacquainted	10.66	5.36

APPENDIX M.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS ON THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES FOR HERITAGE STATUS OF LEARNER VARIABLE

Variable	Heritage status	*M*	*SD*
Total words	Heritage	183.48	56.11
	Non-heritage	207.53	58.76
Korean words	Heritage	134.09	77.69
	Non-heritage	49.59	22.08
Turns	Heritage	53.25	13.12
	Non-heritage	49.33	6.24
Korean code-switching initiative	Heritage	23.81	14.98
	Non-heritage	6.68	3.25
English code-switching initiative	Heritage	5.04	2.91
	Non-heritage	12.80	4.64