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INTERSECTING LITERACY BELIEFS AND PRACTICES WITH HERITAGE AND NON-HERITAGE LEARNERS' INSTRUCTION: A CASE STUDY OF A NOVICE KOREAN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTOR

by

Ho Jung Choi

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in
Teaching and Learning (Foreign Language and ESL Education)
in the Graduate College of The University of Iowa

May 2016

Thesis Supervisors: Associate Professor Emeritus Michael Everson
Associate Professor Lia Plakans

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Graduate College
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CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

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PH. D. THESIS

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This is to certify that the Ph. D. thesis of

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has been approved by the Examining Committee for
the thesis requirement for the Doctor of Philosophy degree
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To my beloved parents for their unconditional love, endless support, and constant encouragement on this long journey.

The Sovereign Lord has given me a well-instructed tongue, to know the word that sustains the weary. He wakens me morning by morning, wakens my ear to listen like one being instructed.

Isaiah 50:4

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

With deepest gratitude and appreciation, first and foremost I humbly give thanks to the participant teacher who helped me in making my dissertation a possible one.

I would especially like to express gratitude to my supervisors, Associate Professor Emeritus Michael Everson and Associate Professor Lia Plakans for their patience, unwavering support, and mentorship throughout my graduate study. I am extending my warmest thanks to Professor Helen Shen, who keeps on inspiring and motivating me to pursue my degree. I also would like to thank Associate Professor Leslie Schrier and Associate Professor Pamela Wesely for their insightful comments and advice. I am grateful to my friends, Cindra, Peggy, and Jason for their encouragement and prayers for many years. Lastly, but by no means least, a special thanks to my family. I am deeply thankful to my parents, Ms. Kang Sun-Sook and Mr. Choi Seung-Hwan and all my siblings, Hyunkyoung, Hojin, and Soyoung. None of this would have been possible without the love, support, and sacrifices of my family. I would also like to acknowledge my cousins, aunts, uncles, and my extended family in Korea for their encouragement.

ABSTRACT

Many researchers have explored teachers' beliefs in literacy and found that teachers' literacy beliefs affect their instructional practices in foreign language (FL) or second language (SL) classrooms. Researchers have demonstrated that teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices are generally consistent. There have been many studies regarding teachers' literacy beliefs and classroom instruction in the context of FL/SL and more recent studies on teachers' literacy beliefs presenting an increasing interest in heritage language (HL) such as Spanish and Chinese. However, less is known about Korean language teachers' literacy beliefs and practices in the mixed classroom of heritage and non-heritage learners.

This present study had two main purposes. First, it examined and described the literacy beliefs and instructional practices of a novice Korean language instructor, who struggled primarily with heritage learners in his teaching career. The second purpose was to seek an in-depth view of a novice teacher's literacy beliefs and practices toward two different student subgroups of heritage and non-heritage learners in the same classroom. In addition, this study investigated incongruences between literacy beliefs and practices toward heritage and non-heritage learners. In order to examine a novice Korean instructor's literacy beliefs and practices toward Korean heritage learners and non-heritage learners, this research employed a qualitative case study and collected data through a combination of a survey, semi-structured interviews, and videotaped classroom observations. The Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) and Taxonomy Of Techniques were adopted for a survey and classroom observation, respectively.

The results of the current study indicated that the novice teacher of Korean has general literacy beliefs compatible with a constructivist orientation, which is a whole-language approach and one that promotes transformative learning. For most of the instructor's literacy instruction in the classroom, his literacy beliefs appeared to be congruent with his practices toward KHLLs. The novice teacher promoted differentiated literacy instruction by giving separate, more challenging, or instruction more connected to everyday life in an effort to meet each individual learner's needs in literacy. Acknowledging heritage learners as mediators and community builders who could potentially promote literacy skills, the participant presented a broader understanding of literacy and multiliteracies, such as cultural and digital literacy, beyond traditional skill-focused reading and writing. However, his overall literacy beliefs were incongruent with his instructional practices toward KFLLs because of frequent accommodations for less proficient learners through more traditional or eclectic activities. This incongruence and distinctive literacy instruction toward two different learner subgroups were explained by several factors: university policy on teaching and learning, his educational background and teaching experiences, and the low proficiency of the Korean language learners.

This study of a novice teacher's literacy beliefs toward different learner groups suggests that the embracing of comprehensive and constructivist approaches to literacy instruction and curriculum is only possible when pre- and in-service teachers are aware of their own premises or propositions about literacy beliefs and instructions. The findings generated by this study can serve as a good starting point to guide FL/HL teachers to professional growth and expand the field of HL literacy studies in the future.

PUBLIC ABSTRACT

Based on the finding that teachers' literacy beliefs affect their instructional practices, recent studies on literacy beliefs present an increasing interest in heritage language (HL) because of the rapid increase in heritage learners' enrollment. However, less is known about Korean language teachers' literacy beliefs and practices in college classrooms where heritage and non-heritage learners learn together. The present study aimed to first examine the literacy beliefs and practices of a novice Korean language instructor, who struggled with the challenges of teaching heritage learners during most of his teaching career. The second purpose was to investigate whether there were incongruences between his literacy beliefs and practices toward heritage or non-heritage learners. This research used a qualitative case study and collected data through a combination of a survey, interviews, and classroom observations.

The results indicated that the novice teacher demonstrated a constructivist literacy orientation, which is a whole-language approach and promotes transformative learning. His literacy beliefs appeared to be congruent with his practices toward heritage learners but were incongruent toward non-heritage learners. This incongruence was explained by university policy, his educational background, and the students' low Korean language proficiency. Acknowledging heritage learners as mediators and community builders who potentially promote literacy skills, the novice teacher promoted differentiated literacy instruction and presented a broader understanding of literacy, such as cultural and digital literacy, to connect literacy skills to everyday life. This study suggests that the embracing of comprehensive and

constructivist approaches to literacy instruction and curriculum is only possible through a teachers' inner awareness of their own premises about literacy beliefs and instructions.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Context of the Study

Many researchers and teacher educators have investigated language teachers' beliefs (e.g., Ball, 2006; Fenstermacher, 1978; Kagan, 1992) during the last three decades. Studies about language teachers' beliefs have been investigated not only in the field of teacher education but also in different languages such as English, Spanish, and Chinese (Correa, 2011; Golombek, 1998; Levin & Wadmany, 2006; Pajares, 1992; Weger-Guntharp, 2006).

Despite the difficult and complicated nature of teachers' beliefs, it is generally acknowledged that teachers hold theoretical beliefs about language learning and teaching and that such beliefs shape the nature of their instructional practices (Gebel & Schrier, 2002; Davis & Wilson, 1999; Woods, 1996) and classroom practices and student learning (Bullough & Baughman, 1997; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Reutzel & Sabey, 1996; Thomas & Barksdale-Ladd, 1997). Also, beliefs affect teachers' decision-making (Fang, 1996a) and more likely dictate their actions in the classroom (Hall, 2005).

The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices has also been discussed in the context of literacy instruction (Burgess, Lundgreen, Lloyd, & Pianta, 1999; Fang, 1996b; Reutzel & Sabey; 1996; Wing, 1989; Wray, Medwell, Poulson, & Fox, 2002). A significant number of empirical studies have investigated the relationship between teachers' literacy beliefs and their instructional practices, and have discussed the impact that teachers' literacy beliefs have on literacy instruction (Bradley, 2001; Bruning & Horn,

2000; D'Amico, 1997; DeFord, 1985; Fang, 1996a; Hall, 2005; Nielsen & Monson, 1996; Olson & Singer, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Wray et al., 2002; Reutzel & Sabey, 1996; Wing, 1989). Fang (1996a), for example, found that theoretical beliefs towards literacy tend to influence teachers' instructional practices in reading and writing. In a study about teachers' self-reported beliefs and practices toward literacy instruction (Burgess et al., 1999), 240 teachers were asked to complete a Literacy Practices Checklist, which surveyed their beliefs and practices regarding literacy as well as teacher and classroom characteristics. The findings suggested that teachers' beliefs were internally consistent with their practices (Burgess et al., 1999).

The relationship between teachers' practices and students' growth in reading achievement has been also analyzed, leading scholars to conclude that the quality of teachers' instruction is as important as what they teach in classrooms (Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Taylor, Peterson, Pearson, & Rodriguez, 2002). Wray et al, (2002), for example, found that effective literacy teachers were more coherent in their literacy beliefs and facilitated activities that corresponded to these beliefs. Based on the underlying premise of the influential role of teachers' literacy beliefs and practices on students' literacy learning, some researchers have been focusing on the relationship between outstanding literacy teachers and students' achievement (Allington, 2002; Pressley, 2001; Poulson, Avramidis, Fox, Medwell, & Wray, 2001; Taylor et al., 2002). The characteristics of effective literacy teachers have been investigated, almost all effective teachers of literacy were identified as possessing vast knowledge about literacy, and effective teachers' practices such as students' active involvement and

higher level questioning were related to students' literacy learning and achievement (Hattie, 2003; Taylor et al., 2002; Wray et al., 2002).

While significant contributions to understanding the relationship between teachers' beliefs and instructional practices have been made in first language (L1) education contexts, studies investigating this topic in foreign language (FL) or heritage language (HL) contexts have been limited (Borg, 2003, 2006; Ribeiro, 2011). Although a few descriptive studies have been undertaken on teachers' beliefs and teaching of literacy, they were predominantly designed to investigate teachers' literacy beliefs toward second language (L2) learners in general, and not a specific subgroup of L2 learners such as heritage language learners (HLLs) (Gebel, 2000; Kuzborska, 2011).

Given that researchers who study teachers' literacy beliefs have become more attentive to the needs of L2 students rather than HLLs, research investigating L2 teachers' beliefs and practices for HLLs' literacy is very sparse. This extreme scarcity may be due in part to more and easier access to L2 teachers' literacy beliefs for L2 students until the recent emergence of research interests on HLLs as there has been a rapid increase in HLLs' enrollment. Also, limited attention given to language instructors for students with a heritage language background could be another reason why it has been rarely studied. Consequently, despite a significant number of studies on teachers' literacy beliefs in the last three decades, little is known about L2 teachers' literacy beliefs and practices directed towards HLLs' literacy development. Furthermore, hardly any research has explored in-service novice teachers' literacy beliefs and practices in a FL/HL university setting (Borg, 2009). Some researchers studied L2 teachers' beliefs on

L2 literacy (Gebel, 2000; Graden, 1996; Johnson, 1992; Olsen & Singer, 1994) on Spanish and English in-service teachers but not on less commonly taught languages (LCTL) such as Korean. Within the context of LCTL education, scant attention has been paid to teachers' literacy beliefs for HLLs. In Korean language education, research in Korean as foreign language (KFL) focuses heavily on learners, and very little research on Korean teachers in higher education in the States has been conducted (Wang, 2003, 2012). Moreover, no study to date has focused on Korean language instructors' literacy beliefs and attitude toward HLLs in the process of teaching literacy in a university setting.

The HLL is of concern in FL education since more HLLs are learning their heritage language and culture at the collegiate level. Additionally, many HLLs have distinct linguistic needs such as register, particularly reading and writing because of their prior exposure to the language (Kagan & Dillon, 2009). However, while more studies were conducted about HLLs, little attention has been given to the actual characteristics of L2 language teachers' literacy beliefs toward HLLs.

Heritage Language Learning

Since the importance of HL is now considered not only as a personal asset, enriching individuals' education and career, but also as a national asset, enhancing cross-cultural understanding in a culturally diverse and globalized world, HL has become an emerging field in FL education (Brinton et al., 2008). HL can be described as any ancestral language classified into indigenous, colonial, and immigrant languages (Fishman, 2001; Wiley, 2005). The term heritage language learner (HLL) implies a huge,

heterogeneous population with different cultural backgrounds. Broadly speaking, HLLs can refer to all learners of any kind of ancestral language such as indigenous, colonial, and immigrant languages. However, more narrowly defined, an HLL is one who "is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken" and who "speaks or at least understands the language and who is to some degree bilingual in that language and in English" (Valdés, 2001). Regarding HLLs' bilingual proficiency and literacy skills, many researchers have examined HLLs' proficiency and generally acknowledged that HLLs have advantages in conversational skills but lack literacy and academic registers (Benmamoun, Montrul, & Polinsky, 2010; Carreira & Kagan, 2011; Dai & Zhang, 2008; Lyutykh, 2011; Min, 2000; Montrul, 2010; Shin & Milroy, 1999). In this study, the narrow definition of the HLLs was adopted and used for grouping of the Korean heritage language learner (KHLL) and the Korean foreign language learner (KFLL).

Over the past several decades along with the rapidly changing demographic composition of the country, demographic data such as the American Community Survey (2011) reveals that more than 20% of the U.S. population speak a language other than English at home. Because of the large numbers of HLLs enrolled in FL language classrooms, FL educators and researchers have paid much attention to HLLs reacting to their unique characteristics, special needs, and learning objectives. Since the early 1990's, HL instruction has become a sub-discipline in the fields of FL education, addressing various topics such as HLLs' ethnic identity, language proficiency, motivation, and cultural knowledge (Cho, Cho, & Tse 1997; Cho & Krashen 1998; Cook, 2002; Delgado-Gaitan & Trueba, 1991; Wiley & Valdés, 2000). Among HLLs in different levels

of educational instruction, heritage learners are characterized as having competent speaking proficiency but underdeveloped reading proficiency (Douglas, 2001). Since HLLs have skills and deficiencies that differ from their non-heritage language classmates, teaching these HLLs in regular foreign language courses presents difficulties (Matsunaga, 2003). Making an effort to address the needs of HLLs in classroom, FL instructors began to pay serious attention to HLLs and conducted research for effective instructional approaches focusing on the HLLs such as their learning experience and linguistic and cultural knowledge (Doerr & Lee, 2013; Kondo & McGinnis 2001; Sohn, 1995, 1997; Valdés, 1995).

Over the decades, heritage language research has been conducted not only in commonly taught languages such as Spanish but also in LCTL such as Chinese and Korean due to the large enrollment of HLLs in classroom. Korean is one of the several languages experiencing significant increases in enrollment for the past 20 years in college FL classrooms according to the data reported in recent surveys (Carreira & Kagan, 2011; Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2010), which showed Korean was marked as the fourteenth most studied language offered in 91 colleges and universities in the U.S., and had expanded by double-digit percentages from the previous survey.

In addition, a Korean language class is unique in terms of language learners since more than half of the Korean language classes are composed of learners from Korean ethnic background unlike other foreign language classes such as German or French (H. Kim, 2003b). The population of Korean language learners who learn the language in college-level courses can be largely divided into two distinct groups: heritage and non-

heritage learners (Byon, 2006). Typically, KHLLs are those who were born in the US and raised by their Korean-speaking parents, or were born in Korea but immigrated to the US, often at a young age developing language proficiency in naturalistic and instructional settings (Choi, 2012; Lee & Shin, 2008; Silva, 2004). On the other hand, non-KHLLs refer to true novices who have started to learn Korean through formal classroom instruction as true beginners without prior exposure to the target language learning (Byon, 2008; Kang, 2010; King, 1998; Silva, 2007). As recently more and more KHLLs enroll in the Korean language programs at university level, a pressing need to prepare foreign language instructors to teach heritage language learners is broadly acknowledged in the foreign language profession such as in Spanish, Chinese, and Arabic language courses (Kagan & Dillon, 2009; Lee-Smith, 2011; Schwartz, 2001; Sylvan, 2000; Xiao, 2006).

KHLLs' enrollments have grown fast with the rapidly increasing popularity of Korean pop culture, which motivates KHLLs to learn more heritage culture and get involved with HL community (H. Kim, 2003a; Ryu Yang, 2003). Due to cultural exposure and home language, KHLLs would most likely be able to learn their HL at an accelerated pace (Sohn & Shin, 2007; Wang & Garcia, 2002). Language educators and researchers have increasingly emphasized the linguistic characteristics and the needs of HLLs which are thought to be distinctly different from those of traditional non-HL students (Andrews, 2000; Kondo-Brown 2001). It has been found and discussed that language teacher preparation and awareness are crucial factors in the teacher's attitude toward bilingualism and heritage speaking students (Lee & Oxelson, 2006). It is important to

recognize that teachers' literacy beliefs are related to their practices and students' performance regarding literacy (Fang, 1996a; Harste & Burke, 1977; Reutzel & Sabey; 1996; Wing, 1989). Considering the impact of teachers' literacy beliefs and students' learning, exploring the relationship between teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward HLLs constitutes a logical and significant endeavor.

The Importance of Teachers' Beliefs

Researchers establish strong links between teachers' expectations and beliefs and their classroom practices and impacts on students' learning (Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, & Wisenbaker, 1979; Brophy, 1983; Brophy & Good, 1970; Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Thomas & Barksdale-Ladd, 1997). It has been found that the relationship between teacher's beliefs and practice is dynamic so that beliefs and/or practice change over time even though it is not an easy process to observe changes in teachers' beliefs (Anders & Evans, 1994; Borko, Davinroy, Bliem, & Cumbo, 2000; Nespor, 1987; Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, & Lloyd, 1991; Rokeach, 1972).

Within the field of literacy, researchers examined teachers' theoretical beliefs about literacy focused on identifying theoretical orientations teachers hold regarding literacy and investigating congruence between teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices (Linek, 2003; McLachlan, Carvalho, de Lautour, & Kumar, 2006; O'Brien & Norton, 1991). Researchers agree that teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices are generally consistent (Reed, 2003; Squires & Bliss, 2004). After having found and examined inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and actual

classroom practices, more recent studies, however, argue that such incongruence might occur in the process of belief and/or practice modification and provide opportunities for teachers to reflect upon the relationship between their beliefs and practices (Judson, 2006; Lenski et al., 1998; Wilcox-Herzog, 2002). Therefore, teachers can develop an inner awareness of dissonance between conflict beliefs, which leads teachers to make changes in teaching in accordance with their changed beliefs (Lortie, 1975; Muchmore, 2001; Kagan, 1992, Borko et al., 2000; Hart & Lee, 2003; Lyons & Pinnell, 2001).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Previous research has found that teachers hold subject-specific and identifiable beliefs concerning literacy (DeFord, 1985; Olson & Singer, 1994; Wray et al., 2002). In addition to the studies of literacy belief, a pressing need to prepare FL teachers for the challenges of teaching HLLs is broadly acknowledged in the profession as more HLL have enrolled at the collegiate level over the past several decades (Kagan & Dillon, 2009). Teachers' literacy beliefs, however, are studied largely in the contexts of first language education in primary and secondary education. Teachers' beliefs in foreign language or second language contexts have been limited (Borg, 2003, 2006). Furthermore, little work has been done on in-service teachers' beliefs and practices in a FL university setting (Borg, 2009). FL teachers' literacy beliefs at the collegiate level, focusing on HLLs, has not been studied. Therefore, there is a clear need to study FL teachers' literacy beliefs and practices in college programs in which high populations of HLLs are enrolled.

This study seeks to investigate literacy beliefs and instructional practices toward HLLs in college. The current study investigated the literacy beliefs of a novice in-service teacher of Korean as a foreign language (KFL) regarding literacy instruction and the pedagogical implications for KHLLs who are the large component of Korean language enrollment in many Korean programs in colleges and universities. Specifically, this study addresses the results of several questionnaires to explore a novice KFL teacher's beliefs in literacy, instructional practices, and awareness of teaching literacy to KHLLs in terms of methods adopted for KHLLs. In addition, the relationships among literacy beliefs, practices, and various teacher characteristics were examined.

This study has two main purposes. The first one is to describe a Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs, instruction, and the dissonance, if any, between the two. It has been pointed out that a better understanding of the relationship between teachers' thoughts and actual instructions should provide a better understanding of students' performance (Clark & Peterson, 1986). However, little is known about what the actual characteristics of Korean language teachers' literacy beliefs are or about how Korean teachers' literacy beliefs are implemented into instructions in the collegiate level Korean language classroom.

Another purpose of this study, then, is to further explore a novice Korean language teacher's beliefs regarding literacy and literacy instructions toward KHLLs. Despite the fact that research about novice L2 language teachers can provide useful information, bridging the gap between pre-service education and in-service development (Farrell, 2012), little attention has been given to novice Korean teachers

due in part to the small portion of novice teachers in the higher education in the States; it is reported that the portion of novice teachers in the higher education in the US is 5% according to Wang's report (2012). In order to investigate a novice Korean language teacher's attitudes toward KHLLs, questionnaires, classroom observations, and interviews were adopted for data collection. Understanding the emergence and development of novice Korean language teacher's literacy belief and its instruction towards KHLLs, the largest group of Korean language learners, is significant because it provides opportunities for new ways to pursue and expand on the HL teachers' literacy beliefs and heritage language instructions.

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions addressed in this study are:

1. What literacy beliefs does a novice Korean language teacher hold about literacy instruction?
2. How does a novice Korean language teacher put literacy beliefs into practice in his/her classroom? And to what extent are novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs about Korean as a Second Language (KSL) aligned with his/her literacy instruction?
3. How does a novice Korean language teacher conduct literacy instruction differently for KHLLs in the mixed classroom of HHLs and non-HLLs?

The answers to these research questions would offer valuable contributions to the study of a novice teacher's literacy beliefs and heritage language education. This present

study also examines a novice Korean teacher's attitude toward the KHLLs for teaching literacy. These questions are aimed to elicit information about the characteristics of a novice teacher's instructions and, if there is any, reveal dissonance between beliefs and practices, which may be indicative of whether a teacher tends to be traditional, eclectic, or constructivist (Lenski, Wham & Griffey, 1998).

1.4 Significance of the Study

The Korean alphabet, Hangul, was invented by King Sejong at 1443 and has become the official script of both South Korea and North Korea. This native alphabet of the Korean language has been described as one of the most remarkable scripts in the world (Ledyard, 1975) and perhaps the most scientific (writing) system in general use in any country (Reischauer and Fairbank, 1960) since it has advantages of both alphabetic and syllabary script, in which 14 consonants and 10 vowels are packaged in syllable blocks. Hangul is considered one of the most important cultural heritages in Korea and played significant roles in economic development and high achievements in education.

According to the Programme for International Students Assessment (PISA) results released by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), South Korea has been among the top performing countries. South Korea ranked top in terms of performance in reading and mathematics in 2006, 2009, and 2012 among the 34 OECD countries (OECD, 2007, 2010, 2014b). PISA results clearly demonstrate that Korean education system has put practices into place that can be related to higher performance and emphasized students' achievements in math and reading (OECD,

2014a). The simple yet systematic writing system (Hangul) and emphasis on reading in Korean education have greatly contributed to Korea's high literacy rate.

Korean immigrants to the United States tend to be not much different from Koreans in the home country in terms of high standards of education, as more than 1,200 Saturday Hangul schools for teaching heritage language have been established in the States (Kang, 2010; Lee & Shin, 2008). Various supports for community language schools from national organizations such as the National Association for Korean Schools (NAKS) and the Korean School Association of America (KSAA) demonstrate strong communal efforts and commitment to preserve heritage language in the Korean-American communities. One of the reasons for the large number of Saturday schools is because second-generation Korean-American learners have weak age-appropriate language and literacy skills even with long-term exposure to the heritage language (Kang, 2010; Kondo-Brown, 2003; Lee, 2002). Because of the limited literacy in spite of relatively easy writing system and strong emphasis on literacy in Korea and Korean-American community, many KHLLs experience embarrassment in front of relatives or other Korean-Americans when they speak in "childish" Korean or cannot write in Korean (Kang, 2010; Kim, 2003; Lee, 2002). Therefore, the majority of KHLLs, acknowledging their low literacy proficiency, enroll Korean language courses in order to better communicate with their family members and those in their community and improve literacy skills (Carreira & Kagan, 2011; Cho, 2000).

The research on teachers' beliefs is significant because it shows that attention to teachers' beliefs can inform teachers' beliefs do relate to classroom practices (Pajares,

1992). This present study contributes to our understanding of a novice teacher's literacy beliefs and practices for more efficient pedagogical approach to literacy instruction in the field of heritage language education. This study also enhances our understanding of the relationship between teachers' literacy beliefs and attitudes toward HLLs' literacy. Additionally, since there has been scant research on teacher's literacy beliefs and practices for HLLs, researchers and language educators can obtain a better understanding of a novice LCTL teacher's teaching experience in literacy. Furthermore, this study provides qualitative data through case study research to expand the findings of previous studies in literacy beliefs. Besides, since most of the studies regarding teachers' beliefs and instruction have been conducted in commonly taught languages such as English as second language (ESL) and Spanish, the fact that the this study is conducted in Korean would contribute to some similarities and differences from previous research findings in the field. Moreover, this study of literacy beliefs is the first attempt to explore a novice Korean teacher's literacy beliefs and practices.

1.5 Design of the Study

Since the literature on heritage language education lacks in-depth research of how language teachers apply their literacy beliefs into practices for HLLs in particular settings, the researcher wanted to investigate complex perspectives on the issue from a single individual, rather than to find the most common perspectives. The researcher seeks to examine, describe, and interpret the literacy beliefs and instructional practices of a single individual with contexts as being both unique and dynamic. To investigate the

literacy beliefs of a novice teacher and in what ways these beliefs are implemented into his/her instructional practices, the researcher puts a prime focus on a novice Korean teacher's classroom teaching and interaction with KHLLs in the mixed language classroom at the collegiate level.

A qualitative case study approach is appropriate for this study because it allows a detailed examination of a single individual and builds an understanding of his/her perspectives within its real life context (Duff, 2008; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2003). Thus, this study employs qualitative single case study research as its methodology, which is inductive, theory-generating, and natural (Eisenhardt, 2002; Maxwell, 2005; Merriam, 2001). The researcher adopted the principles of constructivist inquiry for research design and grounded theory method for data analysis. This qualitative case study uses grounded theory method (GTM) to construct meaning during and after data collection and results in a grounded theory reflecting a novice teacher's perception and practices of heritage language teaching for HLLs.

The richness of description and detailed contextualization possible with the study of just one case is clearly the primary advantage of this approach for this present study (Duff, 2008; Maxwell, 2005; Yin, 2003). By concentrating on, and examining a single individual in depth, interviews, questionnaires, and classroom observations were adopted to gain detailed information on the following: (a) a novice Korean language teacher's literacy belief and instruction for the heritage language; (b) dissonance between literacy beliefs and practices in classrooms; and (c) a novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs and instructional practices toward KHLLs. This single case study

also employed a total of three data-collection methods, including a survey, interviews, and observations, for a detailed exploration of a novice Korean language teacher at the collegiate level.

1.6 Summary

This chapter included a brief overview of teachers' literacy beliefs and issues in heritage language education. The significance of research in heritage language learners was presented as well as a discussion of the topic of teachers' literacy beliefs and its relationship with instruction in classroom. In addition, research questions and design of research guiding this study were also introduced. Exploring what literacy beliefs a novice Korean language teacher has on heritage language and how those beliefs influence instructional practices for KHLLs is an important area of research. The purpose of this study is to examine the literacy beliefs and instructional practices of a novice teacher in relationship to heritage language learners in the mixed classroom setting. Through careful and thoughtful discussion of novice teacher's experiences, this study intends to expand the knowledge base for teaching literacy to HLLs and accommodating heritage learners' special needs.

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review chapter explores current understanding of teachers' literacy beliefs and their pedagogical applications in FL/SL classroom. The purpose of the review is to survey literature that informs the research questions of the study. The relationship between teachers' literacy beliefs and instructions in the field of literacy and HLLs in the FL education will be also discussed. This chapter reviews the two domains of the literature, which are particularly pertinent to this study: (1) teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices; (2) characteristics and needs of Heritage Language Learners (HLLs) and Korean Heritage Language Learners (KHLLs) with whom language teachers interact in classrooms. The first section reviews a selected number of previous studies on teacher's literacy belief and instructional practices in classrooms. The second section reviews HLLs and KHLLs in terms of their characteristics and needs in heritage language learning as well as teaching heritage language. With the previous research from the review of literature, a relationship between the teachers' literacy beliefs and their instructional practices toward KHLLs may be established.

2.1 Teachers' Literacy Beliefs and Instructional Practices

Teacher's beliefs constitute one of the dimensions of teacher cognition and complex mental lives, which has become a well-established research topic of analysis in second language teaching and learning (Borg, 2003). It has been pointed out that teachers' beliefs are an important concept in understanding teachers' thoughts, perceptions, behaviors and attitudes (Richardson, 1996). Teachers' beliefs and values,

and their relationship to classroom action, have been studied over decades as an important dimension in understanding teaching. In previous studies, the term 'teachers' belief' has been used interchangeably with other terms such as attitudes, values, conceptions, judgment and principles of practice (Clandinin & Connelly, 1997; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). Philosophers, anthropologists and psychologists have agreed upon a commonly accepted definition of beliefs: "beliefs are thought of as psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (Richardson, 1996, p.103). In educational settings, one of many definitions of teachers' belief is "one's convictions, philosophy, tenets, or opinions about teaching and learning" (Haney, Czerniak, & Lumpe, 1996, p. 367). There have been many different definitions of teachers' beliefs in the field. For example, Barcelos (2003) describes beliefs as a form of thoughts that cover all matters that we do not have a sufficient knowledge about, but which we have enough trust to work on. And Haney et al. (1996) defines beliefs in the teaching environment as the teacher's contentions, and his/her viewpoints on teaching and learning. Despite of various definitions established in the field, defining teachers' beliefs, however, is not an easy task since there have been very diverse approaches for the definition of teachers' beliefs.

2.1.1 Teachers' Beliefs and Teacher Education

In selecting materials to include in this review for current educational research addressing teachers' beliefs, it was noticed that several seminal pieces of previous studies about the nature and structure of beliefs were frequently cited in the field (i.e., Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). In the last two decades, research on teachers' beliefs has

increased in volume, and the topic has become one of national relevance because of the current complexity and challenges that teachers face (Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004). Many researchers have investigated the construct of teachers' beliefs and produced theoretical and empirical work in both in general educational research and in the field of literacy. Common findings related to teachers' beliefs in terms of its conceptualization and definition are reviewed. The review in this section is organized into two main topics: (a) teachers' beliefs and educational practices; and (b) possibilities for change in teachers' beliefs in the context of pre- and in-service teachers.

One particular challenge arising in teachers' beliefs results from the debate regarding the relationship between knowledge and belief. Many researchers have suggested that defining teachers' beliefs is a difficult issue due to the complex relationship between beliefs and knowledge (Allen, 2002; Borg, 2003; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). Definitional problems of pinpointing where belief starts and knowledge ends caused difficulties in studying teachers' beliefs and reaching at a clear definitional consensus on teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992). Despite the lack of consensus in definition, however, researchers have been making great efforts to find clear conceptualizations of teachers' beliefs by examining common features identified in various definitions and empirical works.

Being aware of the importance of clarifying teacher's beliefs, Pajares (1992) has reviewed 20 different definitions of teachers' beliefs while providing one of the most extensive theoretical syntheses of teachers' beliefs and knowledge. According to Pajares,

there is disagreement about whether belief and knowledge are distinct constructs or if one is subsumed in the other across the literature in the field. It has been observed that arguments supporting the distinction between belief and knowledge are often conducted by researchers who are interested in philosophy and epistemology whereas researchers who assume the two constructs are closely related have a tendency to study with a psychological perspective (Poulson et al., 2001).

For example, Nespor (1987) posited that belief and knowledge are distinct constructs identifying four features distinguishing beliefs from knowledge – existential presumption, alternativity, affective and evaluative loading, and episodic structure. According to Nespor, "existential presumption" refers to personal truth about students such as their learning and ability. Second, "alternativity" refers to conceptualizations of ideal situations contrasting with present realities, as which beliefs serve as means for defining goals and tasks and organizing the knowledge and information relevant to the tasks. Third, beliefs are strongly associated with "affective and evaluative components" expressed in the form of feelings, moods, and subjective evaluations based on personal preferences. Finally, beliefs are characterized by their "episodic structure," which means that they are often found to be associated with particular, well-remembered events.

Nespor (1987) made the distinction between beliefs and knowledge by presenting that beliefs rely more on affective and evaluative components than knowledge. It was also suggested that beliefs tend to be organized in terms of larger belief systems, which may contain inconsistencies and even contradictions. Nespor argued that beliefs are the more appropriate construct to understand inconsistencies of

belief systems and the practice of teaching because it helps to simplify and deal with complex contexts in which teachers work.

In contrast to these arguments for the distinction between belief and knowledge, some other researchers (Alexander, Schallert, & Hare, 1991; Ernest, 1988; Kagan, 1992; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Woods, 1996) regarded the two a virtually indistinguishable concept and asserted that belief and knowledge do not have significant differences. Kagan (1992) concluded that all knowledge that teachers hold is subjective, and therefore, a form of belief. Likewise, Pajares (1992) also stated that the two concepts are so intertwined together that they cannot be separated, emphasizing the more evaluative and judgmental functions associated with beliefs. In the field of literacy, some researchers acknowledged that the constructs of belief and knowledge may be distinct but found them to be so closely related (e.g., Grisham, 2000; Thomas & Barksdale-Ladd, 1997). Other researchers concluded that belief and knowledge cannot be separated from each other and therefore choose to collapse the constructs (i.e., DeFord, 1985; Sturtevant, 1996).

Acknowledging the challenges making the distinctions between belief and knowledge, several terms have been proposed in order to subsume both belief and knowledge such as “teachers’ belief system” (Pajares, 1992) and “teachers’ cognition” (Borg 1999, 2003). For instance, Borg (1999) defined teacher cognition as the sum of “the beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions, and attitudes that teachers hold on in all aspects of their work” (p. 95). Adopting this similar notion of teachers’ belief, however,

the use of the term “beliefs” has been presented with much nuance in definition such as pedagogical beliefs (M. Borg, 2001) and educational beliefs (Pajares, 1992).

Based on the previous studies on the definition of teachers’ beliefs, three basic assumptions have been shared by research on teachers’ beliefs: “First, teachers’ beliefs influence both perception and judgment which, in turn, affects what teachers say and do in the classroom. Second, teachers’ beliefs play a critical role in how teachers learn to teach, that is, how they interpret new information about learning and teaching and how that information is translated into classroom practices. Third, understanding teachers’ beliefs is essential to improving teaching practices and professional teacher preparation programs” (Johnson, 1994, p. 439). In addition to these descriptions and discussions of common features of teacher beliefs, Yook (2010) also summarized that: (a) teachers’ beliefs are of personal truth; (b) teachers’ beliefs are subjective and evaluative; (c) teachers’ beliefs influence their actions; (d) teachers’ beliefs filter on information perceived; (e) teachers’ beliefs serve as means of defining goals and tasks and organizing the knowledge and information relevant to those tasks; and (f) teachers’ beliefs are resistant to change.

In searching for a working definition of teachers’ beliefs for the study, one of the study’s primary assumptions is that teachers’ beliefs influence their behaviors. A working definition of teachers’ beliefs needs to highlight the possible relationship between teachers’ beliefs and educational changes. For this reason, the study draws on the definition suggested by Richardson (1996, p. 91): “Beliefs are an individual’s understanding of the world and the way it works or should work, may be consciously or

unconsciously held, and guides one's action." This definition highlights beliefs' personal and evaluative nature and emphasizes their impact on behavior and perception for the present study. This definition was selected since beliefs can be seen and described as a way of understanding teachers' beliefs, the nature of teaching, and the teacher's instructional practices in language classrooms context where the study takes place.

As discussed above, it has been generally accepted that teachers' beliefs influence the ways in which teachers perceive and act upon their own teaching (Nespor, 1987; Johnson, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Yook 2010). It has been claimed that teachers' beliefs influence their selection of approaches to teaching, and teachers' instructional practices have been conceptualized as a result of teachers' beliefs (Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Medwell, Wray, Poulson and Fox, 1998). Research on teachers' beliefs has focused on their relationship to teaching practice and teacher education. A number of studies have investigated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Shavelson & Stern, 1981).

The necessity of research on teachers' beliefs has been also proposed: "First, examining the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom actions can inform educational practices. Second, if teacher education is to have an impact on how prospective teachers will teach, it must engage participants in examining their beliefs. Third, attempts to implement new classroom practices without considering teachers' beliefs can lead to disappointing results" (Allen, 2002 p. 519). When teachers' beliefs are thought to have a profound influence on their classroom practices, it has become more

widely recognized that the teachers' pedagogical beliefs play a central role in their teaching practices such as choosing the subjects and activities, decision-making, and evaluation in the classrooms (Borg, 2001; Handal & Herrington, 2003; Stipek, Givvin, Salmon, & MacCyvers, 2001). Discussing the relationship between the two, Richardson (1996) suggested that the perceived relationship between beliefs and actions is not one-directional but interactive, stating that "beliefs are thought to drive actions; however, experiences and reflection on action may lead to change in and/or addition to beliefs" (p. 104).

Over decades, there has been an increasing interest in studying the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. And many researchers have documented much evidence that teachers' beliefs affect their instructional practices in classroom (Dart et al., 2000; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997). It has been suggested that teachers' beliefs about schooling, teaching and learning are deeply rooted in their previous experience and highly influence their classroom instructions (Fang, 1996b; Richardson, 2003; Yero, 2002).

For example, Pajares (1992) indicated that there is a strong relationship between pedagogical beliefs of teachers, their planning for teaching, teaching decisions and classroom practices. According to Pajares, teachers' pedagogical beliefs are the strongest factors through which we can predict the teaching behavior although there is still a need to examine teachers' beliefs to clarify how they affect their practices (Mansour, 2008). It has also found that teachers' beliefs affect their teaching abilities (Brophy & Good, 1986; Farrow, 1999; King, 2002; Varella, 1997) and their selection of

approaches to teaching, which is congruent with their beliefs in learning (Medwell et al., 1998; Hativa & Goodyear, 2002). In addition, Cronin-Jones (1991) found that there are four main categories of teachers' beliefs that strongly affect the curriculum implementation process: (a) beliefs on how students acquire knowledge; (b) beliefs about the teacher's role in the classroom; (c) beliefs related to the level of the student's ability in a particular age group; and (d) beliefs about the relative importance of the content topics.

Most of the research available on teachers' beliefs and practices has been conducted in pre-service teachers and teacher education contexts (Brownlee, 2003; Graber, 1996; Tatto, 1996). Through comprehensive reviews in teaching and teacher education about the issue between beliefs and practices in pre-service contexts, Richardson (1996) mainly focused on (a) the influence of prospective teachers' beliefs on their learning to teach and (b) the role of teacher education in changing those beliefs. Upon entering teacher education, it is generally acknowledged that most teachers would have already possessed well-developed theoretical beliefs about teaching and learning, which tends to shape the nature of prospective teachers' instructional practice (Davis & Wilson, 1999).

As teacher educators have come to recognize that prospective teachers come to teacher education programs with preexisting beliefs, which filter what they perceive and put into practice information presented in the programs, a number of studies have examined the role of teacher education in changing teachers' beliefs (Burgess, Turvey, & Quarshire, 2000; Donahue, 2003; Doyle, 1997; Grossman Wislon, & Shulman, 1989;

Johnson, 1994; Joram & Gabriele, 1998; McDiarmid, 1992; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Nettle, 1998; Peacock, 2001; Stuart & Thurlow, 2000). Some of these studies have suggested the positive role of teacher education program in changing teachers' beliefs through reflective approach in which "teachers and student teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (Richards & Lockhart, 1994, p. 1).

Regarding prospective teachers' beliefs and practices in teacher education programs, it has been proposed "teacher educators must provide opportunities for prospective teachers to identify and examine the beliefs that they have about the content they teach" (Grossman et al., 1989, p. 32). And Donahue (2003) also suggests that prospective teachers should have a training course with "awareness-raising activities" in order to bring their beliefs out into the open, to challenge them, and to facilitate change (p. 345). Examining 40 studies in prospective teachers' beliefs and teacher education programs, Kagan (1992) concluded with the four findings that: (a) teachers enter their teacher education programs with strongly-developed preexisting beliefs about teaching and learning; (b) these beliefs are conservative in that the role of the teacher is frequently viewed as that of a knowledge transmitter and information dispenser; (c) the beliefs are not easily changed; and (d) the beliefs serve as filters for new information in such a way that existing beliefs are frequently confirmed rather than confronted. However, Cronin-Jones and Shaw (1992) suggest that beliefs of pre-service and novice teachers are amenable to change as a result of instruction and/or experience

while beliefs of veteran teachers are well grounded and extremely resistant to change (Munby, 1982).

Many of the studies of changes in beliefs address the ability of university coursework to influence prospective teachers' beliefs by providing indicators of change in beliefs such as development programs on teachers' beliefs regarding instruction and student learning (i.e., Anders and Evans, 1994; Richardson et al., 1991) and assessment (i.e., Borko et al., 2000; Borko, Davinroy, Flory, & Hiebert, 1994; Roe & Vukelich, 1997).

However, as for the impact of education programs on prospective teachers' beliefs and their changes, there are mixed findings. Many researchers have provided evidence of changes in prospective teachers' beliefs (Busch, 2010; Clarke, 2008; Mattheoudakis, 2007). For example, Doyle (1997) investigated the impact of education programs on prospective teachers' beliefs and identified two important factors for changes: experience in the field and reflection on field experience. Stuart and Thurlow (2000) investigated the impact of a methodology class of about 26 pre-service teachers in an education program at a college in England collecting data through interview, questionnaires, and journal analyses and found that most of the prospective teachers successfully reevaluated and changed their beliefs about teaching math at the end of the semester. One example of their changes is that prospective teachers reflected on their belief in the use of competition strategy and discarded it after recognizing some of its negative aspects.

In contrast to the preceding evidence for the possible positive role of teacher education in changing teachers' beliefs, it has been observed that some preexisting beliefs of pre-service teachers are so strongly developed that they rarely change and even form obstacles to their learning. For instance, McDiarmid (1992) examined changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs through a four-year longitudinal investigation of teacher education utilizing questionnaire, interview and observation. Results from the data analysis indicated that there were few changes in the pre-service teachers' beliefs.

Over the past decades, researchers conducted studies about teachers' beliefs, the relationship between beliefs and practices, and the role of teacher education programs in changing teachers' beliefs. It has been acknowledged that there is a pressing need to define the concept of teachers' beliefs, while recognizing that there is a difficulty in identifying a clear definition of the beliefs due to the conflict of views of researchers. Teachers' beliefs have been conceptualized as the most valuable in the psychological composition of the teacher, which is an individual's understanding of the world and guidance for his/her behaviors (Mansour, 2008; Richards, 1998).

Recent literature in teacher education confirmed that prospective teachers' preexisting beliefs play a significant role in shaping what they learn and how they learn it although findings about whether teacher education programs change teachers' beliefs both in general educational research and in the field of literacy still show mixed views. Regardless of what researchers' views of the impact of teacher education to prospective teachers, however, researchers tend to support the claim that teacher educators should

make considerable efforts in order to change pre-service teachers' beliefs (Peacock, 2001).

2.1.2 Teachers' Literacy Belief and Practices

Studies of beliefs related to classroom practice and the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices have been widely discussed in regard to a broad variety of issues in language teaching and literacy. Research findings related to literacy researchers' conceptualizations of teachers' beliefs are reviewed in order to move on to the context in teachers' beliefs about literacy for this study. Current understanding regarding teachers' literacy beliefs and their theoretical orientations will be summarized. Common findings addressing teachers' literacy beliefs, the consequences that beliefs have on teachers' instructional practices in literacy, and changes in teachers' literacy-related beliefs are included in this section. Additionally, studies investigating discrepancies between teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices are also addressed, as this served as the specific context in which this study was embedded. Finally, the relationship between teachers' literacy beliefs and students' learning is explored.

(1) Teachers' Literacy Beliefs: Definition & Theoretical Orientations

Teachers' beliefs about instruction have received much attention as one of significant factors influencing classroom instruction in recent years (Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). Teachers' beliefs have been considered a complex concept to define and discussed for certain distinctions from

knowledge. In the literature review, it was found that the same efforts to distinguish one from the other were also made with respect to language teachers' beliefs. Although some prior work has attempted to make a distinction between belief and knowledge (Pajares, 1992), many researchers in the field of language teaching concluded that knowledge and belief are inextricable and would better be viewed as an interwoven network (Johnson, 1994; Richardson, 1996; Sturtevant, 1996; Woods, 1996). Teachers' beliefs have been characterized as belief structure that encompasses knowledge, theories, assumptions and attitudes that teachers hold in all aspects of their teaching (Alexander, Murphy, & Woods, 1996; Borg, 1998; Borko & Putnam, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996).

The study of the beliefs held by language teachers about literacy and their implications for instructional practice have been studied from the late 1970s and early 1980s and continue to be the focus of current investigation (Borg, 2011; Grisham, 2000; Hathaway, 2009; Muchmore, 2001). Due to its complexity, however, it was stated that literacy can mean very different things to each individual teachers even if they work with similar approaches in similar teaching contexts (Dadds, 1999).

Regarding language teachers' literacy beliefs, there have been several approaches among literacy researchers: (a) teachers' theoretical orientations towards literacy and literacy instruction; and (b) the congruency between teachers' literacy beliefs and their instructional practices. As for the connection between teachers' beliefs and literacy, researchers aimed to identify several things: (a) to know and learn what teachers believe about teaching and learning to read and write; and (b) to explore the

relationship between teachers' literacy beliefs and their instructional practices. Such research interests relied on the assumption that teachers' beliefs guided teaching action (Richardson, 2003). From this view, the definition of teachers' beliefs is adopted as an individual's understanding of the world, and the way it works or should work, may be consciously or unconsciously held, and guides one's action (Richardson, 1996, p. 91) in order to better understand teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices for this study. Teachers' literacy beliefs can thus be understood as including what they assume, think, and know about students' development in literacy skills; what they perceive a teacher's role in this process to be; and how they feel they should implement these practices in a classroom (Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, & Hernandez, 1991; Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, Thomasson, Mosley, & Fleege, 1993; DeFord, 1985; Hindman & Wasik, 2008).

As stated earlier, attempting to identify what specific beliefs teachers hold regarding literacy and literacy instruction (such as theoretical orientations) is one of the two major research approaches. Researchers have paid much attention to identify teachers' beliefs surrounding literacy and literacy practices (Baumann, Hoffman, Moon, & Duffy-Hester, 1998; Irwin-DeVitis, 1996; Mallette, Henk, Waggoner, & DeLaney, 2005; McLachlan, Carvalho, de Lautour, & Kumar, 2006; O'Brien & Norton, 1991; Sturtevant & Linek, 2003).

Many researchers have been interested in describing what teachers believe is the identification of teachers' theoretical orientations towards literacy. Making efforts to better understand teachers' beliefs, Harste and Burke (1977) defined theoretical

orientations as specific knowledge and belief systems, which teachers hold about reading that serve to guide their decision-making. It was found that teachers are theoretical in their instructional approaches to reading. In order to examine these theoretical orientations, DeFord (1985) constructed the Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP), which continues to be used extensively in research regarding teachers' literacy beliefs (i.e., Ketner, Smith, and Parnell, 1997; Morrison, Wilcox, Madrigal, and McEwan, 1997; Poulson et al., 2001; Qian & Tao, 2006; Sacks & Mergendoller, 1997). Using the TORP, DeFord identifies three possible orientations to reading: phonics, skills, and whole language. A second measure used for identifying teachers' theoretical orientation is Lenski et al.'s (1998) Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) (i.e., Powers, Zippay, & Butler, 2006), which assesses teachers' beliefs about literacy learning and identifies teachers as holding traditional, eclectic, or constructivist orientations.

There have been many studies addressing teachers' theoretical orientations. For example, Poulson et al. (2001) modified the TORP (DeFord, 1985) and conducted a research in England to compare the theoretical orientations of 225 effective teachers of literacy, who were nominated by supervisors and confirmed with school and teacher data such as national curriculum assessment results. With a comparison group of 150 teachers exhibiting a full range of effectiveness, researchers found that the effective teachers were overall inclined towards a whole language, constructivist orientation to reading instruction indicating they emphasized reading as meaning making and valued

the use of authentic texts. On the contrary, however, the comparison group demonstrated more of a phonics and skills orientation to reading instruction.

Some other research has shown a trend toward teachers holding more eclectic views of the reading process rather than a strict adherence to any one theoretical model. For instance, Baumann et al. (1998) administered a survey to 1,207 teachers of Pre-K to 5th grade in the United States and concluded that teachers typically favored a balanced approach to reading instruction that combined both phonics and holistic principles and practices. This trend was also confirmed by studies of Mesmer (2006) and Rueda and Garcia (1996).

It has been acknowledged that teachers' beliefs influence their goals, procedures, materials, classroom interactions, their roles, and their students since teachers make decisions about classroom instruction in light of their beliefs about teaching and learning (Borg, 2001; Dart, Burnett, Purdie, Boulton-Lewis, Campbell, & Smith, 2000; Harste & Burke, 1977; Handal & Herrington, 2003; Prosser & Trigwell, 1997; Stipek, et al., 2001). And teachers' beliefs about literacy are of critical importance in determining how teachers teach literacy. Language teachers' beliefs and understandings of teaching also play an important role in their classroom practices and in their professional growth. Research has revealed that teachers hold subject-specific and identifiable beliefs concerning literacy (DeFord, 1985; Duffy & Metheny, 1979; Olson & Singer, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Wray et al., 2002). Richards and Rodgers (2001) argued that teachers possess assumptions about language and language learning and that these provide the basis for a particular approach to language instruction.

(2) TLB and Practices: EFL/ESL and FL/SL Teachers

Comprehensive reviews of teachers' beliefs support the notion of a reciprocal nature between teachers' educational beliefs and their classroom practices. In teaching and teacher education literature, it has been noted that many researchers investigated the influence of teachers' beliefs on their instructional practices (Ketner et al., 1997; Mesmer, 2006; Morrison et al., 1997; Muchmore, 2001; Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, & Hampston, 1998).

Research on teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices has investigated many different issues such as the nature of grammar teaching and teachers' perceptions (Borg, 1998, 2003); influence of the social and environmental contexts of their realities the classroom (Breen, 2002); and FL teachers' beliefs and practices influenced by the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (1996) (Allen, 2002). For example, Borg (1998) conducted an exploratory case study of an experienced ESL teacher to understand teachers' perspectives and instructional decision-making in grammar teaching.

Teachers' beliefs in contexts of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning were examined and analyzed from Midwestern FL teachers' responses to the Foreign Language Education Questionnaire (FLEQ) (Allen, 2002). Allen (2002) suggested that their beliefs are consistent with major constructs underlying the Standards identifying several factors that influence their beliefs such as urban versus rural location and highest educational degree earned. In spite of differing views or orientations toward

literacy, it seems that teachers' beliefs are congruent with particular instructional approaches or methods selected by language teachers in order to teach literacy.

Schirmer, Casbon and Twiss (1997) argued that teachers' beliefs about learning are reflected in the models and strategies employed by teachers in order to help students improve literacy. Other researchers (Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Yero, 2002) have also noticed that teachers tend to favor instructional approaches that are compatible with their beliefs. Evidence from various studies indicates that most teachers implement literacy approaches that are in harmony with their beliefs about literacy instruction (DeFord, 1985; Feng & Etheridge, 1993; Gove, 1982; Poulson et al., 2001).

As for the relationship between the two, identifying the influence of teachers' beliefs on their instructional practices is most often accomplished through surveying in many studies. For example, Ketner et al. (1997) were interested in the link between theoretical orientations and developmentally appropriate practices while Morrison et al. (1997) examined the connections between theoretical orientations to literacy and teachers' attitudes about student control. Mesmer (2006) also examined the various types of reading materials teachers used and valued in their classrooms through a survey.

In the context for this study of teachers' literacy belief, a significant body of research on the impact of teacher education on language teachers' beliefs has been conducted in pre-service contexts, and this work has produced mixed findings. Previous

studies provide evidence of change in prospective teachers' beliefs during language teacher education (Busch, 2010; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Clarke, 2008; MacDonald et al., 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007). It is suggested that belief change was prompted by prospective language teacher education in variable ways across individuals and areas of belief (Liu & Fisher, 2006; Murray, 2003).

For example, an empirical study about grammar teaching in ESL (Burgess et al., 2000) provided evidence in changing teachers' beliefs through reflective approach. It was found that changing pre-service teachers' beliefs in teaching grammar was effective through reflection oriented training session. Furthermore, researchers have explored ESL/EFL teacher education in different contexts and recognized that ESL/EFL teacher's beliefs represent an important construct to better understand in order to set up more effective ESL/EFL teacher education programs (Freeman & Graves, 2004; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Freeman and Johnson also suggested that teacher educators in ESL/EFL programs need to better appreciate how their students/teachers develop beliefs and how such beliefs influence teaching practices.

Johnson (1994) investigated the interrelationships between pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language teachers and teaching through observations, interviews, and journals. As for the role of ESL teacher education programs in changing ESL teachers' beliefs, Johnson (1994) suggested that ESL teacher education courses must recognize that pre-service teachers make sense of their course content by filtering it through their own belief system and that teacher development programs should create opportunities for pre-service teachers to reflect on and confront their own beliefs about

teachers and teaching. In contrast, some research reports stability in the pre- and post-course beliefs of pre-service teachers (Borg, 2005; Peacock, 2001; Urmston, 2003; Pennington & Urmston, 1998). Peacock (2001) found no significant changes in 146 prospective ESL teachers' beliefs about ESL learning after three-year investigation and concluded some teachers' beliefs were resistant to change.

Although educational literature is replete with research that examines prospective teachers' beliefs in language teaching and more particularly in ESL/EFL (e.g., Johnson & Landers-Macrine, 1998; Stuart & Thurlow, 2000), relatively few studies investigated the beliefs of prospective L2 and/or FL teachers. For example, Fox (1993) examined French teaching assistants' (TAs) assumptions about the nature of language and language learning. It was recommended that TA trainers require TAs to uncover their beliefs about language by distributing a questionnaire from the results of her study. For another example, Okazaki (1996) administered a survey to pre-service Japanese teachers both before and after a methodology course to measure changes in the participants' beliefs. She found that, although pre-service teachers' beliefs are not easily swayed, some of their beliefs were influenced in the desired direction.

As for the in-service FL/SL teachers' beliefs on literacy and language teaching, Allen (2002) administered a survey to 613 pre- and in-service foreign language teachers in the Midwest in the context of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning and examined FL teachers' responses. It was found that their beliefs are consistent with the major constructs underlying the Standards for Foreign Language. In addition to ESL/EFL in-service teachers' literacy beliefs and practices, Turnbull (1999) investigated 9th-grade

French teachers and learned that they modified their teaching methods to render them compatible with their own beliefs in a method-comparison study on project-based learning. For another example regarding in-service Spanish teachers, Mitchell (2005) examined the influence of six in-service FL teachers' beliefs on their classroom practices through classroom observations, semi-instructed interviews, reflective essays and surveys. Results demonstrated that there were some mismatches between reported beliefs and practices, which may be due in part to a misinterpretation of theory indicated as "the theory-practice interface" (Munby, 1984) and cognitive anchoring.

The impact of teacher education on in-service language teachers' beliefs has been examined and both positive and less positive impacts have been reported. Scott and Rodgers (1995) conducted a pre- and post-course survey on teachers' conceptions of writing and presented evidence of positive impact. It was found that initially 58.5% of the beliefs expressed were aligned with the principles and practices changed to 89% afterwards. However, Phipps (2007, 2010) acknowledged that there was an overall positive impact on an in-service English teacher's beliefs about grammar teaching in Turkey through four months of an 18-month course program but concluded that there were few tangible changes to existing beliefs. Much research has addressed the relationship between in-service ESL/EFL teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices.

Several studies have reported significant interaction between teachers' beliefs and instructional practices (Attardo & Brown, 2005; Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003; Johnson, 1992, 1994; Jones & Fong, 2007; Poynor, 2005; Richardson, 1996). Johnson (1992) first used surveys (i.e., a multidimensional TESL theoretical orientation profile) and lesson

plan analyses in order to investigate 30 ESL teachers' theoretical beliefs about L2 teaching and learning. The results suggested that the majority of the teachers held clearly defined theoretical beliefs, which reflected one of the three methodological approaches: function-based, skill-based, and rule-based approaches. Most of the teachers held theoretical beliefs related to the function-based approach, which was most popular at the time of the investigation.

Johnson then observed classroom teaching of three teachers selected from the 30 participants on the basis of their different theoretical beliefs. That is, one was a teacher of the function-based approach, the second, of the skill-based approach, and the third, of the rule-based approach. The results of the observation revealed that the three teachers' teaching practices were consistent with each teacher's theoretical orientation. Johnson's conclusion was clear: "Overall, the study supports the notion that ESL teachers teach in accordance with their theoretical beliefs" (p. 101).

Along with studies in reading, there are several other studies investigating ESL teachers' beliefs about writing instruction. For instance, Burns (1992), employed class observations, interviews, and stimulated recalls to examine six ESL teachers' beliefs about writing instruction and the impact of the beliefs on their ESL students' writing. Results suggest that: (a) the teachers believed in the significance of both communicative competence and linguistic competence (grammatical competence in particular); (b) they tended to use written language not as part of teaching writing but as part of showing the accurate use of correct pronunciation of spoken language; (c) they emphasized the significance of increasing learners' confidence, practice and repetition; (d) they

considered the establishment of a non-threatening classroom environment to be an important element of the language classroom; and (e) they perceived themselves as managers of the classroom, as facilitators of classroom interactions, and as providers of classroom materials and resources.

These beliefs interacted with each other in influencing the teachers' classroom instruction of writing, which was largely CLT-based. Studies on ESL/EFL teachers' beliefs suggest a significant degree of interaction between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices, despite some inconsistencies between what they say they believe and what they actually do in their classroom teaching.

However, unlike previous studies indicating the congruency between teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices, Woods (1996) investigated eight ESL teachers about their beliefs in creating their course curriculum and planning daily lessons and pointed out that there were some incongruence between teachers' beliefs and actions. Discrepancy or inconsistencies between beliefs and practices was also noted by other researchers (Freeman & Freeman, 2011; Sato & Kleinsassser, 1999). For example, Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) found that no evidence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was observed in participants' teaching when participants in the study claimed to believe in and use CLT. Freeman and Freeman (2011) also argued for a consistency among teachers' beliefs, knowledge of theories and classroom activities. It was suggested that teachers must examine and analyze their beliefs in order to reestablish consistency when tensions among the three components arise.

(3) Discrepancy Between TLB and Practices

In the past several decades, literacy researchers proved that teachers have theoretical orientations on literacy and continue to examine their significance between these literacy beliefs and instructional practices. Beyond research investigating what teachers believe about literacy, researchers have examined whether teachers' instructional practices are congruent with literacy-related beliefs and their theoretical orientations. Literacy researchers have made great efforts to understand the significance of teachers' theoretical beliefs and their impacts on actual classroom instructions. Many researchers (Borg, 1998; Reed, 2003; Rueda & Garcia, 1997; Squires & Bliss, 2004; Sturtevant, 1996) adopted interview techniques and classroom observation to identify congruence between teachers' stated literacy-related beliefs and observed classroom practices.

It is important to note that even some researchers (Davis, Konopak, & Readence, 1993; Grisham, 2000; Olson & Singer, 1994; Powers et al., 2006), who found cases both congruence and incongruence, still suggest that teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices are generally consistent. Previous studies over the past two decades such as Richardson et al. (1991) support that there is some degree of congruence between teachers' literacy beliefs and their actual classroom instructions. It was found that researchers could successfully predict teachers' instructional practices after determining 39 teachers' theoretical orientations to reading comprehension deprived from interview data and conclude there was congruence between teachers' beliefs and practice (Richardson et al., 1991).

Researchers demonstrated that upon entering teacher education, most teachers and teacher candidates possess a well-developed set of beliefs about teaching and learning from their own experience as students, which strongly affect classroom practices and behaviors (Davis & Wilson, 1999; Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Fang, 1996b; Richardson, 2003; Yero, 2002). There is consistent research evidence suggesting all teachers bring some beliefs to their classroom, which influences their decision-making process and points to a certain degree of congruency between teachers' beliefs about reading and writing and their instructional practices (Braithwaite, 1999; Burgess et al., 1999; Clark & Peterson, 1986; DeFord, 1985; Feng & Etheridge, 1993; Graham, Harris, Fink, & MacArthur, 2001; Maxson, 1996; Poulson et al., 2001; Squires & Bliss, 2004).

This body of literature suggests that researchers generally agree there is some degree of congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices. However, it has been reported that there are conflicts or discrepancies between what teachers believe and what they actually do in their classrooms (Bawden, Buike, & Duffy, 1979; Judson, 2006; Lenski et al., 1998; Schraw & Olafson, 2002; Wilcox-Herzog, 2002). Researchers have noted constraints that lead to the discrepancy and attributed this discrepancy to multiple factors such as inexperience, restricted time for instruction, administrative constraints, the lack of professional development, environmental realities of the school and the classroom, and lack of administrative support (Barksdale-Ladd & King, 2000; Breen, 2002; Graden, 1996; Fang, 1996a; Hedrick, Harmon, & Linerode, 2004; Jones & Fong, 2007; Lenski et al., 1998; Qian & Tao, 2006).

For example, Pajares and Graham (1998) observed middle school teachers how they responded to a hypothetical teaching situation and made efforts to always provide positive feedback to students. Then it was concluded that teachers' beliefs regarding the importance of nurturing students overrode teachers' literacy beliefs and influenced their instructional practices. Qian and Tao (2006) investigated 4 teachers' beliefs and practices both within a university practicum and in their own classrooms and found that their instructional practices were specific to the teaching context rather than their beliefs. Teaching context and ongoing changes in teachers' beliefs and practices were also identified as one of other contributing factors for discrepancies (Barksdale-Ladd & King, 2000; Davis et al. 1993; Hedrick et al., 2004; Richardson et al., 1991).

And more specific literacy topics were also investigated to identify teachers' beliefs and instructional practices such as reading comprehension and spelling. Graden (1996), for instance, employed classroom observations and interviews to investigate six French and Spanish teachers' literacy beliefs and teaching practices in reading comprehension in three American secondary schools. Interview results demonstrated that the teachers believed in facilitating reading proficiency with frequent opportunities for reading practices and the need to use the target language. However, it was observed in their actual classroom teaching that the teachers subordinated their beliefs about reading instruction to their beliefs about the motivational needs of their students such as the use of learners' native language (English) due to poor student performance.

Johnston (2001) conducted a study of 42 teachers' self-reported instructional practices in spelling. The results clearly present that the discrepancies between teachers'

beliefs and their practices, in which 73% of the teachers believed that spelling is not addressed well within the elementary curriculum. Jones and Fong (2007) employed interviews to investigate pedagogical beliefs of 30 pre-service and 27 in-service Macau secondary EFL teachers. It was found that the teachers' experiences as EFL learners played an important role for their pedagogical beliefs, which tend to be teacher-centered, textbook-based and grammar-oriented in spite of their exposure to different teaching theories and methods such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). It was also observed that teachers' instructional practices were affected not simply by their beliefs but also by various external constraints such as class size and lack of resources and time for preparation.

Taking into consideration the discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and instructional practices, it is important to ask whether or not such incongruence is desirable within the field. It was argued that congruency was required for effective teaching (Dobson & Dobson, 1983), whereas more recent studies assume that discrepancies or incongruence were not necessarily signs of trouble. Researchers found that such discrepancies might occur when teachers are in the process of making major changes in either their belief systems or their instructional practices (Barksdale-Ladd & King, 2000; Lenski et al., 1998). Professional development can be considered for the discrepancies in order to bring about certain changes in teachers' literacy beliefs. This finding emerged from recent studies can provide more information about changes in teachers' beliefs and the change process.

Previous studies suggest several contributing factors of mismatches between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices such as teaching context and teaching manual. Since teachers' beliefs consist of various categories, it is critical to understand what kind of beliefs that teachers hold. For example, it was suggested that teachers hold beliefs about teachers' roles, students, subject matter areas they teach, and schools they work in (Nespor, 1987). Slightly different from Nespor's categories, Calderhead (1996) listed five main areas in which teachers have been found to hold significant beliefs: students, nature and goal of teaching, subject, learning to teach, and the roles of teachers. It was explained that teachers hold strong beliefs about these five areas, arguing that first two beliefs, about students and nature and goal of teaching, rarely change.

According to Calderhead (1996), teachers' beliefs about who their students are and how students learn are likely to influence how they teach and interact with their students and what kinds of classroom activities they practice. Teachers also hold strong beliefs about the nature and goals of teaching such as a process of knowledge transmission or a process of guiding students' learning. It is important to understand that teachers' literacy beliefs are not always the most influential beliefs but the other factors such as beliefs about students and teachers' role in the classroom can be just as important as their literacy beliefs. (Abernathy, 2002; Calderhead, 1996; Moje, 1996; Pajares & Graham, 1998)

Teachers' beliefs as used in the study largely match the beliefs teachers hold in the several areas suggested by Calderhead (1996). Teachers' beliefs in this study refer to KFL

teacher' beliefs mainly about (a) students' characteristics as KHLLs, (b) instructional practices in literacy teaching, (c) learning to teach, and (d) the roles of teachers.

(4) TLB and Students' Learning

In the literature review, most literacy researchers have focused on teachers' literacy beliefs and their consequences on instructional practices. They have demonstrated that teachers have theoretical beliefs about literacy and argued that there is congruence between beliefs and practices as well as some discrepancies. It was concluded that teachers' literacy beliefs have an impact on teaching practices and ultimately student learning. It has been claimed that teachers' beliefs have a profound effect on learning among students (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran, 2003; Fisher, 2001; Greenleaf, Schoenbach, Cziko, & Mueller, 2001).

Based on the assumption that teachers' beliefs affect their instructional practices, the impact of teachers' beliefs on their students' learning has been investigated. Some researchers have focused on the influence teachers' theoretical orientations toward literacy instruction have on students' conception and understanding of literacy (Fang, 1996b; Reutzel & Sabey, 1996; Sacks & Mergendoller, 1997; Wing, 1989). Thomas and Barksdale-Ladd (1997), for instance, conducted research on 2 kindergarten teachers having different approaches: one with a skills-based approach and another with a whole language approach. The results showed that students from each classroom had different perceptions of reading, writing and learning. Students in the skills-based classroom and students in the whole-language oriented class reflected their teacher's beliefs and

practices, considering reading and writing as a set of skills they needed to master in order to succeed and as tools for communication and meaning making, respectively.

Wing (1989) also argued that teachers' theoretical beliefs about literacy influence their instructional practices and also shape children's perceptions of the nature and uses of reading and writing. Emphasizing the vital role of teachers' beliefs in creating positive motivational conditions, Bruning and Horn (2000) claimed that teachers' decision about positioning writing in the curriculum and their reactions to students' writing shaped students' ideas about writing and their motivation to write.

2.1.3 Assessing Teachers' Beliefs about Literacy

It has been considered that teachers' theoretical orientation has an impact on particular decisions and aspects regarding reading instruction in language classroom (Cummins, Cheek, & Lindsey, 2004; Harste & Burke, 1977; Stipek et al., 2001). Research has also suggested that teachers conceptualize literacy in different ways as the result of their own experience and professional knowledge (DeFord, 1985; Grisham, 2000; Harste & Burke, 1977; Lensky et al., 1998; Richardson, 2003; Wray et al., 2002; Yero, 2002). The complexity of teachers' beliefs and their relationship with instructional practices in classroom has also led to methodological diversity to assess teachers' literacy beliefs in the field. Recent literature in the literacy field presents an increasing interest about teachers' beliefs and its assessment because of more attention to teachers' accountability and their influential role in students' performance than before (Graham

et al., 2001; Muchmore, 2001; Poulson et al., 2001; Richards, 2001; Squires & Bliss, 2004).

There have been different research approaches to investigate teachers' beliefs about literacy. While earlier studies relied on quantitative approaches (Deford, 1985; Duffy & Metheny, 1979), more recent studies have also employed qualitative methods (Fang, 1996b; Grisham, 2000; Linek et al., 1999; Muchmore, 2001). Although Munby (1984) argued that qualitative methodologies were appropriate to the teachers' beliefs, it has been suggested that researchers have to choose either qualitative or quantitative approaches depending on what researchers wish to know (Pajares, 1992; Poulson et al., 2001).

The first attempt to investigate about conceptualizing and assessing teachers' beliefs in reading was conducted by Duffy and Metheny (1979), in which they developed a 45 item instrument, the Propositions About Reading Inventory (Proposition Inventory), to assess and categorize teachers' beliefs about reading in terms of standard models such as basal text, natural language, and integrated curriculum models. Duffy and Metheny (1979) suggested that identifying and assessing teachers' beliefs about reading could help researchers investigate the relationship between teachers' particular beliefs and certain characteristics. They also recognized potential uses for instruments like the Proposition Inventory in the field of reading in order to gain descriptive and predictive knowledge about teachers' literacy beliefs.

Similar to the work of Duffy and Metheny, (1979), DeFord (1985) developed an instrument, Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP), and determined teachers' beliefs about practices in reading instruction. DeFord (1985) classified teachers' beliefs into three categories of theoretical orientation: phonics (emphasis on decoding), skills (emphasis on word recognition), and whole language (emphasis on developing sense of story and text). The reliability of the instrument was evaluated by comparing 14 teachers' responses to TORP with observers' prediction of teachers' responses to the instrument after classroom observations. The degree of congruence between two groups' responses were determined by Spearman Rho correlation and supported the validity of the construct of theoretical orientation and TORP reliability (r=.98). Research results indicated that teachers from each orientation responded in consistent and predictable patterns to statements about practices in reading instruction. Since the earlier instruments such as Proposition Inventory and TORP focused on particular practices of reading instruction, more recent studies on teachers' literacy beliefs (Braithwaite, 1999; Burgess et al., 1999; Madison & Speaker, 1996; Morrow, 2001; Wray et al., 2002) cover both reading and writing from a broader perspective.

Making much effort to examine teachers' theoretical orientation in reading instructions from DeFord's (1985) research and the assumption that teachers' beliefs about reading and writing are related to their practices, many researchers have studied teachers' theoretical orientation to reading and its correspondence with their instructional practices (Feng & Etheridge, 1993; Poulson et al., 2001). For example, Feng and Etheridge (1993) investigated 259 teachers' theoretical orientations about reading

and classified them as phonics, skills or whole language orientation in TORP (DeFord). Then, using the Moss Classroom Analysis of Teachers' Theoretical Orientation to Reading (CATTOR), 15 teachers (5 from each orientation) were observed during reading instruction and interviewed regarding their criteria for materials and influential factors to their literacy beliefs. The research results demonstrated that most teachers (60%) adhered to their theoretical orientation measured by TORP when teaching reading but also suggested that 40% of teachers did not teach in accordance with their beliefs.

Furthermore, since TORP does not address writing instruction, Poulson et al. (2001) modified the TORP for writing and addressed teachers' theoretical orientations through the comparison between 225 effective teachers of literacy and a group of 150 teachers, finding that the effective teachers were inclined towards a whole language orientation. In addition, Graham et al. (2001) developed the Writing Orientation Scale to investigate teachers' orientations to the teaching of writing focusing on beliefs that teachers hold about writing instruction.

However, since these earlier instruments have some limitations of encompassing the variety of contexts for different beliefs, it has been suggested that additional measures such as self-report, open-ended interviews and observation have to be included to make more accurate inferences about teachers' beliefs (Olson & Stinger, 1994; Pajares 1992). In fact, considering the personal and situational context of teachers' beliefs, various researchers (Graham et al., 2002; Muchmore, 2001; Squires & Bliss, 2004) advocated for the use of qualitative methods in study of the teachers' literacy

beliefs in order to provide rich descriptions about participants and actual contexts as well as to gain a more accurate understanding of teachers' literacy beliefs.

Because teachers' literacy beliefs are not observable behaviors, most studies on teachers' beliefs have employed qualitative methods to collect data from what teachers say, intend and do (Pajares, 1992). Through various qualitative studies about teachers' literacy beliefs, it has been recognized that teachers' beliefs are shown in the form of actions and instructional decisions even though teachers' beliefs are often implicit (Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004; Wray et al., 2002; Yero, 2002).

On the basis of the argument on the relationship between teachers' literacy beliefs, instructional practices and its assessment, many researchers have taken into consideration the premise that there may be conflicts or discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and practices in some degree (Judson, 2006; Lenski et al., 1998; Maxson, 1996; Schraw & Olafson, 2002; Tidwell & Stele, 1992). For example, acknowledging some inconsistencies regarding the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices, Tidwell and Stele (1992) focused on examining the connection between teachers' stated beliefs and that teacher's instruction in the classroom.

Underlining the fact that teachers' beliefs and practices may not be congruent, Lenski et al. (1998) developed the Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS), an instrument that assesses teachers' literacy beliefs and practices. This instrument, LOS, is a 30-item

measure entailing 15 belief statements and 15 practice statements, which employs a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. The LOS encompasses teachers' beliefs regarding both reading and writing considering the interrelationship between these two processes.

According to the LOS, teachers' literacy beliefs and classroom practices were assessed and classified into three categories according to individual scores of beliefs and practices: traditional, eclectic, and constructivist as which scores can reveal how closely teachers' beliefs align with their practices. The LOS employs an interpretation of scores for teachers' literacy beliefs as traditional (closest to 51), eclectic (closest to 61) and constructivist (closest to 69). As for teachers' practices, a similar interpretation of scores was employed as traditional (closest to 51), eclectic (closest to 56) and constructivist (closest to 63). The combined scores with regard to teachers' literacy beliefs and practices were used to categorize teachers as traditional teachers in the 90-110 range, eclectic teachers in the 111-125 range, and constructivist teachers in the 126-145 range in accordance with the survey.

As for the assessment of teachers' beliefs and congruence in the field of foreign language education, Allen (2002) designed the Foreign Language Education Questionnaire (FLEQ) in order to examine and determine the extent to which foreign language teachers' beliefs are consistent with major constructs underlying the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (National Standards, 1999).

The questionnaire consists of 32 items, which represent fundamental assumptions underlying the standards for foreign language learning. It employed a 5-point Likert

scale (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree) to examine the extent of respondents' agreement with each of the 32 statements. Midwestern foreign language teachers' (n = 613) responses to the Foreign Language Education Questionnaire (FLEQ) was collected and analyzed, finding that four out of five subscales (the student profile, curricular elements, language of instruction, and grade level) fell in the consistent range indicating agreement with the standards. However, under the subscale of textbook/language system was within the undecided range or the inconsistent range with the standards. Analysis of the data suggests that there are several factors having an impact on teachers' beliefs such as urban versus rural location, private versus public school, gender and membership in professional organizations.

In looking at the body of literature regarding teachers' beliefs and the findings in the literacy research on teachers' literacy beliefs from the first section of this chapter, the relationship between literacy beliefs and instructional practices becomes clear. Although researchers in the field of literacy have worked to uncover teachers' beliefs regarding literacy instruction over the past three decades, it is still very complicated to uncover teachers' beliefs.

While the previous studies address broad ideas of teachers' literacy beliefs and practices, however, the literacy research reviewed above did not include much of heritage language regarding teachers' literacy beliefs, classroom instructions and understanding of heritage language learners, nonetheless, do lend support to heritage language teaching in general. There is a lack of understanding regarding literacy beliefs in heritage language teaching and congruence between beliefs and practices. Research

findings in congruence between teachers' literacy beliefs and instructional practices help identify starting points for the study of language teachers' literacy-related beliefs in heritage language teaching. Through the close examination of congruence in heritage language teaching, previous findings can be affirmed and several factors to influence teachers' decisions and classroom practices can be identified.

Once the investigation of teachers' literacy beliefs in heritage language begins, it is difficult to advance our understanding of literacy beliefs related to heritage language teaching without the comprehension of heritage language learners (HLL) in terms of their literacy and characteristics in language learning.

Within this section, I summarized current understanding regarding teachers' literacy beliefs and their instructional practices in order to connect literacy beliefs to the specific context of heritage language education in which this study is embedded. Common findings related to teachers' literacy beliefs, their instructional practices and the consequences literacy beliefs have on teachers' instructional practices in literacy were included, and consideration was given to researchers' explanations to address congruences and incongruences between teachers' literacy-related beliefs and their classroom instructions. Additionally, some previous studies investigating factors influential in literacy beliefs and possibilities for change in teachers' literacy-related beliefs and practices were addressed.

Next, I synthesize specific findings related to heritage language and heritage language learners (HLL) in the field of literacy and foreign language education. Studies

have been more focused on HLL such as identity, motivation and language proficiency rather than language teachers who teach the HLL in classroom. Both the HLL and language instructors teaching heritage language is reviewed and address in the next section. While examining several HLs, Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) was focused on for this study. I also explore implications for the study of teachers' literacy beliefs in the field of heritage language along with foreign language education.

2.2 Heritage Language (HL) Education and Heritage Language Literacy

As the world has changed culturally more diverse and globalized, the importance of heritage languages (HL) not only as personal but also as national asset cannot be stressed enough. Heritage language instruction is rapidly becoming a sub-discipline within the fields of Foreign Language (FL) Education. In the field of teachers' literacy beliefs in FL education, the relevance of teachers' beliefs and their impact on students' performance have been recognized through many previous studies over decades (Fang, 1996b; Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Mujis & Reynolds, 2001; Murphy, Delli, & Edwards, 2004; Yero, 2002; Wray et al., 2002). This chapter discusses Heritage Language (HL), then reviews literature regarding teachers' literacy beliefs and Heritage Language Learners' (HLLs) literacy in the literacy field along with needs and characteristics of HLLs.

Many researchers (Clair & Adger 1999; Gutiérrez, 1997; Leeman 2005; Roca, 1997; Romero 2000; Scalera 1997; Sylvan 2000; Villa 2004) have paid a fair level of attention in Heritage Language (HL) teaching and learning in addition to their analysis of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. In order to start to examine teachers' literacy

beliefs in HL and HLLs from their classroom practices, it is essential to first understand the characteristics of HLLs, which make them different from FL/L2 learners. Many researchers have studied HLLs and their special needs. For example, Carreira and Kagan (2011) reported a general profile of HLLs and its implication for teaching through the recent National Heritage Language Survey emphasizing the critical role of HL community in HL pedagogies and curricula.

In this section, the definitions of HL and HLLs will be discussed and then HLLs' literacy will be examined to answer the research questions. Characteristics of KHLLs and heritage language learners from other languages such as Spanish and Chinese will be also discussed along with HL accommodations and implications for HL teaching.

2.2.1 Heritage Language (HL) and Heritage Language Learners (HLLs)

A. HL and HLLs

Although the term Heritage Language (HL) and heritage language learners (HLLs) is currently used broadly, the definition of a Heritage Language (HL) and heritage language speakers has continued to be debated in the field of FL education. Examining heritage language over the past several decades, scholars have made several definitions for HL and HLLs in the field of FL education.

Reflecting the diversity in terms of linguistic proficiency and status in HL communities, HL has been called by different terms such as 'native language' and 'mother tongue' and heritage language speakers have been referred to as 'bilingual

speakers,' 'native speakers,' 'quasi-native speakers,' 'residual speakers,' and 'home-background speakers' (Valdés, 1997). HLs were also defined as languages other than English (LOTEs) and languages having a particular family relevance or personal historical connection to the language learners (Fishman, 2001). HL has been also referred to all languages except English, particularly, in the United States context (Cummins, 2005) and the first language (L1) of new immigrant students who are still acquiring the societal language (e.g. English, in the United States) (Lee & Suárez, 2009). Wiley (2005) stated the term 'Heritage Language' (HL) as an immigrant, indigenous, or ancestral language that a speaker has a personal relevance and desire to connect or reconnect with. Due to this heterogeneous nature of HL, the term has been used in the literature with varying definitions depending on the perspective involved.

Discussing terminology of HL, Polinsky and Kagan (2007) proposed to define the term either in broad or narrow perspectives. In the broadest perspective, the term HL is more focusing on person's ethnic or cultural heritage and refers to the connection to past tradition such as indigenous and immigrant languages regardless of its regular usage in the home and the community (Fishman, 2001; Hornberger &Wang, 2008; Kondo-Brown, 2003; Polinsky & Kagan, 2007; Van Deusen-Scholl, 2003). For those individuals interested in maintaining immigrant languages HL broadly refers to a language with which individuals have a personal and historical connection (Valdés, 2002). In this prospective, it is implied that HL may not be used in the home and would be an L2 without functional proficiency.

On the other hand, in the narrow sense, HL is defined as a language acquired first but without complete acquisition (Polinsky & Kagan, 2007). In this study, narrowly defined HL was adopted and used to examine different functional abilities and language proficiencies, which HLLs bring to the language classroom, as its purpose is to contribute to teachers' beliefs on HLLs' literacy. In this narrow sense, Heritage Language Learners (HLLs) refers to those who not only recognize their cultural heritage but also indicate to some degree bilingual speaking the target language regularly and extensively at home or in the community (Reynolds, Howard, & Deák, 2009; Valdes, 2000).

Since the term heritage language speaker became a term of general use in the Standards for Foreign Language Learning (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996), HLLs have also come to be investigated by more FL educators. However, as for characteristics, which constitute a Heritage Language Learner (HLL), there has been much debate for its definitions (Wiley & Valdés, 2000). It is important for us to label and define HLLs since those labels and definitions help to shape the status of HLLs and HLs (Wiley, 2001). According to Wiley (2001), it is not easy to determine who HLLs are for the consideration of a number of issues related to HLLs, particularly, whether ethnolinguistic group or the proficiency in the language is more salient in affiliating heritage language speakers to HLLs. Despite its broad use of the term, HLLs, problematic and complex characteristics drew much attention to its definition and led various interpretations (Baker & Jones, 1998; Carreira, 2004; García, 2005; Hornberger & Wang, 2008; Kagan, 2005; Valdés 2001).

There have been several definitions for HLLs in the field. The term HLLs was defined as learners with a heritage motivation having a strong cultural connection to a particular language through family interaction and background (Van Deusen-Scholl, 2003). While having lived outside the heritage culture, HLLs wanted to have more access to ethnic cultural and linguistic experience for more close connection to their heritage culture and identity (Lee, 2006). For example, Saturday schools run by their heritage communities such as Chinese and Korean are deeply committed to maintaining a home language while children attend regular public schools speaking English for their education. Heritage language learners are considered very essential to foster strong relationship with ethnic minority communities and to understand their social and cultural institutions. It was also defined as individuals who have familial or ancestral ties to a certain language, which is non-English (Hornberger & Wang, 2008). More precisely, in a U.S. context, HLL was defined as an individual raised in a non-English speaking family with speaking or merely understanding the HL, and being bilingual at least to some degree in English and the HL (Chevalier, 2004; Valdés, 2001). These widely accepted definitions reflect the diversity of the HLLs population. Key questions to define HLLs have been raised about the degree to which current uses of the term heritage in affiliation with a personal connection and self-identity or expertise in interactional or linguistic proficiency (Rampton, 1990).

HLL has been characterized as “new field emerging” (Brinton, Kagan, & Bauckus, 2008; Valdés & Geoffrion-Vinci, 2011). In the field of heritage language education, the term HLL refers to a language learner who was raised in homes where the target

language (the non-English language that they are studying) was spoken and who is to some degree bilingual in English and a particular HL (Valdés & Figueroa, 1994; Valdés, 2000). For foreign language educators, the HLL who has developed receptive and productive proficiencies in everyday communication is different from L2/FL learners, who are English-speaking monolingual individuals and have traditionally undertaken the study of foreign languages in schools and colleges (Valdés, 2001). It has been emphasized that the HL acquisition begins in the home and community while the L2 education typically begins in the language classroom at the UCLA Research Priorities Conference (2000).

Comparing HLLs with non-HLLs, many researchers examined HLLs' development of their heritage language and emphasized the special language behavior and needs of HLLs, which are claimed to be distinctly different from those of traditional non-HLLs including different types of HLLs with different motivations and linguistic needs (Andrews, 2000; Brecht & Ingold, 2002; Campbell, 1996; Campbell & Rosenthal, 2000; Ke, 1998; King, 1998; Kondo-Brown, 2001, 2003; Liu, & Shibata, 2008; Mazzocco, 1996; Pino & Pino, 2005; Valdés 2000). There have been studies to compare or contrast L2 learners' language skills with HLLs' examining linguistic characteristics in terms of phonological, grammatical and lexical competence.

For example, as for speaking, it has been investigated and concluded that HLLs' aural proficiency is stronger than their other language skills (Polinsky & Kagan, 2007; Valdés, 2001). HLLs' motivation for studying a particular language of their own heritage in formal academic settings would contrast significantly with that of typical FL/L2

students who might take language courses merely to fulfill general education language requirements. It was also found that HLLs used a more diversified range of lexical and syntactic means than L2 learners (Isurin & Ivanova-Sullivan, 2008). These differences led FL educators to develop and focus on different functional proficiencies between HLLs and FL/L2 students (Valdés, 2002).

As HLLs began to enroll their HL courses in the secondary education, language teachers should react to the HL learners' needs or learning objectives as well as to those of the traditional FL students who are learning L2 (Kagan & Dillon, 2009). Since HLLs are different from other groups of students in language classrooms, HLLs' characteristics have been analyzed in order to design a curriculum and provide practical pedagogical information about HL instruction and assessment procedures.

In order to clarify the basic terms and issues surrounding HL teaching such as HL curriculum design, which is different from traditional FL/L2 curriculum, it is critical to gather more information regarding general profile of HLLs as well as practical pedagogical information for HLLs. Carreira and Kagan (2011) reported the results of the national heritage language survey suggesting characteristics for a general profile of HLLs, which represents 22 languages in all, including Korean.

The purpose of the survey is to contribute to the design of methodologies and curricula for HLLs' linguistic skills and needs. Arguing a community-based curriculum as an effective way to respond to HLLs' goals for their HL, the reports characterize HLLs as language learners who: (1) acquired English in early childhood, after acquiring the HL;

(2) has limited exposure to the HL outside the home; (3) has relatively strong aural and oral skills but limited literacy skills; (4) has positive HL attitudes and experiences; and (5) studies the HL mainly to connect with communities of speakers in the United States and to gain insights into his or her roots (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

The survey showed linguistic profiles of college-level HLLs and key commonalities across HLLs. Despite the heterogeneity of HLLs profiles, several common characteristics were found that: (1) HLLs are bilingual using two language systems; (2) HLLs want to get instructions since they perceive their HL skills are weaker than those in the language of the country of immigration; and (3) HLLs across languages show the loss of stylistic registers (Carreira & Kagan, 2011). FL instructors have been concerned with teaching these HLLs who may require a different curriculum because of their specific proficiencies as more HLLs enroll in classes of world languages to gain literacy and improve or maintain their home languages. Related to HLLs' literacy along with these general characteristics from the survey, the results of the survey provide insight into HLLs and HL teaching in terms of HLLs' self-rated competency in their HL, which is significantly stronger in the oral and aural domains than their literacy skills. It is clear that HLLs' needs and goals in (re)learning the language are different from those of FL/L2 learners and more focused on improving literacy skills.

B. HL Literacy and HL Literacy Beliefs

From the above discussion of HLLs' self-rated competency in their HL, it seems clear that HLLs believe their literacy skills are much lower than oral skills. Literacy skills

and practices are an essential element of a study on the learning of both foreign language and heritage language. Due to the fact that HLLs are proficient to some degree in more than one language, heritage language literacy has been encompassed with bilingualism and biliteracy. Biliteracy has been defined as competencies in two written languages, developed to varying degrees, either simultaneously or successively, while bilingualism refers to the ability to speak two languages (Dworin, 2003; Horneberger, 1990).

Literacy and biliteracy have been studied from two very distinct research perspectives: a cognitive perspective and a sociocultural perspective. The cognitive view of literacy emphasizes the cognitive abilities to decode and encode text that reside in an individual's mind, enabling the processes of reading and writing (Goswami, 2006; Grabe, 1991; Perfetti & Marron, 1998). According to a sociocultural view, researchers take into account factors in language learning contexts or language learner's prior experience in home and community such as the comparative dominance of the two languages in the surrounding society and the similarity or dissimilarity of linguistic structures and writing systems (Barton, 1994; Hornberger, 1989, 2003). In this perspective, literacy is constrained by the socio-cultural contexts that allow an individual to interact with a discourse community of other literate individuals (Heath & Street, 2008; Street, 1995).

In recent years, efforts to differentiate heritage language acquisition (HLA) from second language acquisition (SLA) have been made narrowing the definition of HLLs to those who have been exposed to the HL at home from, an early age, in informal contexts developing some HL proficiency (Benmamoun, Montrul, & Polinsky, 2010;

Carreira & Kagan, 2011; Montrul, 2010; Van Deusen-Scholl, 2011). Therefore, HLLs have advantages in conversational skills but limited metacognitive awareness and literacy (Montrul, 2010). In the context of literacy research in HL and FL, Montrul (2010) suggested that the greatest distinction between the command of the language among HLLs and among non-HLLs at the same proficiency level is placed in literacy.

However, the topics of biliteracy and literacy in the HL have not received much attention in educational research since the research on bilingualism has primarily focused on spoken language (Valdés, 1992). It has found that HLLs in many languages such Spanish, Chinese, Russian, and Korean tend to have aural and speaking proficiency in the home and family domain and lack literacy in the heritage language due to insufficient exposure to academic, high-level registers (Carreira, 2000; Dai & Zhang, 2008; Friedman & Kagan, 2008; Lyutykh, 2011; Min, 2000; Shin, 2006; Shin & Milroy, 1999; Wei, 2002). HLLs demonstrate some typical characteristics under the setting of home language acquisition, such as acquisition of 80% - 90% of grammatical rules, an extensive vocabulary, a lack of formal registers, and poor literacy (Campbell & Rosenthal, 2000).

There appears to be widespread recognition that HLLs are different from FL students. In foreign language classroom, language educators notice the fact that most of HLLs do grow up to be bilingual to a certain degree but HLLs' lack of literacy skills in the HL impedes development of academic reading and writing in the heritage language. Experiencing large increases in HLLs enrollment and observing the HLLs' struggles in

language classroom, language educators have made much effort to meet their special needs such as their lack of literacy and academic registers.

The role of the teacher in determining the success or failure of HLLs in heritage language learning has been studied and emphasized. Many researchers (Clair & Adger, 1999; Lacorte & Canabal, 2005; Leeman, 2005; Romero, 2000; Scalera, 1997; Sylvan, 2000; Villa, 2004) have paid a fair level of attention to HL teaching and learning in addition to their analysis of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. For example, Sylvan (2000) highlighted teachers' beliefs shared by teachers of HL learners in Advanced Spanish classes, and listed philosophical beliefs and several successful strategies such as respect for students' prior knowledge, consideration toward individual and cultural differences, and effort to encourage HLLs' focus of control over their own learning in HL. It has been suggested that instructors of HLLs can benefit considerably from general knowledge and analysis of the particular HLLs considering different patterns of proficiency, exposure to literacy relative to oracy, and connections to heritage communities (Carreira & Kagan, 2011).

Teachers' attitudes and beliefs about HL, HLL and HL literacy have been studied mostly in Spanish (Carreira, 2004; Romero, 2000; Sylvan, 2000; Valdés, 2001, 2006) but in other languages as well such as Chinese (Dai & Zhang, 2008; Huang, 2013; Ke, 1998; Tse, 2001; Xiao, 2006), Russian (Friedman & Kagan, 2008; Lyutykh, 2011), and Arabic (Temples, 2013). Teaching Spanish to HLLs has a long history, going back to the 1930s and has been studied in various educational areas. Scholars have conducted research issues in language loss and maintenance (Bills, Hudson & Hernández-Chávez, 2000;

Rivera-Mills, 2001; Suarez, 2002), language and identity (Schwarzer & Petron, 2005; Potowski, 2003), separated language tracks (Lynch, 2008; Samaniego & Pino, 2000), literacy (Montrul, 2010; Potowski & Carreira, 2004), writing (Graham, Gillespie, & McKeown, 2012), teacher training programs for teachers of HLLs (Roca, 2000), language proficiency assessment (Valdés, 1995), and teachers' perception (Bateman & Wilkinson, 2010).

Recent research has also addressed HL literacy and its development focusing on several issues such as academic writing and the development of academic registers in the HL (Achugar, 2003; Schwartz, 2003). Spanish Heritage Language (SHL) educators developed curriculum models to deal with the discrepancy between HLLs' advanced levels of informal, non-prestigious language varieties acquired at home and their low levels of formal, prestigious language varieties (Fairclough, 2001; Faltis, 1990; Merino, Trueba, & Samaniego, 1993; Valdés 1995). Regarding SHL literacy, teachers' instructional support and awareness in the SHLLs' development of academic literacy has been also investigated (Carreira, 2007; Hornberger, 1990; Chevalier, 2004).

Literacy in heritage languages using an orthographic system other than the Roman alphabet has received much attention. Literacy research on heritage languages with non-Alphabetic writing system such as Chinese demonstrated that HLLs experience huge challenges and difficulty transferring their oral competencies to literacy skills (Ke, 1998; Xiao, 2006). Like the heritage learners of other languages, Chinese Heritage Language Learners (CHLLs) under the setting of home language acquisition also show typical characteristics such as sufficient conversational skills through intimate relationships

among family members but limited literacy skills and lack vocabulary knowledge in daily conversations (Dai & Zhang 2008; Ke, 1998; Li & Duff, 2008).

Ke (1998) investigated the effects of beginning learners' language background on Chinese character recognition and production and found that there were no statistically significant differences between CHLLs and Chinese Foreign Language Learners (CFLLs) in their performance. Following up Ke's research Xiao (2006) compared language development between CHLLs and CFLLs in a high beginning level Chinese class. The results confirmed that first-year CHLLs' oral exposure to their home language does not lead to a faster acquisition of literacy skills, implying the logographic nature of the Chinese writing system cannot provide sound cues for beginning CHLLs to connect their existing oral skills to reading and writing (Li & Duff, 2008).

Comparing the difference in word decision strategies between intermediate-level CHLLs and CFLLs, Huang (2011a) concluded that intermediate-level CHLLs applied more contextual strategies and knowledge in making word decisions and suggested intermediate-level CHLLs have a greater potential to make progress to advance-level reading proficiency in a shorter period of time. As for another language using a non-Roman alphabet writing system, Arabic HLLs also have shown similar language profile of relatively strong conversational skills but limited literacy skills (Carreira & Kagan, 2011). In addition to orthographic characteristics, diglossic distance between the spoken and written forms of the language challenged Arabic HLLs who developed proficiency through using Arabic at home on the component skills of reading (Bergman, 2009; Cruickshank, 2004; Saiegh-Haddad, 2005; Temples, 2013).

The body of literature above reviews the HLL and HL literacy revealing some shared commonalities as well as different characteristics from language by language depending on various features such as orthography. In the following section, Korean heritage language (KHL) and KHLLs are discussed in terms of characteristics in Korean language, non-Roman alphabet writings system, and KHLLs' linguistic profile and their literacy.

2.2.2 Korean Heritage Language (KHL) and Korean Heritage Language Learners (KHLLs)

There are around 1.1 million people of Korean Americans residing in the U.S. (the 2011 US Census) and Korean communities continued to offer community-based weekend programs for heritage language education. According to the U.S. Korean Embassy, there are about 9,000 volunteer teachers and more than 60,000 student enrolled at approximately 1,200 Korean community language schools in the U.S. (Lee & Shin, 2008, 2013). Almost half of community language schools are located in the Los Angeles area and the New York area where a substantial majority of Korean immigrants live. As for post-secondary education, 91 post-secondary institutions have affiliated with the American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK).

According to enrollment data reported in recent survey conducted by the Modem Language Association (MLA), Korean was marked as the fourteenth ranked after Portuguese in 2009 (Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2010). Korean language programs in the States have shown rapid expansion with the increasing number of students (19.1 %)

from 2006-2009. Although the number of non-heritage learners (KFL) has been increasing more recently because of the popularity of Korean pop culture called Korean Wave, the largest group of Korean language students is still made up of heritage learners (KHLLs). Typically a Korean language class is unique in terms of language learners since 70% or more of the Korean language classes in US colleges and universities are composed of learners from Korean ethnic backgrounds unlike other commonly taught foreign language classes such as German or French (H. Kim, 2003a; King, 1998; Sohn & Shin, 2007).

As Korean language education has been developed with an increasing number of Korean heritage language learners in classroom, KHLLs have received much attention and Korean language educators addressed many issues in various areas such as KHLLs' profile, identity, and literacy. In order to point out KHLLs' needs and provide adequate instructions, Korean language educators have worked to define Korean heritage language learners (KHLLs) investigating previous research on heritage language and heritage learners in other languages (Cho, Cho, & Tse, 1997; Jo, 2001; H. Kim, 2003a, 2003b; Shin, 2005; Lee & Kim, 2008).

In the field of heritage language research, a heritage language speaker has been discussed and defined as "someone who is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken and who speaks or at least understands the language and is to some degree bilingual in the home language and in English (Valdés, 2001, p. 38)." Van Deusen-Scholl (2003, p. 221) characterizes heritage language learners as "a heterogeneous

group ranging from fluent native speakers to non-speakers who may be generations removed, but who may feel culturally connected to a language".

The majority of Korean heritage learners in the U.S. fit this definition. KHLLs are children of first- generation Korean immigrants and grow up with the heritage language, mostly hearing and speaking Korean to varying degrees in the home and community. In the majority of cases, second-generation Korean Americans are often bilingual but communicate predominantly in English once they begin school while their parents speak almost exclusively Korean (Hing & Lee, 1996; Min, 2000; Shin, 2005; Shin & Milroy, 1999).

Adopting definitions of heritage learners proposed by Valdés (2001) and Van Deusen-Scholl (2003), Lee and Shin (2008, p. 2) defined KHLLs as "those who have an ethnolinguistic affiliation to the Korean heritage, but may have a broad range of proficiency from high to none in Korean oral or literacy skills."

Based on the understanding of KHLLs, researchers studied other areas such as how KHLLs' cultural identities and motivations are constructed and influence their learning of Korean. Korean heritage language and one's ethnic identity have been also studied, and it was found that heritage language development contributed greatly to a strong sense of ethnic identity and also positively affected interactions with HL speakers (Cho, 2000; Cho, Cho, & Tse, 1997).

Regarding the cultural identity of KHLLs in the university HL classroom, J.S. Lee (2002) studied 40 second-generation Korean-American university students and found a

positive relationship between HL proficiency and a strong bicultural identity. Scholars and Korean language educators have gathered information from KHLs about their linguistic and cultural profiles, attitudes, and motivations over the past decade. From the analysis of the interviews data from heritage learners, H. Kim (2003a) confirmed that learning of the language in college is closely tied to an affirmation of their ethnic identity functioning as "a symbolic marker of ethnicity."

There have been several studies investigating the KHLLs' motivational orientation toward the Korean language (Cho, 2000; Choi, 2012; Lee & Kim, 2008). For example, Cho (2000) reported on a survey of second-generation Koreans and listed reasons for studying their HL: (1) to communicate better with family, friends and community; (2) to learn and hold on to cultural and linguistic roots; and (3) to expand career options and take the career benefits of being bilingual while Carreira and Kagan (2011) noted KHLLs' pragmatic goal of fulfilling a language requirement.

Due to the scarce availability of secondary schools with K-12 instruction, many KLLs enroll in Korean language courses at college level for formal instruction in classroom. Responding to the question about learning objectives, KHLLs in the college Korean language classroom most commonly cited (1) to increase their vocabulary and (2) to improve their writing (Cho, 2000). It becomes clearer that KHLLs want to gain more exposure to academic variety of Korean language and aim to develop a true biliteracy.

KHLLs' self-rated proficiency has been reported that KHLLs rated their aural proficiency skills in the HL considerably lower than other heritage language speakers such as Spanish and Russian while literacy skills were rated similar to other language learners (Carreira & Kagan, 2011). In the results, specifically, a large majority of KHLLs rated their listening skills in the intermediate to advanced range but rated their speaking, reading, and writings skills in the low to intermediate range. These results demonstrate KHLLs' linguistic profile and special needs to develop literacy skills as revealed in other HLLs such as Chinese and Vietnamese.

Since the KHLLs have developed HL skills at home with their parents or siblings, KHLLs' listening and speaking proficiency is relatively higher than their literacy skills. These linguistic features such as limited literacy, lack of academic literacy and a wide gap between comprehension and production have been studied and found in many other HLs such as Spanish and Chinese (Carreira, 2003; Said-Mohand, 2011; Valdés, 2001; Wu, 2007).

It has been reported that KHLLs usually have some degree of grammatical rules and a relatively decent-sized lexicon in their heritage language (C. Lee, 2000). Heritage learners, however, often display weaknesses in standard orthography. It has been noted that foreign language learners accurately write words they are familiar with while HLLs committed many orthographic errors not commonly made by FL learners (Kagan & Dillon, 2001). KHLLs demonstrate typical unbalanced form of proficiency in language skills, which is a good knowledge in the oral component of Korean but have not received formal instruction in reading and writing (O-S. Sohn, 1995; Shin & Kim, 2000).

Both instructors and KHLLs are aware of challenges and difficulties caused by Korean orthographic characteristics such as syllable blocks and morpheme boundaries. Due to the low accuracy caused by spelling, it has been suggested that HLLs need special attention and require more extensive work in achieving orthographic accuracy.

Korean writing system Hangul, which is a non-Roman alphabetic script, may affect KHLLs to rate their literacy skills low as in other languages using non-Roman scripts such as Chinese. The Korean Hangul, consisting of 14 consonant and 10 vowel symbols, is an alphabetic script and each symbol represents a single consonant or vowel. The Hangul symbols include 24 basic symbols, representing 14 consonants and 10 vowels. According to the Orthographic Depth Hypothesis, Korean Hangul is a shallow orthography, as graphemes in print represent phonemes straightforward and consistently (Frost, 2005; Katz & Frost, 1992).

Although Korean and English writing systems are both alphabetic, Hangul letters are combined into syllable blocks in contrast to the linear horizontal sequences used in English orthography (Sohn, 1999). Korean word reading requires the packaging and unpackaging of syllable blocks through an analysis of both horizontal and vertical symbol alignments. Because syllable blocks map onto morphemes, rather than spoken syllables, spelling may not correspond with spoken syllable boundaries, which create problems in spelling multi-syllabic words in Hangul.

Typically, literacy development in Korean Hangul at the novice levels seems relatively easy for non-heritage post-secondary learners. When KFLLs learn basic

grammar or vocabulary in the beginning, they are generally introduced to the invariable stem of the predicate and learn the various grammatical elements for conjugation. Explicitly learning orthographical changes and orthographic conventions from the very beginning of elementary level, novice KFLLs acquire accurate spelling and the syntactic rules of Korean without too many challenges (Kim & Pyun, 2014; Pyun & Lee-Smith, 2011). With regard to Korean HLLs, however, orthographic accuracy and writing skills are pointed out as one of the biggest challenges in acquiring standard Korean and the areas most in need of improvement (E.J. Kim, 2004, 2006; H.H. Kim, 2001; H. Kim, 2003b; Lee & Kim, 2008; Sohn & Shin, 2007).

HLLs' strong verbal competence can have a negative impact on orthographic competence since HLLs heavily rely on verbal cues when they write or spell multi-syllabic words (Loewen, 2008). Previous studies show that HLLs have a strong tendency to write the way they would speak due to extended exposure to oral discourse (Bermel & Kagan, 2000; Chevalier, 2004; H.H. Kim, 2001).

In addition to the characteristics of syllable block in Korean orthography, KHLLs have been challenged to improve their proficiency because of formal written styles in Korean. The habit of "writing as it sounds" tends to be the most critical among the KHLLs. KHLLs' difficulty in writing standard Korean, caused by the tendency of writing or spelling out oral pronunciations rather than the correct written forms of vocabulary was addressed (Jo, 2001). While written Korean requires rigid formal forms and accurate spelling, oral Korean involves a range of variations such as dialects and colloquial pronunciations.

KHLLs' thoughts of discrepancies between the colloquial Korean exposed to at home and the formal Korean taught in the classroom have been researched and reported (E. J. Kim, 2006). The results showed that KHLLs of both high proficiency and low proficiency expressed their goal to improve accuracy and writing skills. H.H. Kim (2001) analyzed many spelling errors and error patterns made by KHLLs and found that the majority of KHLLs' errors resulted from the transfer of their knowledge of colloquial speech and oral pronunciations into writing. With examining more effective pedagogical approaches to the KHLLs' literacy, it has been found that dictation activities both in-class and the online computerized program are effective in sensitizing KHLLs to written forms in Korean and helpful in making connections between spoken sounds and written forms (Pyun & Lee-Smith, 2011).

Another error pattern that KFLLs do not often make is related to different form of honorifics and speech levels based on the speaker-addressee perspective in terms of age, social status and kinship. Many Korean teachers observe in classroom that the KHL learners who have developed their fluency in home tend to under-use politeness markers and struggle to apply honorifics (Byon, 2003; K.J. Park, 1996). There are six speech levels using different declarative-sentence enders such as deferential level -(su)pnita, polite level -eyo or -ayo, and intimate level -e or –a (Sohn, 1999). In Korean language, polite speech style is acquired much later than intimate speech style and children hardly use the polite style sentence ender '–yo'. Moreover, their parents and grandparents seldom require children to use polite maker '–yo' with them, most likely because the polite style would make children to feel distance or reduce intimacy in their

relationship with their children.

Since the intimate level was the one that they have been most exposed to under home domain since their childhood, KHLLs tend to revert to the intimate speech style when different speech levels are required (H.H. Kim, 2001; Pyun & Lee-Smith, 2011). H.H. Kim (2001) reported KHLLs consistently make the error especially with the deferential-level form -(su)pnita from the KHLLs' exposure to colloquial speech at home. As the review has shown, KHLLs have distinctive linguistic features, implying that their learning needs may be quite different from KFLLs.

In order to best meet HLLs' needs, language educators acknowledged the importance of teacher awareness of HLLs' linguistics features, cultural identity and motivation to learn one's heritage language. It has been discussed how teacher preparation and awareness may be the key elements in determining the quality of language teaching and also are crucial factors in the teachers' attitudes to HLLs (Lee and Oxelson, 2006). For example, it has been found that BCLAD/ESL teachers (the Bilingual, Crosscultural Language and Academic Development (BCLAD) Certificate), who were prepared for teaching HL learners were more positive toward HL maintenance, whereas non-BCLAD/ESL teachers did not feel it was their job to help students maintain their home languages (Lee & Oxelson, 2006). These research results suggest that teachers of HL learners have very important role for the HL learners to maintain their HL and make progress for their language learning.

Based on these previous studies, language programs in many languages such as

Spanish and Chinese started to develop materials designed for HLLs and offer separate tracks for them. Heritage learners' personal connections to their heritage language and culture distinguish them from foreign language learners in terms of identities and linguistic needs. Since it has been identified what HLLs should focus on in their learning and what HL teachers have been aware of HLLs' needs, the classroom setting such as one-size-fits-all is not quite ideal for HLLs because of different proficiencies and learning goals.

Several researchers have argued that it would be ideal for language programs to offer heritage tracks for at beginning and intermediate levels (Carreira, 2004; Kondo-Brown, 2010; Li & Duff, 2008; McGinnis, 1996; Shen, 2003; Valdés, 2001). A considerable number of post-secondary institutions have accepted the idea of separating HLLs from non-HLLs as pedagogically sound, and offer separate tracks for the two groups in a variety of languages such as Spanish (Valdés, Lozano, & García-Moya, 1981; Webb & Miller, 2000), Chinese (McGinnis, 1996; Shen, 2003), Korean (O-S. Sohn 1995, 1997), Japanese (Kondo, 1999; Douglas, 1999), and Russian (Kagan & Rifkin, 2000).

University practitioners and administrators who offer a two-track system seem to agree that HLLs are able to learn the target HL at a greatly accelerated speed with different linguistic skills from traditional FL learners. Separate two-track system has been instituted in some large program and curricula at the elementary and/or intermediate levels with specific emphasis on literacy skills (Kondo 1998, 1999; Kono & McGinnis, 2001; McGinnis, 1996; Moag, 1995; O.S. Sohn, 1995). In a heritage track in Chinese language program, it has been discovered that CHLLs placed in a CHL-focused

class outperformed on written tests their CHL peers who were placed in a mixed class (Shen, 2003). Based on these results, Shen (2003) suggested that a CHL track in college-level Chinese classes could effectively enhance CHLLs' academic achievement in Chinese language.

In the case of Korean dual-track system, only some large established Korean programs in major American universities created heritage tracks from the late 1990s. Korean programs in UCLA, for example, introduced its first Korean heritage tracks in 1996 to accommodate the different needs of both heritage and non-heritage learners by developing a dual-track system. O-S. Sohn (1997) reported difficulties of teaching KHLLs in the separated curriculum at UCLA due to the diversity among the heritage learners and to the lack of instructional materials designed for heritage learners.

Creating the two-track system in language programs, various curricular approaches and instructional methods have been suggested and implemented such as a focus on basic literacy (O-S. Sohn, 1997), content-based instruction (Shin & Kim, 2000), and skills-based approaches (You, 2001). For example, O-S. Sohn (1997) classified KHLLs into receptive beginners and advanced beginners. It has been defined that the receptive beginners can comprehend Korean but cannot speak the language whereas the advanced learners can comprehend and speak Korean. But because KHLLs in both groups did not know how to read and write, writing courses were created for the heritage tracks in UCLA focusing on basic literacy skills (O-S. Sohn, 1997).

The emphasis for the Korean language course for KHLLs in the Korean language

program has been placed on developing literacy, reading and writing. Considering KHLLs' exposure to the heritage language and understanding of Korean culture, content-based instruction was suggested in order to satisfy KLLLs' strong expectations for advanced knowledge of contemporary Korean society and increase their motivation in language learning (Shin & Kim, 2000).

Although many instructors and language programs acknowledged benefits of dual-track system, except some large programs, most foreign language programs in universities do not have the option to create a heritage track separately from non-HLLs due to limited resources. Many language instructors teach HLLs in their mixed classroom of HLLs and non-HLLs and have accommodated HLLs through various methods. Research shows that language classes with HL students are characterized by substantial student diversity and huge linguistic variations make curriculum development a great challenge (Carreira & Kagan, 2011; Chevalier, 2004; Huang, 2013; Richards, 2000; Van Deusen-Scholl, 2003).

Since how to address HLs' and non-HLLs' needs in a mixed class is a persistent challenge, it has been required for language instructors to understand their students, both HLLs and non-HLLs, and apply this knowledge to differentiating instruction by learners' needs for effective teaching. For example, Huang (2011, 2013) found that when Chinese heritage language learners (CHLLs) are assigned to regular foreign language classes, the presence of CHLs in a regular foreign language course creates tension between HLLs and non-HLLs due to CFLs' ambivalent attitudes toward CHLs caused by CHLLs' oral proficiency.

Another issue in a mixed class is that language instructors may have higher expectations and criteria to assess HLLs' performance (Krashen, 1996), which CHLLs can perceive differentiated treatments as discrimination (Huang, 2011). Without language instructors' knowledge on HLLs' early advantage starts and overconfident attitudes toward learning, it is difficult to manage language class and accommodate each language learners to continue to study the language.

In addition to the diversity among the heritage learners, language instructors often encounter difficulties in accommodating each heritage student with language materials and teaching methods. Although language instructors and programs in Spanish, Chinese and other languages began to develop materials aimed specifically at HL learners for over a decade, language educators have still noted that many instructors lack knowledge or experience in developing appropriate HL curriculum and requested workshops or better teacher training on heritage language instruction (Huang, 2010; Schwartz, 2001; Potowski & Carreira, 2004).

Under the difficult situations, language instructors for HLLs have observed HLLs in classroom where proficiency, motivation, learning goals and learning styles vary significantly from one student to the next. In order to effectively deal with these issues and accommodate HLLs, it has been suggested that language instructors need to look for any better pedagogical approaches by learners' needs. Tomlinson (1999), for example, proposed differentiated instruction, which has received a great deal of attention as an effective way to deal with issues of equity and excellence in mixed-language classrooms.

Potowski and Carreira (2004) pointed out that a differentiated classroom provides a variety of learning options so as to be responsive to the needs of different students, and listed several key tenets of differentiated instruction such as curriculum shaped by differences between students, multiple learning materials, variable pacing and grading criteria, and work assigned to students by virtue of their level of readiness. Regarding the accommodations for HLLs, Romero (2000) reports on the strategies developed by three FL teachers of Spanish, French and Italian for courses with HL learners. Qualitative data were collected from direct classroom observation, interviews with the teachers, and a group interview with selected students. It has been found that teacher change the initial pedagogic and managerial goals prescribed in curriculum to some degree without losing their focus on what was required due to their interests in accommodating the HLLs' needs and respect for students' prior knowledge.

Wilkinson (2010) conducted a statewide survey of secondary Spanish teachers in Utah regarding the instruction of Spanish heritage language students and provided insights about the characteristics of Spanish teachers in terms of their beliefs, attitudes related to teaching SHLLs, instructional approaches and accommodations. The survey results demonstrated SHLLs' various backgrounds and the lack of teachers training to work with the SHLLs. The study indicated that Spanish language teachers from specialized classes for SHLLs perceive that their Spanish classes are more effective in meeting SHLLs' needs than do teachers of traditional Spanish classes. Since teachers in traditional Spanish classes noted SHLLs' special needs but could not offer specialized Spanish courses for SHLLs, teachers in traditional Spanish classes used many approaches

to accommodate SHLLs by assigning special roles as “native” informants of language and culture, assigned textbooks and materials for SHLLs, and providing some form of differentiation to instruction for SHL students such as separate, additional, or more challenging assignments (Wilkinson, 2010).

As the research results mentioned above, an instructor who does not know the value of the students’ background language acquisition and connection to HL community cannot be an effective instructor in an HL class or make differentiation possible for HLLs. Carreira and Kagan (2011) suggest that HL instructors can obtain much information about the attitudes, motivations, learning strategies, exposure to literacy, and linguistic skills of their students through many tools such as surveys, observations, interviews and diaries. Based on the expansion of knowledge about HLLs and the reflections on beliefs in HL teaching, instructors can enhance learning in mixed-language classes and adapt their teaching on an ongoing basis to respond to the needs of all learners (Romero, 2000; Wilkinson, 2010).

Regarding KHL education and the KHLLs’ needs, curriculum design for the transition from home-based conversational discourse to formal written discourse was proposed and implemented to improve orthographic accuracy and written stylistic repertoire for a full range of registers (O-S. Sohn, 1997; H.H. Kim, 2001). The findings of previous studies about HLLs’ linguistic profile, language instructors’ changes in beliefs and practices, and differentiated instruction as an accommodation suggested directions for further research on teachers’ literacy beliefs in teaching KHL and accommodations for KHLLs in the mixed-language classroom. These findings inspired the researcher to

investigate a novice Korean instructor and the teacher's beliefs regarding effective teaching of literacy for KHLLs in the dissertation study. Exploration of varying challenges a novice teacher may encounter will be able to provide useful information for the better preparation of both pre-service and in-service teachers.

2.3 Summary

In this chapter, the prevailing theories and findings regarding teachers' beliefs in literacy, heritage language and heritage language learners and Korean heritage language learners were reviewed. Teachers' literacy beliefs are conceptualized as personal, psychological constructs including what they assume, think and know about students' development in literacy skills; what they perceive a teacher's role in this process to be; and how they feel they should implement these practices in a classroom (Charlesworth, Hart, Burts, & Hernandez, 1991; DeFord, 1985; Hindman & Wasik, 2008; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996).

In order to build the connection between teachers' literacy beliefs and heritage language, HLLs are defined as a language learner who is raised in a home with the exposure to a non-English language and some degree of bilingual proficiency in the home language and in English (Valdés, 2001). A KHLL is as defined as a language learner who has an ethnolinguistic affiliation to the Korean heritage with a broad range of oral and literacy proficiency (Lee & Shin, 2008). While examining HLLs' profile and linguistic needs, the lack of academic, high-level literacy across heritage languages was found and accommodations for HLLs such as a two-track system and teaching strategies were

discussed.

In the next chapter, first research methodology and design of this study will be introduced in detail, and then data collection and analysis will be explained in order to answer each research question.

CHAPTER III
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

To understand and describe factors related to the Korean teacher's literacy beliefs of teaching the heritage language, the researcher explored teacher's beliefs related to literacy, discrepancies between teacher's beliefs and practices, HLLs' profiles, and KHLLs and their linguistics needs. A review of relevant literature on teacher's beliefs about language teaching and learning generally suggests that teacher's literacy beliefs do affect classroom practice and the relationship between beliefs and practice is very dynamic. In order to address research questions about the dynamic relationship between teacher's literacy beliefs and instruction for KHLLs, the in-depth examination of actual classroom practices is essential for the study. While many of the previous research explored the issues of teacher beliefs and practices have used primarily self-reporting quantitative instruments such as surveys and questionnaires (Allen, 2002; Gebel, 2000), this study attempts to add to the research literature through the use of qualitative methods such as teacher interviews and classroom observations in an effort to gather findings from dynamic and complex interactions in actual classroom.

There are various types of qualitative methodologies such as generic qualitative studies, ethnographic studies, phenomenology, grounded theory and case studies (Merriam, 1998). The present study used a qualitative case study approach to portray the literacy beliefs and practices of a collegiate level Korean language instructor in a mixed classroom. A case study is an exploration of contextualized unit of analysis or bounded system through in-depth data collection and analysis relying on inductive

reasoning in handling multiple sources of information (Creswell, 1998; Merriam, 1988). Most definitions of case study emphasize the singular nature of the case, the importance of context, the availability of multiple sources of information or perspectives, and the in-depth nature of analysis (Duff, 2008). With these definitions, a qualitative case study is most appropriate to investigate complex perspectives (literacy beliefs), setting (college), and contexts (mixed classroom) for this study. The researcher consulted several qualitative research methods publications (e.g. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1998; Silverman, 2000; Stake, 1998) and relied on the case study method protocol as per Duff (2008), Stake (2005), and Yin (2003, 2014) for the research design and the subsequent stages of data collection and analysis.

This chapter offers a discussion of the qualitative research design and a teacher informant in this investigation. This chapter also describes the research methods used for data collection and analysis to explore novice Korean language teacher's beliefs in literacy and practices toward KHLLs. Sections in the chapter describe the methodology in detail including main components of qualitative methods identified by Maxwell (2005): (a) setting, which includes participant selection and sources of information; (b) data collection instruments; and (c) data analytic plan. The first section of this chapter provides a description of research methods and design such as research site, the participant, instruments, and detailed procedures for data collection for the central inquiries in this study. The second section presents details of inductive data analysis from data employing ground theory method and the use of computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS). In the following sections, the researcher

describes the building of trustworthiness, ethical considerations, and key terms for the study.

3.1 A Qualitative Case Study Approach

Qualitative case studies constitute a research methodology with a long tradition in many fields such as sociology and psychology. Case study research has significantly increased in terms of overall number of research studies over the past three decades (Michel et al., 2010). Gaining popularity in the fields of applied linguistics and SLA research, many research areas such as bilingualism and investigations on language teachers' thoughts and actions have been studied using a qualitative case study approach (Duff, 2008).

In education research, case study was characterized as the "most widely used approach to qualitative research" (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003, p. 433). A qualitative case study is one approach to study teachers and teaching in their natural settings in the field of education. Qualitative case study was defined as an intensive holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomena, or social unit, which can be a person, an event, a critical incident, a time period, or a community (Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1988; Patton, 1990). Assumptions in qualitative research are that reality is varied and best understood through interpretation of people's perceptions and interactions (Merriam, 1988). Qualitative research emphasizes "local meaning" and investigates events or phenomena in their natural setting (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Erickson, 1990; Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2003). Examining "local meaning" in qualitative research fits with the study of teachers

and their teaching in the local classroom. Hence, the researcher employed a qualitative case study for the very nature of the research questions on teacher perceptions and interaction in this study.

A case study approach has several benefits such as providing descriptive illuminations on particular issues or topics "when 'how' or 'why' questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over behavioral events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context" (Yin, 2014, p. 2). Based on these characteristics and benefits, a qualitative case study approach is suitable for the present study in order to build an in-depth understanding of a novice teacher's perspectives and practices of literacy development in the mixed classroom of HLLs and non-HLLs through multiple methods such as questionnaires, interviews, and observations.

As for more specific case study design, four types of case study designs have been presented the 2x2 matrix in terms of single- versus multiple designs and holistic versus embedded unit of analysis (Yin, 2014). This case study employs a single holistic case design with one main focus (unit of analysis) because of the researcher's interests in descriptive illuminations on particular issues on heritage language education. Yin (2014) pointed out that the single-case research design is appropriate under several circumstances and suggested major single-case rationales: a critical, unusual, common, revelatory, or a longitudinal case.

Keeping in mind the fact that a very small portion of Korean language instructors in college level Korean programs were reported as novice and there are few studies conducted on the novice teachers, this single-case study can reveal unique information about the case, which the researcher has an opportunity to observe and analyze a phenomenon previously inaccessible. Thus, the use of a case study with one participant for this study is appropriate as it transpires the unique revelatory nature. Yin (2003) argued that a single-case design is appropriate and can represent a significant contribution to knowledge and theory building when studying critical or revelatory cases. Concerning unpredictable nature of cases as a potential vulnerability in the single-case study, the researcher carefully investigated the present case to minimize the chances of misrepresentation and to maximize the access for the case study evidence throughout the study (Yin, 2003, p. 42).

Critics of case study research have criticized that the study of a small number of cases lacks representativeness and cannot offer grounds for building reliability or generalizability. The issue of generalization has been a frequent criticism of case study research stating that the results are not widely applicable in real life. Another criticism is about subjectivity stating that intense exposure to study of the case biases the research findings. However, Stake (1995) argued empirically-grounded “naturalistic” generalization based on the harmonious relationship between the reader's experiences and the case study itself. Since the data generated by case studies would resonate experientially with a broad cross section of readers, case studies facilitate a great understanding of the phenomenon (Duff, 2008; Stake, 1995). Yin (2003) also refuted the

criticism on generalizability and presented analytic generalization, which means generalizations not to other populations, but to theory (Yin, 2014). Contrasting with statistical generalization, he defined an analytic generalization as the logic whereby case study findings can extend to situation outside of the original case study, based on the relevance of similar theoretical concepts or principles (Yin, 2014, p. 237). An analytic generalization can take the form of lesson learned or other principles, preferably at a conceptual level higher than that of a specific case, that is believed to be applicable to other situations (Yin, 2014).

In regard to generalizability, it should be noted that generalizability of the findings to a wider population is not the aim of the study. Instead, the researcher emphasizes particularization on the uniqueness of a case and aims to make theoretical contributions for "analytic generalizations" (Duff, 2008; Firestone, 1993; Stake, 1995; Yin, 1989, 2014).

Instead of seeking representativeness to achieve statistical generalizability, the researcher employed grounded theory method (GTM) to derive a theory inductively from data, which is grounded in the data collected (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 2006). The integration of case study and grounded theory method was considered appropriate when the focus of the researcher is on the development of analytic generalizations that contribute to theory building (Strauss, 1987).

Grounded theory method advocates building substantive theory from empirical data, which is localized, dealing with particular real-world situations (Charmaz, 2006).

Using grounded theory method, data collection and analysis take place in an iterative cycle of induction and deduction consisting of collection of data and constant comparison between one unit of data with another in order to derive conceptual elements of the theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Through this cyclical process grounded theory method provides guidelines for data collection and analysis consisting of coding and comparisons between data. The constant comparative analysis of data is employed for generating analytical codes, themes, and categories identified from data through the multiple phases of analysis until a grounded theory emerges (Merriam, 1998).

Several coding techniques are used to examine data in grounded theory method: initial (or open) coding and focused coding (Charmaz, 2006). Initial coding, also known as line-by-line coding or open coding, provides a good starting point to identify initial phenomena and form the links between collecting data and developing an emergent theory to understand data. Following the initial coding phase focused coding selects the most significant earlier codes and synthesizes large amounts of data for more abstract categories (Charmaz, 2014). For this qualitative case study, grounded theory method and techniques were used to analyze data and build substantive theory from the immediate data collected through interviews and observation.

3.2 The Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

This study is designed to elicit information from a novice Korean language teacher about characteristics of teacher's perception on the heritage language literacy.

The study also examines pedagogical issues related to teacher's instructional practices in the mixed language classroom. The research questions guiding this study aims to explore in depth a novice Korean language instructor to describe the followings:

1. What literacy beliefs does a novice Korean language teacher hold about literacy instruction?
2. How does a novice Korean language teacher put literacy beliefs into practice in his/her classroom? And to what extent are novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs about Korean as a Second Language (KSL) aligned with his/her literacy instruction?
3. How does a novice Korean language teacher conduct literacy instruction differently for KHLLs in the mixed classroom of HHLs and non-HLLs?

Addressing these research questions, the researcher portrays an in-depth view of novice teachers' literacy beliefs and the complexity of instructional decision-making for HLLs. In addition to elicit the characteristics of novice teacher's literacy beliefs and instructions, this study intends to expand the knowledge base for literacy instructions to HLLs and accommodations for their special needs.

3.3 Research Setting

3.3.1 Research Site and Korean Program

The research site in the present study is very important since it provides the particular context that the teacher works in, and thus informs the teacher's decisions on

how a language instructor teaches. Data were collected over the course of two months from October to December for the fall semester and one week of July for the summer session at a public institution located in the suburban of a large city area. The study took place in State University of the Southwest (SUS, a pseudonym), a medium-sized public university located at the Southwest in the United States with more than 15,000 students, where Korean language is taught and students fulfill foreign language requirement with elementary-level study for one semester. The university offers more than ten FL courses including several major programs in Spanish, German, and French and other European and Asian languages such as Italian, Chinese, and Korean.

The Korean language program only offers beginning level courses, Elementary Korean I and II, which is very different from most college-level Korean programs in the United States. Referring to the college-level Korean programs listed on the AATK website, there are only a few programs offering only elementary level Korean. Due to this limitation in the Korean program at SUS, students who wanted to continue to study Korean were advised to study abroad in Seoul during the summer or during a semester of the academic year.

There is only one Korean language instructor in the program, which is quite common and similar to many Korean language programs in the United States in terms of the average number of instructors, mostly less than two per institution (Ko, 2010). The Korean instructor in the program will be referred by the pseudonym, Jamie for this study. Jamie was born in Korea and received his secondary and higher education in Seoul. After Jamie earned a master's degree in Teaching English as a Second Language

(TESL) in the States, he has been teaching Korean language in mixed-language classroom without a two-track system for KHLLs due to limited resources and the small number of KHLL enrollment in the program. Since this study is classroom-based in a natural setting, research was conducted in Elementary Korean classroom with the minimum number of sixteen students. There was a session for the elementary Korean where both KHLLs and KFLLs met four days a week together.

Jamie's Korean language classroom is very typical in terms of the number of KHLL and KFLL students learning in a mixed-language classroom. Most of students, fifteen out of eighteen, were non-heritage students: eight male and seven female students mostly with English native speakers. It was noticed that there were several Asian students with Chinese or Vietnamese language background in the classroom. It was reported that the number of students with Chinese language background or other Asian languages has increased for the past couple of years since he started to teach at the university, which is quite similar to other Korean programs in the United State in the recent years. Three out of eighteen students were heritage learners at the elementary Korean courses: one male and two female students.

Table 1. Observation Time and Class Levels, and the Number of Students

Period	Observation Time	Class Level	No. of Student (KHLL)
Fall semester	26 class hours	Elementary	18 (3)
Summer semester	6 class hours	Elementary	24 (0)

The researcher collected detailed information about the university and Korean program in order to describe the setting of research and data collection in sufficient

detail over the course of one-week period at the research site. Most of research data were collected during the second half of the fall semester in 2014 and additional data were collected for one week during summer session in the following year when there was no KHLL in the classroom.

3.3.2 Participant and Selection Criteria: A Novice Korean Language Teacher

Underlying assumptions of research on teachers' literacy beliefs are that the language teacher should be the focus of research. The participant of this study is an in-service novice Korean language instructor, who has taught Korean for about three years after graduating teacher education program in the United States. The participant teacher in this study has been teaching First Year Elementary Korean course at a public university. This form of representation from the teaching contexts was considered for representativeness of data since the majority of Korean language programs are established in public universities and all of programs offers first year Korean while in-service novice teacher characterizes the uniqueness of the case.

According to Wang's (2012) survey report about KFL teachers' profile at higher education in North America, combination of 7-10 years and 10-15 years, consisting 55.9% of the respondents, was the majority of KFL teachers in higher education whereas only 5% was 1-3 years. Research about in-service novice teachers has afforded much benefit for teacher education programs and teachers' professional development (Farrell, 2008). However, since researchers have paid little attention to novice teachers in the

field of Korean language education in general (Wang, 2003, 2012), there is no study up to date which examined novice teachers' literacy beliefs and practices toward KHLLs. Thorough investigation and thick description of unique context, a novice Korean language teacher can provide in-depth insight into teachers' literacy beliefs in regard to instruction for KHLLs.

Selection for a participant from the very low, but critical, portion of Korean language instructors, a novice teacher for the study characterizes the uniqueness of this study. Participant selection employed purposeful (or purposive) sampling in virtue of the information-richness and unique insight that the case of novice teacher generates about literacy beliefs and practice toward KHLLs. Purposive sampling was defined by Bogdan and Biklin (2003) as "choosing subjects, places, and other dimensions of a research site to include in your research to enlarge your analysis or to test particular emerging themes and working hypotheses" (p. 261). It has been suggested that a researcher has to first determine essential selection criteria in the process of choosing the people or sites to be studied (Merriam, 1998), which is a 'novice' teacher in this study.

Purposive sampling shares some aspects of opportunistic convenience sampling in the aspect of selecting people in one's own social network, which is used in much single-case study research (Duff, 2008). The researcher could identify potential prospective participants from own social and academic network established through conferences or workshops in the field of Korean language education such as American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK). For an example of social and academic network to identify potential participants, a teaching fellowship program sponsored by

the Korea Foundation (KF) and AATK provided good opportunities to identify potential participants since the fellowship program granted funding to hire and train a new Korean instructor, who has not taught Korean language in formal classroom when recipient institutes develop a new Korean language program or expand Korean language course offerings.

In addition to personal observation and reviewing AATK website at http://www.aatk.org where information about the fellowship grant and a list of Korean teachers in colleges in the States are posted, the researcher also sought some recommendations for novice teacher participants from university faculty members and experts in the field in order to obtain information about novice Korean instructors.

Participant Selection Criteria

The selection was confirmed by informal conversation and semi-structured teacher interview before the researcher determined the final selection. Essential selection criteria for the participant in this study are included in the definition of novice teacher characterized by 1-3 years of teaching experience, who is often described as focusing on “survival” and establishing basic classroom routines (Huberman, 1993; Sherin & Drake, 2000). The initial interview was conducted in the form of semi-structured interview, during which general questions or topics were brought up and researcher was allowed to respond to the situation at hand (Bogdan & Biklin, 2003; Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2014).

Taking the necessary recruiting process for the selection of participants, the researcher could find four prospective participants for this study. Through the initial teacher interview, the researcher was able to examine potential participants' profiles and experiences of teaching Korean. After the interview, data was collected and carefully examined, and the researcher could select one novice teacher who met all of the selection criteria and appeared interested in participating in the study. In order to maintain anonymity I refer to him by the pseudonym Jamie throughout the study as already mentioned in the previous section.

The participant completed and signed an Informed Consent Form, in accordance with the Human Subjects Review Board of the University of Iowa, agreeing to participate in the study. The researcher also included a description of the participant in the next section, because, as Fischer (1998) suggests, it is important to describe the perspective(s) through which the data is filtered in qualitative research. All names in the study were changed to pseudonym to insure privacy. I assured the participant that all information would remain confidential and that pseudonyms would be used for all names of people and places such as the name of the school, participant, and students throughout the study.

Participant of the Study

As for the more detailed information about the participant, Jamie is the only Korean-teaching faculty in the college. He is a native speaker of Korean and has lived in the States for about six years. He has traveled and studied in several English-speaking

countries for years before coming to the United States. After his completion of master's degree program in TESL, he has been a Korean instructor at the college for over three years at the time of data collection. He worked as a teaching assistant (TA) in Korean and became a Korean instructor after graduation from a graduate school.

The researcher first met Jamie at a conference where Jamie was awarded a teaching fellowship. As he gained knowledge in TESL and pedagogy but never taught Korean, Jamie wanted to learn more about how to teach Korean from other instructors at the time when we met. Since then, we ran into each other at workshops or conferences and I learned about his teaching experiences. His efforts to improve his teaching and to better help his students were factors leading him to participate in this study. It was noticed that Jamie enjoyed his teaching Korean and interacting with students during the classroom observation although he mentioned a couple of struggles he had encountered while teaching Korean. He was energetic and knowledgeable to apply various FL/SL teaching methods and pedagogical approaches in order to meet different students' needs over the semester.

While trying to determine the final selection of the research participant, the researcher found some similarities with Jamie in terms of teaching experiences and literacy beliefs. The researcher once taught Korean in a "one-person department" in a public university for years after earning a master's degree in Chinese linguistics. Progressing through doctoral coursework and learning about a variety of theories and teaching methodologies in SL/FL education, the researcher could point out the challenges in teaching a new writing system and gained experiences finding solutions to

problems, all of which seemed similar to Jamie's teaching experiences. As for literacy beliefs, the researcher shares the ideas of constructivist approach in literacy with Jamie. The researcher's educational background and literacy beliefs influenced this study to focus on a novice teacher, explore changes in literacy practices, and interpret data in order to provide insights for teacher preparation and in-service teacher training.

3.4 Research Design

This study aims to provide in-depth case study of an in-service novice Korean language instructor as he employs various practices for literacy instructions based on his literacy beliefs in the mixed classroom of HLLs and non-HLLs. Since this study attempts to describe participant perspectives from natural settings in the field, data for this study were collected using a qualitative approach. Focusing on the examination of a single individual and descriptive illumination of the participant's perspectives within its real life context make this study suitable for a qualitative case study (Duff, 2008; Yin, 2003). Since the research questions guiding this study are concerned with the thorough examination and description of a novice teacher's literacy beliefs and his instructional practices in the mixed-classroom, this relies upon thick description (Geertz, 1973; Merriam, 2009). By concentrating on the behaviors of one individual for the study, it is possible to conduct a very thorough analysis of the case through rich, "thick" description. It involves making careful descriptions of educational phenomena in order to understand their form, actions, and similarities with other phenomena (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003).

Thick description is interpretive as the researcher interprets it while writing the circumstances, meanings, and intentions that characterize a particular phenomenon (Schwandt, 2001). Considering this interpretive characteristic of description, thick description was defined as the researcher's task of both describing and interpreting observed social action within its particular context (Ponterotto, 2006). Furthermore, it has been suggested that thick description must be theoretical and analytical concerning the abstract and general patterns of behaviors and actions (Holloway, 1997). The notion of thick description on interpretation and conceptualization was emphasized in grounded theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1994). Providing detailed description about novice teacher's beliefs about teaching and learning literacy in the heritage language, what the instructor does for KHLLs in the mixed classroom, and whether in effect, what the instructor does in the classroom practice aligns with his/her literacy beliefs, a grounded theory will be derived from data.

In order to provide rich description and construct meaning within a particular context, this study employed a multi-method approach using a range of tasks and instruments to elicit teachers' literacy beliefs (Poulson, Avramidis, Fox, Medwell, & Wray, 2001). It has been suggested that interviews and observation of behavior should be included to make inferences about teacher's beliefs (Pajares, 1992; Rokeach, 1972). In designing the study, the researcher incorporated three methods of survey, interviews, and classroom observations for detailed information to address the following research topics: (a) a novice Korean language teacher's literacy belief and instruction for the heritage language; (b) dissonance between literacy beliefs and practices in classrooms;

and (c) a novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs and instructional practices toward KHLLs. Teacher's beliefs about the teaching and learning of literacy were drawn from a range of sources such as personal and situational data from a survey, interviews with a participant, and observations of lesson related to aspects of literacy teaching in the heritage language throughout the study.

3.4.1 Instrument: Survey

In this study surveys refer to pencil and paper measures that attempt to elicit a teacher's beliefs directly. Although survey method is, in general, employed to collect data from large number of participants for quantitative data analysis, the Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) in this study was selected and employed in order to understand and illustrate teacher beliefs related to literacy and literacy instruction from a single novice teacher rather than a group of teachers. In order to understand a novice teacher in-depth, this survey serves as a good starting point to identify characteristics of novice teacher's literacy beliefs and practices for further investigation. Among the previous studies in teachers' literacy beliefs, ranking teachers' agreement with statements that are typical of different theoretical orientations towards literacy was the most common in the field. Researchers have used several different surveys such as the Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP, DeFord, 1985), the Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS, Lenski et al., 1998), and the Foreign Language Education Questionnaire (FLEQ, Allen, 2002) in order to identify language teacher's beliefs,

triangulate data, and determine congruence between teachers' stated beliefs and their beliefs in practice collected during interviews and observations.

Surveying enables researchers to identify teachers' implicitly held beliefs and helps teachers to access their own beliefs as they verbalize them (Bullough & Baughman, 1997; Kagan, 1992). It has been found that completing questionnaires or inventories helped teachers to develop a greater awareness of their beliefs (Muchmore, 2001; Olson & Singer, 1994). However, there are several limitations in surveying such as response biases from self-reporting, closed-end questions, and loss of contextual information.

Notwithstanding the reservations indicated above, researchers continue to use surveys in order to explore teacher's beliefs in literacy. For example, TORP (DeFord, 1985) was used to examine the theoretical beliefs of 225 British primary school teachers and identify effective teachers of literacy categorizing them into decoding, skills, and holistic perspective (Poulson et al., 2001). Due to the lack of teacher's beliefs in writing additional statements related to the teaching of writing were included in the study. Focusing on beliefs about teachers' writing instruction, Graham et al. (2001) developed an instrument to measure teachers' orientations to the teaching of writing: the natural learning approach emphasizing on incidental learning and the process approach and the skills-based approach emphasizing on explicit and systematic instruction and performance. The results from the Writing Orientation Scale indicate that the natural learning approach was significantly related to the frequent use of conferences and shared writing whereas the skills-based approach is positively related to activities on

grammar and handwriting/spelling. It was concluded that teachers' beliefs about writing instruction were congruent with their reported practices.

Teachers' literacy beliefs and practices are also assessed by the LOS (Lenski et al., 1998, see Appendix A), which includes a 30-item measure entailing 15 belief statements and 15 practice statements employing a five-point Likert scale (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree). Contrary to earlier instruments, the LOS comprises beliefs and practices concerning both reading and writing processes identifying teachers as traditional, eclectic, and constructivist. Scores for teacher's literacy beliefs are interpreted as traditional (closest to 51), eclectic (closest to 61) and constructivist (closest to 69) while scores for teachers' practices are interpreted as traditional (closest to 51), eclectic (closest to 56) and constructivist (closest to 63). The LOS total scores with regard to teachers' literacy beliefs and practices are used to categorize teachers as traditional teachers in the 90-110 range, eclectic teachers in the 111-125 range, and constructivist teachers in the 126-145 range. Interpretations of scores for teachers' literacy beliefs and practices are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Interpretation of Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) Scores

Belief Score (Scores range from 45-72)
Traditional Teacher- Scores closest to 51
Eclectic Teacher- Scores closest to 61
Constructivist Teacher - Scores closest to 69

Practice Score (Scores range from 45-72)
Traditional Teacher- Scores closest to 51
Eclectic Teacher- Scores closest to 56
Constructivist Teacher - Scores closest to 63

LOS Total Score
Scores range from 90-145
Traditional Teacher - Scores range from 90-110
Eclectic Teacher - Scores range from 110-125
Constructivist Teacher - Scores range from 125-145

According to the LOS, language teachers identified as traditional teachers on the LOS tend to use traditional reading methods, direct instruction, and the assumption that literacy learning is the result of mastering particular skills (Lenski et al., 1998). However, constructivist teachers are more likely to employ integrated instruction and take a holistic view of literacy considering language learners as active meaning-makers. Eclectic teachers are placed between traditional teachers and constructivist teachers presenting a blend of other two groups of teacher in terms of beliefs and practices. Characteristics of teaching practices from each category are identified in accordance with the survey as Table 3 shows below.

Table 3. Lenski's Definition of Teaching Practices

Teacher's Viewpoint	Characteristics
Traditional	• Uses traditional reading methods such as basal reading instruction. • Teaches using primarily direct instruction. • Think of students as "blank slates."
Eclectic	• Uses some traditional methods and some constructivist practices. • Uses conflicting instructional methods. • Unsure about how students learn.
Constructivist	• Uses whole texts and integrated instruction. • Teaches using primarily an inquiry approach. • Views students as using prior knowledge to construct meaning.

3.4.2 Interviews

In-service language instructors in classroom provide more insights about their beliefs and practices in language teaching in regard to teaching HLLs in classroom. Although it is used with an additional form of data collection, interviewing is by far the most commonly used method within the field of literacy to investigate teachers' beliefs. Interviews are advantageous in gathering insider information when direct observation is not possible such as the study of teachers' beliefs (Creswell, 2003).

It has been also argued that interviews enable researchers to put behavior in contexts and give access to understanding participants' actions (Seidman, 2006). In the field of teachers' beliefs, majority of interviews were semi-structured including open-ended questions and mostly conducted with teacher participants (Hathaway, 2009). It is common that the interviewer defines the situation and introduces the topics of conversation, but does not have a rigid set of questions in a semi-structured interview (Kvale, 1996). The semi-structured interview is advantageous to the present study since it enables the researcher to properly adjust the questions for the content from the other data sources such as classroom observations.

Other than the semi-structured interviews, stimulated recall interviews were used to elicit teachers' thought processes using teachers' verbal reports when teachers were viewing their own instruction videotaped (Anders & Evans, 1994; O'Brien & Norton, 1991; Reed, 2003). Researchers, however, are concerned that data gathered from interview techniques are also self-reported and open to response biases such as

courtesy, ingratiation, deception, or social desirability (Baumann et al., 1998; Olson & Singer, 1994). Another concern regarding interview data is teachers' rationalization on their own behavior instead of clarifying their thoughts and beliefs. It is also noted the assumption that researchers and teachers share the same perceptions and hold identical understandings may lead researchers to biased interpretations.

Since the teacher's perspectives are central in this exploration of teacher beliefs, interviews are selected as one of the primary ways to gather data. During the course of this study, formal semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participant in order to generate depth of understanding (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). During the fall semester there were four interviews: an initial interview, two interim interviews, and an exit interview, which all last no longer than one hour. In the process of collecting data and confirming interpretations, the researcher also conducted an additional one-hour interview with Jamie during the following summer session.

The questions in the semi-structured interview were primarily open-ended in order to investigate the teacher participant's covert interpretations and perceptions. An interview guide including the research questions and possible questions to ask the participant teacher was created before interviewing the participant (Appendix B) and used during all the interviews for the study. The researcher explained to the participant what would occur during the interview and answer any questions the participant raise about the process. During the interviews the researcher employed several techniques to encourage the participant to share more information and kept neutral and non-judgmental to the participant's responses. The researcher also utilized the several

instruments for active listening such as mirroring, paraphrasing, clarifying, and silence (Duff, 2008; Erhman, 1996; Kvale, 1996).

In order to generate deeper reflection, the initial semi-structured interview was conducted after the researcher's careful review on the participant's initial survey and reflective essay about literacy. Two interim semi-structured interviews were taken place during the research data collection period gathering information about the participant's reflection on past, current, and future practices in the language classroom regarding general literacy beliefs and heritage language literacy. One exit interview was conducted to review the data-based understanding of teacher beliefs and practices about heritage language literacy stated and demonstrated during the course of the study for the fall semester. In an effort to enhance the confirmability of data, the researcher kept in touch with the participant to assured researcher's interpretations of interview data and conducted an interview over the summer.

In addition to the formal interviews, there were informal interviews in order to elicit initial reactions to classroom practices in the form of quick question-answer interactions before and after observations. All interviews were digitally recorded unless the participant is hesitant to be recorded during interviews. At the end of each interview the researcher reviewed with the teacher participant some of major topics from the interview and ask if the participant has anything to add in order to bring up any concerns resulted from the interview.

The language of interviews was determined according to the participant teacher's preferences. All interviews were conducted in Korean since Jamie preferred to explain his thoughts and experiences in Korean. After the interviews were translated into English after transcription, two bilingual Korean instructors in the field clarified English translations of interviews in order to improve the quality and ensure the accuracy of the translation. Collecting data in one language and presenting the findings in the research language, English, involves researchers taking translation-related decisions and explicitly describing the decisions during the process of translation.

Although English translation and review of the transcriptions in Korean is a labor-intensive and time-consuming task, interviewing in the participant's mother tongue provides several benefits. Both of the participant and the researcher being native speakers of Korean, and sharing the native culture, afforded the researcher greater opportunities to be an insider and foster sensitivity to the culturally unique aspects of the participant' experiences and meaning-making. Culturally competent knowledge and contextual understanding of phenomena described by the participant also provided broader perspectives of his world in which he lived.

All interviews conducted in Korean were transcribed into electronic document format for data analysis. It has been suggested that transcription is not theoretically neutral but theory driven since researchers' own epistemological precursors and interpretive consequences are implicit on the various transcription conventions (Duff, 2008; Markee, 2000; Roberts, 1997; Silverman, 2000). Thus, being aware of researcher bias, transcriptions were analyzed for key points by the constant comparative method

with a very critical eye in the process of and after the completion of transcription. Once the transcription is completed, for member checking the participant read and reviewed the transcripts for accuracy and for the clarification of transcripts' meaning (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and then the researcher incorporated participant's feedback or correction.

All transcripts were analyzed using inductive analysis during the post-collection phase. In the process of member checking and interactions with the participant, Jamie could have time to reflect his own literacy beliefs and teaching practices, which Jamie mentioned as one of the benefits from his participation in the study. Since Jamie did not have many opportunities to interact with other Korean instructors in the field nor to participate to workshops for professional development, the entire process of interview could provide Jamie to increase his awareness in literacy beliefs and classroom instruction for both KHLLs and KFLLs for pedagogical improvement or change for the future.

3.4.3 Observation

Observations are important in the study of teachers' beliefs because of the difficulty in direct examination. It has been suggested that observations can be useful because they allow researchers to gather firsthand experience with the participants (Creswell, 2003). Video has been considered as a highly reliable source of data because the researcher can refer to the video any time after recording. Therefore, the researcher conducted eight hours of classroom observation at the participant's classroom in person during the literacy instructions at the research site and received eighteen hours of

videotaped classroom instructions for two months during the second half of fall semester aiming to corroborate the data gathered through other self-report instruments such as survey and interview. During the second half of fall semester without the researcher on-site two hours of classroom instructions were videotaped on each Tuesdays and Thursdays by the participant instructor and shared via a cloud server, which were protected by password between the research and the participant during the time period. Average attendance of students was about fifteen out of eighteen for classroom participation.

In addition to the classroom observations during the fall semester, the researcher could also revisit the research site and observe six hours of instruction during the summer session 2015. It was very generous for the participant teacher to allow the researcher to observe additional sessions for the study. Altogether, the researcher obtained thirty-two hours of classroom observation during the data collection process. Through classroom observations, it was possible to identify key instructional episodes and interview the participant in order to elaborate on the episodes for the supplement of other data. It was expected to obtain sample classes and seek information about instructional practices through classroom observations.

The videotaped classroom observations were a vital data collection instrument in this study. The use of videotape could provide rich information regarding the contexts where the participant teaches and interacts with KHLLs in mixed classes. The researcher obtained the participant's comments on students' homework assignments and observed the ways the participant interacts with students. While the researcher observed

instructional practices and collected data of literacy instructions in classroom, anecdotal notes were also taken to provide evidence in support of the self-reported interview and questionnaire data.

Despite the advantages of observational data, scholars' concerns include several limitations such as the difficulties in wide generalizations and the danger of the assumption of shared perspectives (Calderhead, 1996; Munby, 1982). It has been also pointed out that the presence of researchers can change the context since a participant may take in observations as obtrusive and videotaping can affect the participant's classroom behavior. For example, the mere presence of the researcher and a video camera can influence the participant's behaviors referred to as "participant reactivity". In order to minimize the effects of the presence of the researcher and a video camera, there have been several suggestions such as familiarizing the equipment, placing the equipment away from the participant, repeating observations, and delaying videotaping until the participant becomes accustomed to being recorded (Renne, Dowrick & Wasek, 1983). In accordance with the suggestions to alleviate the issue of participant reactivity, the researcher placed the equipment in the corner of classroom, as out of sight as possible during the data collection.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher utilized the AATK website (http://www.aatk.org/) as the principal means of gaining contact information for a teaching fellowship program, which supports to develop new Korean language programs and hire new instructors. Before requesting

participation, the AATK website was first consulted and a list of Korean language teachers teaching in the United States was made out of the information on the website. Currently, the AATK membership directory contains approximately 300 members from more than eighty institutions in North America. The website allows the user to find the names of Korean language teachers as well as state of teaching and contact information. Names of Korean teachers were found along with the mane of school where they are teaching. Almost all Korean language teachers' email addresses were accompanied with the names listed on the website. The researcher searched for names and email addresses of institutions on the AATK website and new letters, which contains information of who received the teaching fellowship grant for the past couple of years.

At the beginning of October 2014, I contacted prospective participants to recruit for the study and obtain participation agreement if they were willing to participate. An introductory email requesting the recipient to participate in the study was sent to the email address obtained from the AATK. This email contained the following information: the importance of the study, how to choose the participants, the approximate amount of time the study would take to complete, the date which the researcher would visit to observe classroom teaching, and how the participant may obtain results of the study. The introductory email and the instruments for the study were approved by the Human Subject Office at the University of Iowa. One week later, a follow-up email was sent to find out their willingness to participate in the study. One out of four prospective participants agreed to participate and gave his permission for semi-structured interviews with the participant whose classroom practices were observed and video-

recorded. Once he agreed to the study conditions, the researcher arranged an appointment to visit for interviews and observations.

The data collection began during the second half of the fall semester and was limited to the length of the course, which was approximately two months. Research data were collected using a variety of qualitative methods: survey, interview, and observation. The study included one survey result, five formal semi-structured interviews, and eight-hour long classroom observations at the research site in addition to two-month (eight-week) long video-recordings of classroom instruction in order to understand teacher beliefs and interaction with students focusing on literacy instruction to KHLLs.

As a nonparticipant observer who sits on the periphery, such as the back of the classroom, the researcher visited the research site and videotaped instructions without becoming involved in the activities of the teacher participant for one week in the middle of fall semester and for another one week in the summer session to identify changes or development in literacy practices over the time period. A classroom observation scheme was developed and employed for data collection and analysis. Between two visits for on-site data collection, one for the fall and the other for summer, a participant video-recorded classroom teaching for two months, which is about twenty six hours combined, an average of two hours per week for eight weeks. Video files were shared with the researcher using a cloud service on the same day when they were recorded.

The researcher kept a research journal as part of data collection while observing literacy instructions on-site and watching video files of classroom teaching throughout the data collection procedure. After two months of data collections through video-recording for the fall, the researcher revisited the research site to observe on-site for a week and conduct an exit interview during the on-site data collection during the summer session.

3.6 Data Analysis

As case studies with qualitative research are quite often data driven from real-life events or cases in the natural settings, data analysis is increasingly associated with iterative, cyclical, or inductive data analysis (Borg, 1998; Duff & Li, 2004; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Throughout the multiple phases of data analysis, constant comparison method was used to allow categories to emerge and generate more abstract concepts and theories through inductive processes of comparing data across with code, category, and concept (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Harding, 2006; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Palmberger & Gingrich; 2014). In this study, data collected from multiple sources of information including a survey, interviews, and classroom observations were analyzed to address the research questions about teacher's beliefs and instruction to HLLs.

First, transcription of audio-recorded initial interviews and scoring of the literacy orientation survey (LOS) took place as they became available. All data, including interview transcripts, audio-recordings of teacher interview, and videotaped classroom

instruction were reviewed as they were gathered. To score participant's score for beliefs and practices in the LOS the researcher followed the procedures outlined in Lenski et al. (1998) and calculated participant's score from the survey. Analyzing the data from responses on the LOS, the researcher was able to classify the participant as traditional, eclectic, or constructivist type. Scores for the belief and practice statements were calculated and compared to find out whether teachers' literacy beliefs and practices were aligned. In accordance with the categorization in the LOS, traditional type is closest to 51 both on belief and practice. Eclectic type is categorized if a score closest to 61 on belief and 56 on practice while constructivist type is closest to 69 on belief and 63 on practice.

Participant's interviews were transcribed adopting transcription convention suggested by Duff (2008) and coded using one of computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS), Atlas.ti 7, which assisted with data organization and allowed direct analysis of videoed data. While many case study researchers in the field still code, retrieve, and analyze data using conventional means such as colored pens, file cards, and regular word processing software, new technologies and software programs are more widely used now to assist qualitative researchers to analyze data (Berg, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1998; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Silverman, 2004; Weitzman, 2003).

CAQDAS is essentially a database holding source data, and supports coding, sorting, and connotation on the data. Since most of CAQDAS now provides a common core functions to support the thematic coding and the comparison of codes across cases,

it has been used for analytic approaches using these idea such as grounded theory and interpretative phenomenological analysis (Gibbs, 2014). For example, Atlast.ti, selected among many CAQDAS for this study, has an in-built architecture using conceptual networks that depict connections between categories of information with theory building capacity (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Weitzman, 2000). If used well, the software is suggested to provide researchers several benefits on qualitative data analysis such as consolidating large sets of data, developing cognitive maps of schemas grounded in the data, and providing systematic and comprehensive coverage of the data set (Duff, 2008; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Weitzman, 2000).

All data collected from interviews and classroom observations at the research site were stored on video files in digital format. The content of the interviews and videotaped classroom instructions were analyzed to code qualitative data through constant comparison and interpretational analysis (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). Using the analysis methods to give meanings to data, the researcher first constructed tentative categories for further data collection and analysis.

After reading and understanding overall meaning of the interview transcripts, the transcripts were divided into meaning units, which express a single coherent thought. Then a coding scheme was developed based on recurring themes in the meaning units. The meaning units could be coded with more than one category or may not be labeled through the constant reassessment of categories during the analysis. Interview data were marked to exemplify the participant's literacy beliefs toward KHLLs and important themes were drawn from the data.

The data from the observations were analyzed and categorized through behavioral judgments method, reviewing the data for certain behaviors in observations and making a judgment as to how often the participant engages in these behaviors (Maxwell & Pringle, 1983). Observations of literacy instruction were registered in a form based on the format of several instruments designed by Hathaway (2009), Olson and Singer (1994), and Brown (2001) as shown in Figure 1 on the next page.

While examining videotaped Elementary Korean classes, each activity or action that took place in the videotaped classroom sessions were categorized according to a taxonomy of FL teaching techniques adapted by Brown (2001) in terms of different roles of the teacher: controlled, semi-controlled, and free. Controlled teaching techniques are more structured, manipulative, teacher-centered, and have a set curriculum whereas free techniques are open-ended, communicative, student-centered, and represent a cooperative curriculum (Brown, 2001). The purpose in referring to a taxonomy is to indicate how literacy instruction techniques in Jamie's language classroom differ according to a continuum raging from controlled to free rather than pinpointing every technique specifically.

Each of the observed classroom instructions was captured in in-class literacy observation protocol and language interaction episodes protocol for the data analysis. For a full list of techniques, see Appendix C.

Observation Instrument

Date: _____ Time: _____

Categories:

1. Unit of language emphasized (letter, sounds, words, etc.)
2. Reading and writing materials
3. Nature of literacy activities/tasks
4. Level of control (controlled/semicontrolled/free)
5. Uses/functions of literacy
6. Instructional methods and strategies
7. Teacher's role & language (% English and % Korean)
8. Students' role & language (% English and % Korean)
9. Notes on student subgroups (KHLLs vs. KFLLs)
10. Social structure of literate activity (large group/small groups/individual)

Units of Language	Materials
Nature of Activities	Level of Control
Uses/Functions	Methods, Strategies
Teacher's Role & Language	Students' Role & Language
Notes on Student subgroups	Social Structure
Additional Comments	

Figure 1. Observation Instrument

Employing the observation instrument in the Figure 1 above, the researcher analyzed all data from responses to the interview questions and classroom observations based on the definitions of teaching practices defined by Lenski et al. (1998). During the

classroom observation, field notes were kept on to record observed Korean literacy instructions in the elementary Korean classroom. Classroom observation captured particular literacy tasks the participant used during the class time such as literacy activities, materials, and code switching inside the classroom. During the data analysis, classroom observation data, which allowed a glimpse into the actual literacy practice, were analyzed in conjunction with interview data, which provided participant's beliefs on literacy and Korean heritage language teaching. Constant comparison proceeded from the very beginning of data collection and ensured internal consistency of coded categories from different sources.

The researcher kept a record of questions, assumptions, and interpretations to understand major themes emerged from data during data analysis. Since these data from multiple sources were all processed and analyzed in the qualitative data analysis software, Atlas.ti, the researcher was able to make data-based interpretations by identifying data sources and enhance confirmability of the study by providing direct quotations or passages from data. In order to represent an accurate and authentic picture of the teacher participant in this study, the participant's own words and reflections on literacy beliefs toward the KHLLs were presented throughout the study.

3.7 Trustworthiness and Ethical Considerations

In order to ensure the rigor of research, regardless of theoretical orientations, considerations for the trustworthiness and credibility of research have been raised and debated extensively in the field (Merriam, 2001; Patton, 2002; Yin, 2014). It has been

stated that all researchers must deal with trustworthiness or the questions of reliability and validity (Merriam, 1998). In response to those who question the value of qualitative research design, several criteria have been suggested in the effort to establish rigor for qualitative research and assess the quality of research. Regarding the trustworthiness of this study, the four criteria of "trustworthiness" discussed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) have been adopted to guide this study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability as the standard of trustworthiness for qualitative interpretivist studies.

According to Merriam (1998), the credibility of a study lays in the congruency of the findings with "reality," which is understood not as an objective and fixed phenomenon but as multidimensional, fluid and constantly changing. Therefore, qualitative researchers should capture and interpret the multiple realities (i.e., the multiple perspectives) of the phenomenon under study (Gall et al., 2003; Merriam, 1998). In the process of data analysis of survey, interviews, and observations, this present study concerns issues related to trustworthiness and implements several strategies to enhance its credibility: triangulation of multiple data sources and member checks.

First, triangulation is a major criterion used to address the question of credibility (Duff, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Triangulation of data was defined as the use of multiple data-collection methods, data sources, analysts, or theories as corroborative evidence for the validity of qualitative research finding (Borg et al., 2003). Based on the belief that it is possible to have a little more confidence in conclusion if different kinds

of data leads to the same conclusion, triangulation helps researchers to develop a holistic understanding of the phenomena and to construct credible explanations about the phenomena being examined (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Mathison, 1988, Yin, 2014). The researcher ensured triangulation of data by means of multiple methods for data collection, multiple sources of data, and multiple viewpoints in the study. In order to triangulate the data collected for the study, comparisons were constantly made between and across the data throughout the process of survey, all interviews, and classroom observation.

A second technique employed to increase the credibility of this research was member checks (Duff, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2014). Researchers stated that giving interviewees opportunities to react to researchers' reconstructions of realities and asking for feedback is essential in qualitative studies in order to enhance the credibility of study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). All verbatim transcripts of the interviews, translations, interpretations, and conclusions were tested with the participant during and after the study.

Dependability and consistency concerns whether the findings of a study are consistent with the data collected (Merriam, 1998). Edge and Richards (1998) pointed out that dependability is a matter of proper documentation of the inevitable changes in the situation, participants, and the emergent design of the research for justifiable conclusions. The researcher would provide detailed explanations of the procedures for data collection and analysis, and decision-making processes throughout the entire research process. This audit trail of a transparent description of the research steps

throughout the study also helped the researcher to address the question of confirmability, demonstrating that findings emerges from the data and not predispositions espoused by the researcher.

Another issue related to case studies is transferability referring to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings. In order to enhance transferability, thick description of the context must be presented so that readers could examine if an “inferential bridge” can be built between the present cases and other cases (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Shulman, 1988). This is one of major goals in the present study.

The purpose of this study is not to extend the findings to larger population but to produce particularistic accounts providing in-depth understandings of the case. It has been argued that case studies are not intended to generalize to populations but to propose "theoretical propositions" (Yin, 2003, p. 10). Stake (1995, 2005) also suggested that the goal of a case study is to particularize through the full understanding of the case itself. Larsen-Freeman (1996) offered the term “particularizability” as an alternative to generalizability acknowledging the difficulty in replicating the rich context of the second language classroom. In order to achieve the goal of particularization, the researcher provided the uniqueness of this case including rich contextual description (thick description) and make efforts to include a representative participant from a larger pool of "typical" KFL teachers.

In the study, the researcher closely followed ethical research guidelines by the Human Subject Office at the University of Iowa and satisfies the stringent requirement set by the university. Approved the study by IRB, from the beginning of study, the researcher clearly stated to prospective participants that their voluntary participation was sought and they could withdraw at any time should they change their mind. Anonymity was ensured to participants by means of the use of pseudonyms in order to insure confidentiality. Any information participants decided to keep confidential would not be included in this study. The participant was informed with a description of the research purposes and procedures prior to their agreement to participate. If interested in participation, participant(s) was asked to sign a consent form for their voluntary participation. Consent form is included in Appendix D.

3.8 Definition of Key Terms

A. Literacy

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has clearly defined literacy as "the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate, compute and use printed and written materials associated with varying contexts," which enables an individual to achieve one's goals and to participate fully in the society (Bown, 2009). While expanded notions of literacy such as visual literacy, cultural literacy, media literacy, and digital literacy have emerged in recent years, there is the common idea of using printed symbols and images to derive meanings (Luke, 2000; Moje, Young, Readence, & Moore, 2000; Zarcadoolas, Pleasant, & Greer, 2006).

B. Novice Teacher

A novice teacher has been defined as one with less than 3 years of teaching experience and one whose teaching tends to focus on “survival” (Huberman, 1993) and establishing basic classroom routines (Sherin & Drake, 2000).

C. Teachers’ Literacy Beliefs and Practices

These terms were defined by the scores obtained in the Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) (Lenski et al., 1998). Based on the scores obtained in the Survey, teachers’ literacy beliefs and practices were respectively categorized as traditional, eclectic or constructivist.

D. Traditional Teacher

This term was defined by the following characteristics delineated by Lenski et al. (1998). Traditional teacher are characterized as one who uses traditional reading methods as basal reading instruction, teaches using primarily direct instruction, and views students as “vessels to be filled.”

E. Eclectic Teacher

This term was defined by the following characteristics delineated by Lenski et al. (1998): uses some traditional and some constructivist reading methods, frequently “basalizes” literature selections, combines traditional and constructivist views about student learning, and unsure about how students learn.

F. Constructivist Teacher

This term was defined by the following characteristics delineated by Lenski et al. (1998): uses whole text and integrated instruction, teaches using primarily an inquiry approach, and views students as using prior knowledge to construct meaning to learn.

3.9 Summary

Since this study included the description of teachers' literacy beliefs toward KHLLs in the mixed classroom of college-level Korean, this research is primarily qualitative in nature and research questions are answered using a qualitative approach. This chapter highlighted the relevancy of qualitative case study as an appropriate research methodology for this investigation. A detailed description of the research setting including the research site and participant selection for the present study was presented.

This study sought to explore congruence between a novice teacher's stated literacy beliefs and practices in the mixed classroom of heritage learners and non-heritage learners in addition to describe a novice teacher's literacy beliefs and practices over a year. The exploration of teachers' literacy beliefs about heritage language teaching and the relationship of these beliefs to instructional practices toward HLLs is a challenging research topic. Teacher's literacy beliefs and instructional practices were addressed through a combination of a survey, semi-structured interviews, videotaped classroom observations, and written documentation collected at the research site in

order to obtain a rich portrait of the research topic. In addition, the procedures of data collection and analysis throughout the study were discussed in detail.

The Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) was used as an initial starting point of exploration to describe teacher's literacy beliefs. Considering the limitations of self-report instruments, additional measures were incorporated in order to confirm the teacher's reported beliefs in heritage language literacy and its application to actual classroom teaching. The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews and observations during the data collection.

Using a set of principles in grounded theory such as thick description and the constant comparison of data during and after data collection and analysis, a grounded theory emerged from the data. To establish rigor of this study and strengthen the trustworthiness of the findings, triangulation and member check strategies were conducted. The definitions of several key terms used consistently throughout this study were also presented to maintain a clear and common understanding of their meaning. In the following chapter, results obtained from the teacher participant will be reported to answer the research questions raised for the study.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS AND FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

In this chapter the findings and analysis of the collected data will be presented. This chapter comprises the narratives and classroom observations to construct my argument featuring the stories and statements of the participant. The chapter is divided into several sections for ease of discussion: (1) teacher characteristics and literacy beliefs; (2) literacy in Jamie's classroom; (3) literacy instruction toward KHLLs and KFLLs; (4) broader understanding of literacy; and (5) summary. The purpose of this study was to investigate the literacy beliefs and instructional practices of a novice Korean language instructor. In addition, this study sought an in-depth view of a novice teacher's literacy beliefs and practices toward two different student subgroups of heritage and non-heritage learners in the mixed classroom of HHLs and non-HLLs. The results of this study are drawn from data collected through questionnaire, observations and interviews regarding the research questions that guided this study:

1. What literacy beliefs does a novice Korean language teacher hold about literacy instruction?
2. How does a novice Korean language teacher put literacy beliefs into practice in his/her classroom? And to what extent are novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs about Korean as a Second Language (KSL) aligned with his/her literacy instruction?
3. How does a novice Korean language teacher conduct literacy instruction differently for KHLLs in the mixed classroom of HHLs and non-HLLs?

Data collection procedures for this study included in-person teacher interviews and classroom observation, which used a qualitative approach. Given the fact that this present study is a qualitative case study with one participant, it is better to let the participant's own voice be heard and illustrate the findings throughout the chapter including quotes from interviews with the participant. Analysis of data identified recurring themes across all data sources reflecting a novice teacher's literacy beliefs and daily literacy instructions toward HHLs and non-HLLs in the same classroom. Pseudonyms were used for the participant, school, geographic locations named herein. All Korean phrases presented in the findings have been translated by the researcher, and verified for accuracy by other Korean language teachers. Presenting evidences from classroom observation, English translations of Korean phrases were set off by parentheses immediately following the Korean phrases if needed.

In presenting findings about pedagogical successes, frustrations, and hopes for literacy instruction in the mixed classroom of HHLs and non-HLLs, I want to be respectful of great contributions from an amazing language instructor while addressing the research questions raised for this present study. It is hoped that this study will deepen the understanding of novice FL instructors' literacy beliefs and practices in all classrooms where learners are not of homogenous language background.

The results in the study concluded that a participant, Korean language instructor has strong beliefs about the importance of literacy in the elementary level language course and revealed a broader understanding of literacy beyond traditional notions of reading and writing. He believes it fundamental to the learning of Korean, which uses

non-Roman alphabetic writing system. It is also clear that the instructor has tried to implement differentiated literacy instructions for KHLLs in the mixed language classroom of KHLLs and KFLLs. A final conclusion to be made from the data analysis is that the participant's stated beliefs and observed practices toward KFLLs evidenced certain inconsistencies, including reading strategies, task assignments allotted students in classroom, and pair/group works. The participant's pedagogical practices were not always consistent with his stated beliefs in certain parts of instructions in and out of language classroom for non-heritage learners for KFLLs.

4.1 Teacher Characteristics and Literacy Beliefs

I have raised the first research question of what literacy beliefs a novice Korean language teacher holds about literacy instruction for a starting point to understand a novice teacher's literacy beliefs. To discuss the first research question, I will provide some basic information about the participant instructor. Jamie is the only Korean-teaching faculty in the college and has a master's degree in TESL. He has been a Korean instructor at the college for over three years. He has traveled, studied, and lived abroad in English speaking countries for years before coming to the United States. While he pursued his master's degree in TESL, he started to teach Korean as a teaching assistant (TA). Prior to his TA work, he had never been exposed to teaching Korean as a foreign language. Keeping mind of the participant's personal information, I will first discuss the responses from the LOS and compare the results with classroom observations. For the second question about the application of literacy beliefs into practice and consistency

between literacy beliefs and practices, I will analyze the interview data and talk about the instructor's literacy beliefs and practices from the observations. The last research question about the literacy beliefs and practices towards KHLLs and KFLLs will be examined and addressed by analyzing data from classroom observations.

First, I chose the Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) to measure participant's beliefs about literacy instruction in general. The survey was a useful tool to open conversations with a participant and help him provide more detail about his literacy beliefs. One of the benefits of employing the survey in the beginning of data collection was that the survey provided a frame for us to start conversations and establish trust for early interviews. Another merit was that I could encourage Jamie to voice out his beliefs, which otherwise might have kept somewhere in his mind and unexpressed throughout the study.

In order to establish a deeper understanding of the participant's literacy beliefs and instructions, the survey measurements alone were not sufficient due to several issues such as the possible misinterpretation of survey items, comfort levels with the measurements, and use of different response strategies for more difficult items on the survey. In addition to the survey, I collected data from several sources such as interviews and classroom observations since it seems impossible to understand what the participant believes only with written responses. The survey data were useful for triangulation when compared with teacher's interview data verbalized during the data collection process and his actual applications of literacy beliefs to classroom instructions

as observed in the classroom. In this section, I present the result of the LOS and participant's discussion of his literacy beliefs.

4.1.1 Understanding of Participant's Literacy Beliefs

A. Literacy Orientation of the Participant

This present study attempts to examine and describe a novice teacher's literacy beliefs in teaching Korean. The results of the Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) indicated that the participant teacher hold constructivist literacy beliefs overall, but a literacy beliefs score was identified as traditional. The Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) is designed and used to help language teachers assess their literacy beliefs and to examine how these literacy beliefs are carried out into pedagogical practices in classroom. There are three scores calculated in the survey: a literacy beliefs score, a practice score, and an overall score.

As for the interpretation of scores, each individual score of three categories is associated with either a traditional orientation, an eclectic orientation, or a constructivist orientation to literacy and instruction. This categorization of orientations is placed on a continuum from traditional to constructivist in order to provide a better picture of the degree of consistency of a teacher's beliefs with practices. As described in Chapter II and III, scores from three categories can reveal how closely teachers' beliefs align with their practices. In Table 4, I present the identified orientations of the participant, Jamie (pseudonym). His beliefs, practice, and overall score on the LOS while Figures 2 shows its locations along the orientation continuum for these three scores.

Overall, the results on the LOS fell either in the traditional on beliefs or constructivist orientation on both practice and overall.

Table 4. Participant's Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) Scores

	Beliefs closest to 51=traditional closest to 61=eclectic closest to 69=constructivist	Practice closest to 51=traditional closest to 56=eclectic closest to 63=constructivist	Overall closest to 90-110=traditional closest to 111-125=eclectic closest to 126-145=constructivist
Jamie	Traditional (55)	Constructivist (71)	Constructivist (126)

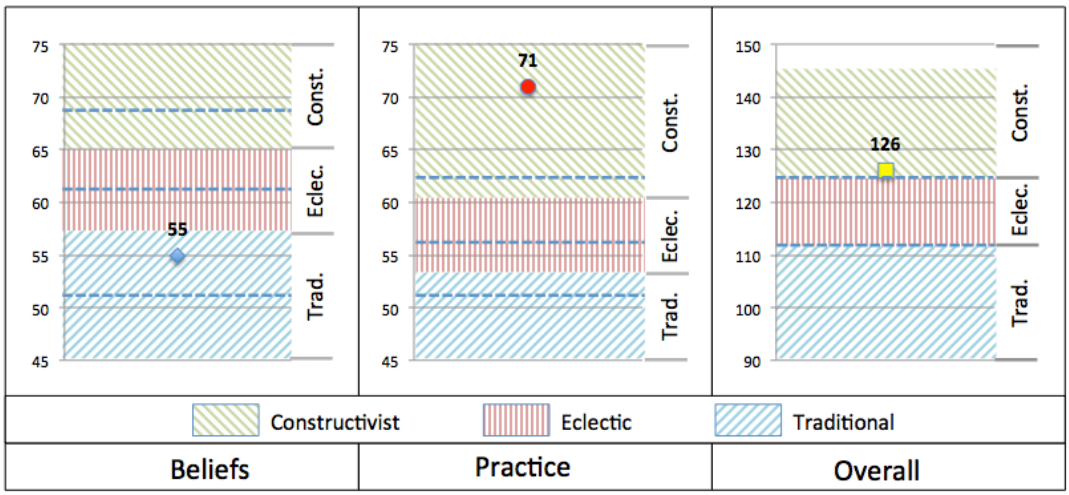

Figure 2. Location of Participant's LOS Scores along the Continuum

It has been recommended that an instructor should consider why he or she makes the instructional decisions used in the classroom if the practice score is higher than beliefs score (Lenski et al., 1998). While interviewing Jamie afterwards, he was a little bit surprised because his beliefs were more likely to be traditional orientation. When asked to reflect on the lack of alignment between beliefs and practices, he stated that his practice orientation as a constructivist indicated by the survey result could be

accurate descriptions of his teaching. He made a guess that it must be influenced from his own learning experiences during his secondary education recalling his own experiences of learning English as a second language. According to Jamie's reflection, it seems that the result heightened his awareness on his literacy beliefs remembering he was exposed to certain experiences as a student. His reflections on his literacy beliefs and some areas of personal disagreement helped the researcher understand the nuances of his identified beliefs.

> When I learned English it was not quite possible to communicate with English native speakers. Recalling those years back then, I used an audio-lingual approach a lot when I studied English. At that time English education in Korea started to pay much attention listening and conversation. It was a linear approach, right off from grammar translation. This is how I learned English during 1990s…. I've tried to take more communicative approaches by so far, but I might be influenced by the method in certain ways, I guess. (Interview 1)

The participant instructor highlighted characteristics of his language learning experiences in the past. This personal note voiced out above may provide evidence of literacy instructions that the participant would employ in literacy classroom. During interviews, Jamie reflected on the findings from the LOS and agreed with the results. Overall, he felt the identified orientations fit him fairly well but explained his own thoughts on the disagreements in beliefs orientation identified as traditional.

Examining the overall score, Jamie's score fell between the eclectic and constructivist orientation. With one point higher from the eclectic orientation, Jamie was identified as having a constructivist orientation without doubt as his high score (71) demonstrated on his practice score. In the Figure 2, it is interesting to find that Jamie's

literacy orientation on practice is constructivist yet his beliefs score was more strongly aligned with the traditional orientation. This discrepancy between the two scores led to his overall score to be fallen on the very edge between an eclectic orientation and a constructivist orientation. Though Jamie's overall literacy beliefs are more supportive of a constructivist approach to literacy instruction, he often employed direct instruction of prescribed literacy skills for students' understanding, which may be close to traditional or eclectic orientation as shown at his beliefs score in Figure 2.

B. Factors Affecting Beliefs and Practice

(1) University Policy

One of the possible explanations for this gap between Jamie's literacy beliefs and practice, the college's literacy framework in the foreign language education and his educational background may provide some clues to better understand this incongruence. Jamie mentioned several times about the university's strong recommendations on transformative learning throughout the campus. Transformative learning has been defined as "a deep, structural shift in basic premises of thought, feelings, and actions," which makes learners understand the world in a different way, changing the way to experience the world and the way to act in day-to-day lives (Transformative Learning Centre, 2004). He stated that it was recommended to include learning outcomes based on transformative learning in every course syllabi at the college. Jamie has followed the college's language learning framework, which is aligned with constructivist practices. Therefore, Jamie's score on practice orientation might be

mediated by more constructivist pedagogical activities, especially as related to a wide range of literacy tasks such as writing text messages through a very popular Korean chatting application and visiting Korean websites. He mentioned that transformative learning was helping his students become more productive and creative while he provided transformative experiences through his Korean language classes.

> I think that my students could come to attentively listen to other students' opinions, respect one another, and learn from each other through proper communication and cooperative group works through my course. (Interview 1)

> Last Thursday several students who went to Korea for a year as an exchange student visited my class and talked about their experiences in Korea. … I believe that those students (who took my Korean course and went study abroad to Korea) have changed their perspectives on different culture and their changes are related to the transformative learning in a way. Visiting my class and talking about their experiences to my students, they became active members of learning community connecting their knowledge to real life. (Interview 5)

As the transformative learning has been promoted across the campus, the university's policy emphasizing the transformative learning might influence to Jamie's approach how to implement the transformative learning in literacy activities. Following the university policy, the novice teacher participated in the study had a progressive approach to incorporating elements of critical thinking and transformative learning providing significant learning environment throughout the semester. He explained how he began to teach reading comprehension at a more literal level and tried to gradually incorporate more critical thinking skills through various activities inside or outside of the classroom (Interview 4). This progressive approach to literacy is linked to social practices

and functional competencies pointed out in many studies considering literacy is more than a set of discrete skills that presumes a mechanical approach to teaching and learning (Bloome, 2000; Hruby, 2001; Nolen, 2001).

(2) MA Training in TESL

The other possible explanation for the inconsistency in literacy orientation is Jamie's educational background in a graduate school, majoring in ESL for adult learners. Accordingly, he is still somewhat ideal on teaching as he studied in a graduate school in terms of applying various pedagogies to his language classroom such as blended learning and student-centered learning as he pointed out several times at interviews.

> I am trying to promote blended learning through SNS and other modes of communication in my classroom. What I learned about blended learning from my own teaching experiences and graduate courses is that blended learning is not something really difficult to practice everyday. If any instructor put some efforts on the blended learning and change a little bit of class setting like I did, it could be actually easy, practical, and more student-centered. (Interview 4)

Pursuing his master's degree, he has been interested in language teaching and received master's degree in ESL. Jamie talked about how graduate courses in ESL education influenced his beliefs and how the courses shaped his instructional practices during the first two interviews. It appears that Jamie affirmed his awareness that his literacy experiences and education are crucial factors when he talked about how his background and graduate school experiences made certain approaches in literacy activities such as literacy strategies and multicultural reading (Interview 1). His overall literacy beliefs on the LOS may be heavily influenced by his MA training and knowledge

of how to be an effective teacher gained from his graduate study at a TESL program (Olson & Stinger, 1994). Trying to Implement various literacy activities learned from his MA training into his teaching, it was found that Jamie made an effort to be more supportive of a constructivist approach to literacy instruction even though he often provided direct instruction of literacy skills throughout classroom observations.

(3) Korean Language Students' Challenges with Basic Proficiency

As his traditional orientation in beliefs on the LOS seemed different from constructivist views identified by his overall score, Jamie shed light on how he had such conflicting views and came to the realization that students' proficiency in the novice level was not good enough for students to be responsible for their own learning and seek out opportunities to learn from each other. Since Jamie defined himself as a facilitator in his language classroom, he encouraged students to actively work together to improve language proficiency and develop language skills.

> I think a language teacher plays a really important role to facilitate students' learning in the mixed classroom of KHLLs and KFLLs. A language teacher can lead two different groups of students to work together and help each other to get better on one's own weakness and furthermore, motivate each other to study harder rather than pointing out differences between the two. (Interview 1)

In his elementary Korean classroom, however, he found out that students were not independent enough to use prior knowledge and take ownership over their learning while mastering new writing system, Korean Hangul with very different grammar from English. He acknowledged that it was not easy for Korean language students to read dialogues or passages from a textbook because their proficiency level was still very low

at the beginning of elementary Korean course. Therefore, he came to take on a more traditional role in the elementary Korean classroom.

4.1.2 Summary of Participant's Literacy Beliefs

The Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) was employed to capture what a novice Korean language teacher believed as much of the previous research conducted on teachers' beliefs has relied on. In this section I summarized the teacher's literacy beliefs examined across the LOS and interview data. Overall, Jamie's orientation on beliefs was identified as a constructivist teacher by his overall scores on LOS. However, he was also holding traditional orientation on literacy beliefs, which is contradictory with his overall constructivist orientation in the role of the teacher and students' learning of language. While constructivist views support the ideas that students use their own prior knowledge and skills to build new understanding as teachers facilitate students' learning process, traditional views of teaching hold on to the passive transmission of knowledge and skills from teachers to students. As the LOS scores clearly indicated, he valued a constructivist approach to language teaching, and he admitted that the traditional orientation was sometimes necessary, particularly for the very novice proficiency students while learning a new writing system with very different grammar.

This analysis of the participant teacher's LOS responses and interviews sheds lights on a novice Korean language teacher's beliefs regarding literacy instruction in the elementary level language classroom. Jamie stated that his identified orientations on the LOS seemed representative of his beliefs and his orientations were also confirmed

through interview data. However, there is no clear-cut in his beliefs as appeared on the survey results since there were evidences of inconsistency between the participant's beliefs and his identified orientations when the participant agreed with some elements of competing orientations or stated viewpoints that were contrary to his identified orientations.

These parts of inconsistency and disagreement provide a window into the depth of understanding of the participant's beliefs and also reinforce the importance of relying on survey data as tools for triangulation rather than the sole source of data in order to identify literacy beliefs. The focus of this section was on identifying what Jamie believed in literacy tasks with acknowledging the insufficiency of reliance on survey data alone for this study. Understanding better of his literacy beliefs, I move forward and examine how these beliefs were executed in his language classroom and how these beliefs were carried out differently to KHLLs and KFLLs to in the next section. Jamie's literacy beliefs will be discussed and analyzed in the next section with more data from classroom observations.

4.2 Literacy in Jamie's Classroom

In addition to the LOS and the interviews, the researcher conducted classroom observation during the participant's literacy instruction in order to corroborate and supplement the data collected through interviews and the LOS, which are self-report instruments. Classroom activities videotaped were categorized into controlled, semi-

controlled, and free technique to capture and show actual literacy practice in the elementary Korean language classroom.

4.2.1 Classroom Observation

Jamie's classroom instruction was observed for the second half of the fall semester and one week during a summer session. Jamie's classes met four days a week at a humanity building where other East Asian languages were taught. His classes have a minimum number of sixteen students. It has been found that Jamie tried to engage with his students in many different activities such as reading aloud, translation, pair work, small group writing activity, and grammar explanation. His activities were highly structured with extensive content explanations and identifications of target forms or other lesson-related items. For each class five to six activities on average were used and in terms of the number of activities, most of the activities were categorized as controlled or semi-controlled techniques.

Table 5. Participant's Literacy Teaching Practices

Technique	Examples of Classroom Activities	Percentage of Time Observed*
Controlled	warm-up, setting, checking, translation, drill, copying, identification, recognition, content/grammar explanation, reading aloud, dialogue/narrative presentation, correction or feedback, review	33
Semicontrolled	brainstorming, question and answer, dialogue, wrap-up	21
Free	interactions (group and pair works), role – play, interview, simulation, a propos	46

* Percentages represent an average proportion of each class time observed for the fall semester

However, in terms of the amount of time allocated for instructional practices, activities of free technique such as group and pair activities, a role-play, and interview were spent more as class time. Jamie's use of Korean was limited to 25% or less based on time speaking for classroom activities.

A. Classroom Routines

At the beginning of each class, Jamie always introduced a list of planned activities for the class period keeping himself and students on track and focused. Jamie usually began each class with a controlled technique activity such as warm-up activity of reviewing vocabularies, grammatical structure, or dialogue being learned in the textbook at that time, having his students to get ready for a lesson. Then he quickly moved on to lesson objectives for a day either on a new conversation or grammar structures. For example, as a controlled warm up activity, the instructor called on one or two students to read sentences from a dialogue on the textbook and write it up on the board for a structure analysis.

While Jamie described his practice in interviews, he referred to this structure analysis or contrastive analysis focusing on grammar as discourse analysis, which he probably learned from his TESL course work. It was observed that structure analysis or contrastive analysis was quite often used in classroom instruction, group activities, and homework assignments. This controlled technique activity aimed for students to focus on short reading and writing exercises at the beginning of each class and prepare to analyze structure of sentences from a dialogue.

B. Literacy Enriched Environment and Teaching Materials

Jamie's classroom environment was deliberately literacy enriched. For instance, classroom has a LCD projector so that he could use various ancillary materials such as audio, video files, and PPT slides. However, for instruction, he often used white board for students to read and write Korean during the class. He stated that he preferred to use the white board in order to make his students get involved in writing and create their own sentences in class instead of looking at PPT slides during the class (Interview 1). Jamie also has made a concerted effort to provide a Korean alphabet-rich environment, which could assist his students to develop their literacy skills while writing letters, syllables, and words on the white board. Students could get to know stroke orders of syllables when Jamie wrote down Korean words. Because Jamie often wrote down several sentences from dialogues for structure analysis right before each class started, the visual and print environment relayed a message that their instructor empathized the importance of written Korean language and its grammar to Korean language learners.

All the vocabularies and dialogues were taken from a KLEAR (Korean Language Education and Research) textbook, Integrated Korean: Beginning 1 (2009) that the participant adopted for the class. Among various contents in the textbook such as grammar, activity, exercise, and cultural note, Jamie mostly used vocabulary and dialogue parts for reading along with grammar explanation for structure analysis. The textbook is based on communicative language teaching (CLT) and there is no framework or recommendation influencing Jamie to employ structure analysis. As written texts for

structure analysis were mostly from the textbook, classroom handouts for the activity or other reading and writing activities were rarely distributed in class during the period when the researcher observed classroom teaching. Students mostly used their own notebook for individual or group activities for reading and writing.

C. Use of the Target Language

Classroom observation provided data that Jamie spoke in Korean approximately 25% of classroom instruction on average. Emphasizing communication and interaction among his novice learners as he was trained to do in TESL, it appears that Jamie felt Korean is very challenging for KFLLs who take Korean for one semester to fulfill the FL requirement. Jamie seemed to think that there is no need to expose his KFLL students in his elementary Korean classroom to too much Korean language. Therefore, he spoke more in English in the classroom for KFLLs while playing the role of teacher to two populations (KHLLs and KFLLs). Generally, Jamie used English during instruction but used Korean when he felt it was appropriate or necessary for students. While spending longer time on free technique activities such as group and pair works, mostly speaking in the target language, Jamie also provided his students with a variety of activities that are categorized as controlled or semi-controlled techniques using all the language skills for each class. Students listened to the textbook's audio files for listening comprehension to grow more confident in their oral proficiency. Occasionally, Jamie read vocabularies and dialogues in Korean and asked his students to repeat in order to work on their pronunciation.

Very often, Jamie thoroughly reviewed target grammar expressions in English, but asked students to come to the front to write out structure analysis in Korean for the given sentences. Code switching between English and Korean, he used the white board regularly to explain and present part of speech, grammar functions, and conjugations. Often students analyzed dialogues or narrations from the textbook and practiced their speaking skills with partners in a small group. Then they presented their conversations in Korean to the class after writing them down. Jamie's instruction was not maximized for facilitating students' conversational skills but more focused on reading and writing to promote use of the target language through the structure analysis for each class. In-class writing exercises, mostly based on structure analysis focused on grammar, were given individually, in small groups, and as a class. Jamie always reminded his students that what students said or wrote for exercises was understandable in general and encouraged students to use the target language to work on self-expression, not necessarily on correct orthography.

4.2.2 Literacy Practice

Classroom observations and interviews were analyzed in light of the definitions of teaching practices by Lenski et al. (1998). After transcribing interview data and watching videotaped classroom instructions several times, the researcher analyzed and coded teachers' responses to the interview questions and classroom observations as traditional, eclectic, or constructivist.

Table 6. Observed Literacy Practices

Orientation	Observed Practices
Traditional	• Emphasis on choral repetition of sounds and reading aloud as a large group most of the time • Emphasis on memory and orthography (syllable blocks) and letters to write accurate spelling and read words correctly with other parts in a sentence • Focus on decoding and handwriting (translation and taking notes) • Focus on mere comprehension of dialogues marking grammar structures through structure analysis • Separate teaching of reading and writing • Direct instruction and large group activities
Eclectic	• Emphasis on particular sounds and letters • Writing activities mostly consisting of copying sentences for dialogue analysis • Small group activities and individual works
Constructivist	• Whole group instruction, small group instruction, and frequent one-to-one instruction • Writing activities including students' responses to instructors' questions and comments • Emphasis on reading comprehension (retelling of a short narration) • Understanding contexts of given dialogues through structure analysis • Extra reading materials and multimodal texts such as songs, video clips, and e-books available to foster critical thinking

The observed literacy practices described in Table 6 were the result of the observations and interviews conducted with the participant. Jamie's literacy practices associated with traditional orientation were observed in the emphasis of isolated units of the target language such as sounds, syllable blocks, and letters. Literacy instruction from traditional orientation was focused on mechanical aspects of literacy skills. For example, choral repetition of new vocabularies as a large group and mere comprehension of dialogues marking grammar structures through structure analysis were observed most of the time throughout the fall semester. During the structure

analysis, Jamie often initiated the translation of given sentences and handwriting to mark part of speech on any given sentences. Once students completed taking notes of grammar functions, students were routinely requested to translate given sentences and provided with direct instruction for the activities.

In the case of literacy activities from eclectic orientation, Jamie tried to combine elements from traditional orientation and some constructivist practices such as copying sentences for dialogue analysis during small group activities. Literacy practices categorized as constructivist orientation were more holistic practices since the construction of meaning was considered as a focal component. After reading aloud a narration as a whole group, students were asked to summarize or retell the narration to their classmates in a small group activity. For the constructivist practices multimodal texts such as children's songs, popular music, and video clips were introduced and provided to students for reading activities.

Jamie’s overall classroom instruction was set for communication but rather centered on providing many opportunities to develop a solid grammar base for his novice-level learners. It appeared that Jamie’s own language learning experience had focused more on grammar-focused than communication-focused lessons as he recollected in the first interview. These personal experiences the way he taught, contrasting with his teaching beliefs, as shown in the LOS result. Another possible factor causing this observed tendency in literacy practices is certain learner factor or classroom context, which in this case students’ low proficiency in the mixed classroom may hamper Jamie from putting his constructivist beliefs into instructional practices.

Most notably, it was observed that Jamie has used structure analysis as an important teaching practice for his literacy instruction during the fall semester. As shown in Table 6, structure analysis was categorized into both traditional and constructivist activities depending on its objectives to employ in classroom teaching: grammatical analysis of dialogue or analysis of discourse in context.

As for grammar structure analysis, Jamie wrote sentences from a dialogue about one's age and school year on a white board. Then, students were called to mark the parts of speech or grammar features such as particles and conjugations, which were emphasized to increase students' awareness of the different grammatical structures. However, Jamie rarely employed the activity to help students understand the language in contexts beyond the sentence level. For example, while teaching numbers as in age and school year in Korean, Jamie explained the reason why Koreans always asked people's age or school year at the first meeting, which is a way to use numbers in Korean. Considering South Korea's strict age-based hierarchy, it is not strange to always ask one's age first. Listening to the explanation, students then understood what the question about age really meant from a cultural perspective, giving them a context for conversing with classmates asking their school year or age.

However, as a teaching practice, Jamie frequently used structure analysis for grammatical analysis of discourse marking part of speech or grammar functions. He has employed the activity from the very beginning of his in-service teaching at the university. Almost every classroom activity videotaped throughout the study included structure analysis, which students figured out how sentences or dialogues on the textbook were

constructed such as subject, particle, and predicates. It seemed that Jamie intended to employ discourse analysis in his classroom but actually put structure/contrastive analysis into practice. Discourse analysis on FL/SL teaching and learning is that it provides opportunities for intensive learning of grammar and vocabulary in context. It appears Jamie understood that students' learning of a FL/SL language is influenced by student's cognitive comparison of target structures and interlanguage structures (Ellis, 1995).

Jamie employed this structure analysis approach as reading and writing activities as students wrote sentences from dialogues on the textbook and read while they marked grammar structure on the sentences. He used the structure analysis for scaffolding to help guide his students to better understand language structure and increase language production in Korean. Jamie strongly believed in building up reading and writing skills so that his students can self-correct in order to advance their language abilities. He has used this structure analysis for about three years since he started to teach at the college and explained his rationale to employ the methods in his classroom as follows:

> Then later on they come to understand meaning and grammatical structures. One of the major reasons why I use structure analysis is not because of grammar rules but because of students' awareness on language differences while reading in Korean since they are not native speakers of Korean. … I do emphasize to my students that they should be aware of sentence structures. Therefore, over the semester students come to look for a subject or an object in a sentence and learn certain reading patterns in Korean. (Interview 3)

Structure analysis, which Jamie described as discourse analysis, used in Jamie's classroom seemed focused on learning of target grammar structure whereas Jamie intended to use the method for more reading and writing activities aiming to improve students' literacy skills.

4.2.3 Modifications in Literacy Instruction

Examining Jamie's literacy practice after data collection during the spring semester, Jamie informed me that there would be no heritage learners in the summer session. It appeared that structure analysis played an important role in his literacy instruction and there were no signs to change it in any way when observed during the fall semester as Jamie utilized the structure analysis almost every class in the mixed classroom of KHLLs and KFLLs. In order to investigate how Jamie will employ literacy practices without KHLLs in his classroom, which is different teaching environment from the fall, the researcher asked Jamie's permission to observe his instruction during the summer. After I obtained his permission and collected data during the summer, it was very impressive to observe that Jamie decided to stop using structure analysis over the summer and onward, as which emphasized too much on grammar patterns and structures of the language for each lesson than what he originally planned.

It appears that several tasks of his learners using structure analysis were designed to decipher linguistics codes and understand the meanings encoded in the given texts. For example, in fact, students were marking grammar structure and translating the texts for literal comprehension during group activities. Jamie's writing

activities during and after in-class group activities were mainly given on the correct use of writing convention such as spelling and syllable blocks or on grammatical accuracy. Jamie understood merits and demerits of using the structure analysis as a major literacy instruction technique and realized the method misled his students to pay too much attention to grammar and a structural understanding of given texts rather than comprehension of or communication in the target language.

Comparing Jamie's literacy practice with KHLLs for the fall and without KHLLs for the summer in his classroom, it was found that one of the major changes in the participant teacher's literacy instruction is to reduce the use of structure analysis in the language classroom over the summer. Even though Jamie mentioned some of the homework assignments still had to be completed using the structure analysis of given sentences during the summer program, the amount of time spent for structure analysis in classroom has been dramatically reduced over a year. Jamie reflected on his own literacy instruction and came to a conclusion that structure analysis had influenced his students to pay too much attention on grammar structures.

> The reason why I stop using the structure analysis in classroom was because students seemed to so focus on the grammar and structures of sentences. As you know I've learned FL with the emphasis on grammar for years, it seemed I also put much emphasis on grammar as well. Structure analysis has its own benefits having students aware of grammatical differences between Korean and English such as word order and particles. However, I noticed that students were heavily influenced by grammar while decoding sentences rather than understanding what they have just read. Instead of understanding passages or sentences, students tend to focus on grammar rules and miss the bigger picture of language learning. I admit that the structure analysis is more likely grammar oriented but I wanted to change my literacy instruction more conversational in order to meet students' needs and learning style. (Interview 5)

In addition to this realization of unexpected effects from structure analysis, Jamie also found that language learners' needs and interests have changed as students' language backgrounds were more diversified over the years. Jamie's beliefs on literacy has appeared very ideal and profoundly influenced by his education from graduate school and university policy on foreign language where he is currently teaching. However, as he gained more experiences, his literacy instruction has gradually evolved more practical over the time period. Jamie mentioned that for his first year of teaching as an instructor there were many students with Chinese language background who were genuinely interested in Korean popular culture and language. However, from the second year, many students with Arabic language background began to register to Korean course.

Jamie's own survey results about student's needs and motivations at the beginning of each semester over the past two years indicated that students with Arabic language are more focused on completing FL requirement rather than the continuation of learning Korean language at the university. Due to the changes in student's enrollment and learner motivations accordingly shifted, Jamie has realized that many of students with Arabic language background, who took up almost the half of the enrollment, have sought more practical contents and concrete instruction to pass the course than developing literacy skills for the next level.

> It seems they are more interested in practical skills such as speaking and cultural knowledge about Korea. For example, since they were interested in differences among China, Japan, and Korea, I taught them to say 'ya' if they want to figure

> out an Asian is Korean when I teach a diphthong letter. If a person hears the expression 'ya' for calling and turns around or responds, then that person must be Korean. Since I noticed that students with Arabic language background were really interested in this kind of practical expression or useful tips in everyday life, I started to teach more practical skills rather than focusing on grammar structure. (Interview 5)

It is clear that Jamie modified his literacy instruction more practically rather than holding on to structure analysis or grammar oriented instruction. For example, instead of overemphasizing how to read and write correctly, Jamie tries to focus more on useful expressions consisted with basic vowels or diphthongs while he still teaches Korean alphabet letters from the very beginning. This finding of instructional changes confirms previous research conducted, which supports that teachers' beliefs are influenced by their experiences and maturation (Cross, 1991; Spring, 2000).

4.3 Literacy Instruction Toward KHLLs and KFLLs

As for the significant themes from data, several themes gradually emerged from the data regarding teacher's literacy instruction toward KHLLs and KFLLs. I will present the salient themes of the major research findings documented from the LOS, interview, and classroom observation. Major themes include: (a) differentiated instruction toward KHLLs and KFLLs; (b) focusing on individual HLLs' special needs in literacy; and (c) KHLLs as a mediator and community builder to promote literacy skills. Each theme will be explained while major research findings are heighted in this section.

When I was collecting basic information about the participant's literacy beliefs and instructional practices at the beginning of this study, Jamie recognized KHLLs' needs

are different from those of KFLLs, acknowledging that heritage learners need more writing skills than non-heritage learners. Jamie has considered literacy skills, reading and writing, are the most important ones for KHLLs whereas listening and reading are the most important skills to teach non-heritage learners in his elementary Korean classes from his own teaching experiences. Therefore, Jamie has tried to provide differentiated instruction and assignments accommodating each individual student's needs in his class.

> Accommodating KHLLs' needs, I give differentiated instruction for each individual under unique circumstances. For example, I assign homework in accordance with students' needs or interests, but no students complained about it thus far. Especially heritage learners mentioned that they are quite happy for having different assignments. … I always try to accommodate each individual's needs, but I feel more comfortable for being more flexible on those of heritage learners (Interview 2).

Accommodating students' different needs on literacy instruction, Jamie is clearly aware that his teaching strategies of differentiated instruction were quite effective. In addition to accommodations for linguistic skills, it was observed that Jamie provided differentiated instruction for some areas such as culture and community in and out of language classroom. During classroom observations, the teacher became very animated while responding to a student's questions in Korean about Korean popular culture. Jamie expressed that KHLLs have been assigned as native informant on culture and teacher's aids in his class.

> I don't treat them (KHLLs) specially, but it is also true that I feel much comfortable when I interact with KHLLs, probably, because we share the same cultural background. It seems I lower my guard to heritage learners (Interview 2).

> I can tell you about two aspects of KHLLs in my class. First of all, HLLs are playing a quite positive role in classroom. HLs are much better than non-heritage learners in receptive skills such as listening and reading. In a way, I rely on HLLs for their role of native-like language input in classroom and their cultural knowledge about Korea. In this way, I think I build a colleagueship or feel solidarity with KHLLs. I also found that they helped their classmates for group activities in and out of classroom. (Interview 5)

There are many literacy activities Jamie employed KHLLs to work with KFLLs and aimed to learn from each other in the classroom. Most of classroom activities and literacy instruction in terms of the number of counted activities seem to fall into the categories of controlled or semi-controlled throughout the semester. Most frequently used literacy activities were reading aloud of vocabularies and sentences, and content explanations of target grammar forms and structure. However, the amount of time for free techniques such as pair and group works of KHLLs and KFLLs in class were much longer during the fall semester. While students were assigned in small groups, free techniques like problem solving and report were used for the group activity.

Towards KHLLs, the instructor often used more free techniques such as interview, simulation, and a propos, which can be categorized as constructivist. For instance, during a small group activity, the instructor employed the free technique of a propos and introduced a Korean website for a KHLL to read for additional information about jobs in Korea. In addition to the frequent use of free techniques, Jamie employed authentic materials as extra-reading materials for KHLLs to improve their literacy skills. Data from observations provided evidence that Jamie employed more free techniques to KHLLs while more controlled or semi-controlled techniques categorized as traditional

or eclectic were used during the classroom activities based on typology of textbook activities (Brown, 2001).

Classroom observations and an interview during the summer session provided further evidence that Jamie has accommodated two groups employing different teaching techniques through the reflection on his own literacy instruction how his instruction has modified over the summer teaching only KFLLs in classroom. Over the summer, Jamie taught elementary Korean without heritage learners in his classroom. He explained that his feelings toward KHLLs have been more like colleagueship or solidarity sharing the same culture in certain degree in the classroom. The instructor who taught both KHLLs and KFLLs in the same classroom during regular semesters is more likely to have a constructivist orientation for more flexible learning activities than when he taught only KFLLs during the summer.

In the mixed classroom of KHLLs and KFLLs, Jamie provided more opportunities to practice oral reading such as reading aloud and shared reading as well as in-class group writing activities in order to improve students' vocabularies and linguistic repertoire. However, results from classroom observations for the summer when the participant taught only KFLLs indicate that Jamie had more likely to have an eclectic belief type or even close to traditional beliefs. Jamie also confirmed different instructional practices toward KFLLs over the summer.

> As for summer class, I noticed that I repeat more often grammar points than fall and spring semesters, and double-checked whether students understood grammar points given for each lesson during the summer without KHLLs. I think I become more repetitive to explain grammar points and conjugations and

> provide more examples in order to make sure of students' understanding. Because of repetition and provision of more examples, it took more time to teach lessons planned on syllabus. (Interview 5)

Because of different language proficiency between KHLLs and KFLLs, the instructor could employ more resources and activities, which can be categorized as constructivist, for the KHLLs who have better literacy skills with prior knowledge of the target language during the fall semester. Jamie experienced that he spent more time on grammar structures while repeatedly explaining how grammar worked with more example sentences in classroom. It turned out he moved forward much slower and covered fewer lessons than a fall or spring semester.

From the data, it is found that actual literacy practice toward KHLLs is congruent with Jamie's overall self-reported literacy beliefs resulting from the LOS. However, the practice toward KFLLs is incongruent with overall literacy beliefs as shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Participant's Stated Beliefs and Actual Practice toward KHLL and KFLL

	Overall Literacy Orientation on the LOS	Actual Practice from Classroom Observation	Consistency
Toward KHLL	Constructivist	Constructivist	Congruence
Toward KFLL		Traditional/Eclectic	Incongruence

While the instructor's literacy beliefs and actual literacy practice toward KHLLs are congruent, incongruence between literacy beliefs and instructional practices toward KFLLs has shown over the summer program without KHLLs' presence in classroom. Since Jamie acknowledged KHLLs' special needs for learning Korean and his emotional

attachment to KHLLs, it appears that he has less control of his language and could employ various pedagogical methods for KHLLs during a fall semester. Based on the incongruence found in literacy instruction toward two different learner groups, three sub-themes will be further discussed in the following sections: (a) differentiated instruction for KHLLs and KFLLs; (b) KHLLs' special needs in literacy; and (c) KHLLs as a mediator and community builder to promote literacy.

4.3.1 Differentiated Instruction

It is found that Jamie has promoted differentiated literacy instruction by giving additional, separate, more challenging, or more connected to everyday life. It was observed that the instructor assigned more level-appropriate reading and writing assignments and gave somewhat different projects with more challenging requirements for different students. Jamie mentioned that differentiation in terms of instruction, assignment, and feedback is essential in the mixed classroom of HLLs and non-HLLs although it takes time and requires additional preparation.

Different techniques have been noted in Jamie's instruction toward different groups of language learners in his classrooms. Differentiated instruction has been observed by researchers paying attentions to teachers' instructional practices toward different ability groups in classroom and in tracked classrooms. Previous studies indicated that students in low groups have been found to receive less emphasis upon meaning, less exciting instruction, and more rote drill than those in high ability groups (Cooper and Tom, 1984; Good and Brophy 1984). Results from the previous studies

suggested that the instructional environment in heterogeneous groups is similar to that in high ability groups, which are more demanding, and warmer socio-emotional climate. Understanding the teaching environment for heterogeneous learner groups, it seems clear that teacher expectations are related to instructional practices such as more exciting classroom activities and more emphasis on conceptualization and meaning. As many researchers noted FL/SL teachers' challenges in language classes with HL students (Carreira & Kagan, 2011; Huang, 2013; Krashen, 1996), Jamie also encountered both difficulties and challenges in accommodating heritage learners in his class.

> The other thing I think of HLLs is that I should constantly pay more attention to HLLs and care for them with extra care because I am aware of their different needs. I can tell when HLLs got bored or annoyed while I teach things HLLs already knew. Then I have to address something new for HLLs and provide different aspects in order for them to pay attention to what I should teach. Sometimes this aspect of classroom management with HLLs in class makes me nervous and a little bit stressful. However, I admit that KHLLs' positive contribution is much larger than some issues caused by heritage learners. (Interview 5)

Jamie has been aware of his expectations and accommodations toward heritage learners and their literacy practices in the mixed classroom of HLLs and non-HLLs. It was observed that the participant instructor often employed more constructivist activities for HLLs whereas rather controlled traditional or eclectic activities were used for non-heritage learners. For example, he often introduced more extra materials to KHLLs such as websites and books for their reading practices while he placed more emphasis on drills for KFLLs. It was often observed that Jamie often asked KHLLs to stop by his office or to talk more after class when heritage learners inquired about complicated grammar

not introduced yet or current affairs when he walked around classroom to check up group activities. Individual sessions during the instructor's office hours were announced in class and often encouraged for both KHLLs and KFLLs to attend during the fall semester. Setting individual sessions set throughout the semester is related to the participant's beliefs on constructivist practice in literacy instruction providing extra reading materials and accommodating special needs for KHLLs who want to improve literacy skills in his class.

> I have many books and use them for supplementary reading. I sit down with individual student and read the books together with a student like a tutor. Because there are many students in classroom, it is impossible to read the storybooks in class. Students read the books with me after class if they want to do something more outside of classroom for learning Korean. (Interview 1)

> Accommodating students' diverse needs, I give differentiated instruction for each individual under unique circumstances. I assign homework in accordance with students' needs or interests, but no students complained about it thus far. Especially heritage learners mentioned that they are quite happy for having different assignments. I ask heritage learners if they want to have more assignments. If they want, I give two or three more assignments. (Interview 2)

> University supports students to have tutors for language learning, which is me in the case of Korean program. If I notice that students make frequent errors on certain parts, I give more opportunities for students to practice in class. And I often recommend students to come and meet me like a tutor during my office hours or assigned time for individual sessions. (Interview 3)

From the interview data it has been noted that Jamie put much effort to establish a dual environment through individual session as he admitted the different language proficiency and needs in language learning between HLLs and non-HLLs. The

benefits of this dual environment can be explained as more speaking practices with less anxiety for KFLLs and accommodation of HLLs' interests and struggles in reading and writing.

> This university provides tutor system for language learners. Students come to my tutor sessions to have casual conversations and practice Korean with me. Without much pressure, students practice Korean with me even for an hour. (Interview 1)

> It all depends on students, like what they are interested in. If someone is interested in grammar, terminology, or reading in particular topics, I tutor him or her in the specific area. (Interview 1)

Individual sessions appear to result in more interactions with students, which is less stressful but more resourceful environment. One of the reasons why Jamie promoted the dual learning environment is because of time.

> If there are not many heritage learners, I can teach them with a focus after I ask them about their individual learning goals or motivations. Actually non-heritage students are not complaining about individualized approach to heritage learners. (Interview 3)

> Time is the biggest challenge to me. I want to cover the lesson objectives and complete them as many as I could during class but there are just too many students. Because time is limited I couldn't give enough opportunities to practice nor improve literacy skills even when I know certain students are left a little behind. Then I try to arrange individual sessions (Interview 3).

Another major element of differentiated and individualized instruction is a portfolio. Jamie requested all students to keep their writing portfolio, which includes original and revised versions of individual writing, group writing, and final submission.

Keeping a portfolio during the semester not only helps students keep their homework, but it also helps them become more resourceful as they improve their proficiency. As for the heritage learners, Jamie has accommodated KHLLs' needs in literacy giving a different type of homework assignment such as a journal instead of doing workbook published along with the textbook he adopted for his class. Writing assignments for KHLLs, he stated, were aimed to connect their learning of Korean to their lives outside of classroom. Jamie was able to see what KHLLs used their literacy skills in reality.

> And if necessary, I meet them (KHLLs) after class to clarify any confusing or challenging parts. Instead of giving workbook assignments, I gave them journal-writing assignments. For example, writing a short letter or notes to parents or to future boyfriend/girlfriend. Sometime, HLLs wrote letters that I couldn't expect. I was surprised at their progresses on writing assignments. I don't give any additional workbook assignments to HLLs. I tried to teach them something more practical, what they could use on streets in Seoul than workbook practice (Interview 1).

Since two subgroups of students were learning in the same classroom, Jamie determined the way he moved around the classroom. In order to assist non-heritage learners individually as required during pair-works or group works in classroom, he tried to assign at least one heritage learner in each group, if possible. Then he moved around the classroom paying more attention to groups without heritage learners or in low proficiency. His concern about non-heritage learners who struggled to make progresses in literacy learning during classroom activities might make heritage learners feel unfair or disregarded. Jamie talked to KHLLs about his concern and felt relieved after he realized what KHLLs actually thought of his group assignment.

> I did not form a group of heritage learners together. I intentionally mixed them with non-heritage learners in a group, and then found out that non-heritage learners without Korean cultural background asked many questions to heritage learners (Interview 1).

> After I grasp students' need, I differentiated instruction. And I also encourage each group of students differently. I often tell heritage students that I put my trust in you or I rely on you (for the group assignments) whereas I explain to non-heritage learners that heritage learners would bring benefit to group works or non-heritage learners can learn a lot from heritage learners (Interview 1).

> When I say to heritage learners that they should be more self-directed learning or self-disciplined, heritage learners don't interpret my direction as a sign of unconcern but actually like my attitude toward them. I think it's because they know that I trust them in learning Korean (Interview 2).

> I try to help most of students individually during the class hours. I walk around during student group activities to help but focus more on several groups struggling than groups working without problem. I pay more attention to student groups that no heritage learners are assigned to or longer time is required to complete in-class tasks (Interview 3).

During my observations for the fall semester, Jamie prepared group activities of dialogue analysis and a short passage writing assigning heritage learners with non-heritage learners together in a group. For the classroom activities dialogues and narrations are taken from a textbook for dialogue analysis whereas students analyze dialogues of their own creation for homework assignments. While he was helping one or two groups, in which he assigned weak proficiency students, heritage learners were helping their classmates so students could have some individual assistance if necessary. I noticed that heritage learners occasionally spoke English to explain grammar patterns

or their experiences of trip to Korea. Then I asked Jamie a question about code switching in classroom. He answered that he personally liked code switching in his classroom since students need to communicate, grow together, and become friends with each other although he was concerned a little bit about chatting in English during group activities.

Jamie's recognition of different needs in literacy for individual students and two different subgroups of learners helped him to assess his students differently in addition to his individual sessions and differentiated instruction for students. His assessment is based on students' growth and learning process rather than learning outcome.

> My assessment of heritage learners is rather strict, but there have been no students complaining why I applied different assessment rubric or standard toward heritage learners (Interview 3)

> It seems that the balance between learning and having fun requires teachers to make much more efforts to prepare each class. I focus more on learning process rather than learning outcome. Of course I should be concern about students' achievement as well (Interview 4).

It is noteworthy, however, to find that Jamie's thoughts on the differentiated instruction has changed over time as more students were enrolled in Korean language courses at the university. As for individual sessions, it appears that Jamie came to realize the reality of how difficult to manage language program only by himself without a teaching assistant. During the summer interview, he stated that it seemed now almost impossible to assign students with individual sessions in addition to office hours as he was overwhelmed by increased workload from student's enrollment, which almost

doubled. He is trying to fit to the reality and adapt his teaching beliefs to the classroom environment, which is commonly shown during the novice teacher's transition to become an experienced teacher.

4.3.2 Focusing on Individual HLLs' Special Needs in Literacy

Analyzing the teacher's responses, first of all, I found a common thread that Jamie came to know, which is that the KHLLs' proficiency level in literacy is not the same as KFLLs, but not much better than KFLLs either in terms of literacy. The participant explained that individual student has different needs in literacy. Excerpts from the interviews reveal this belief:

> Although there are some differences between heritage and non-heritage learners on writing activities, I pay more attention to individual student rather than groups of students. Individual student under different social contexts is more important to me. Language learning environment I want to provide in my classroom is to approach each student differently by making efforts to differentiate instruction and accommodate their learning style and goals of study (Interview 2).

> As for heritage learners' language proficiency, their listening skill is way better than non-heritage learners but not any better on reading and writing. Heritage learners quickly understand what they heard and distinguish different sounds very well. Heritage learners struggle with syllable block, which is very different from English writing. I often tell heritage learners to draw syllables and compliment their writing. But heritage learners realize that writing system is very systematic and scientific soon after receiving formal instruction in classroom. (Interview 3)

Understanding the different needs in literacy for heritage learners and non-heritage learners, Jamie described that he gave differentiated instruction for each

individual under unique circumstances with accommodating learners' special needs in literacy at the second interview. During pair activities with both HLLs and non-HLLs or group activities with a heritage learner in classroom, I often observed constructivist practices when Jamie gave students several situations where a pair of students could create short dialogue with each other in class, for example, "asking your partner about his/her family" or "asking your partner about his/her personal belongings in a school back." The interactions between students are quite extensive and learners were exposed to and participated in real communications. For example, while teaching numbers in Korean and a topic about family, Jamie was very aware of KHLLs' different needs in literacy.

> I cannot say heritage learners are any better than non-heritage learners on numbers. … It depends on each individual heritage student, but there are many heritage learners who are not good at numbers. Some of heritage learners don't know native set of numbers whereas they are good at Sino set of Korean numbers. Heritage learners know pretty well on kinship terms such as aunt and uncle (Interview 2).

He prepared his students for the distinction between the polite and the intimate, the colloquial and formal ways to express in Korean. One thing to note in Jamie's instructions is that the intimate speech style, which is commonly used among close friends and siblings, was introduced to his students, yet it does not appear in the textbook until in intermediate level. Jamie explained that the intimate style is often used among friends and his students should be able to use the intimate style when they communicate with close friends in Korean. Although the intimate style is introduced for the intermediate learners, Jamie understood how commonly the style is used among

native Korean speakers and decided to introduce to his students for their practical uses in everyday lives. For example, while fostering literacy skills Jamie wrote sentences on a whiteboard and erased a politer maker –yo attached to predicates and pointed out the sentence changed to the intimate style without the one syllable polite maker –yo in the end. This writing and reading activity with one syllable clearly demonstrates Jamie's effective strategy in literacy instruction carrying additional knowledge about the target language and culture.

4.3.3 KHLLs as a Mediator and Community Builder to Promote Literacy Skills

Jamie has emphasized KHLLs' role in promoting literacy through in-class group activities and their roles as a mediator and community builder. Group activities given in the classroom were more on reading and writing rather on speaking activities. His instruction was more eclectic rather than constructivist oriented during my classroom observation. Group activities observed in the classroom were mostly to complete written assignments for each group, which were to create a conversation similar to the textbook dialogue and analyze the dialogue in grammar structures. While group activities seemed very constructivist in general, the actual literacy activities carried out in the classroom were eclectic because of the structure analysis and its focus on grammar structures introduced in a textbook. However, throughout this study, Jamie has believed in the importance of group activities in and out of classroom for language learning.

It has been stated several times during our interviews and conversations that Jamie believed in the power of a strong learner community and passionately worked to establish this learner community in and out of his language classroom. Observing Jamie's classes for the fall semester, I noted that he intentionally assigned HLLs with non-HLLs in a group for various group activities. Jamie constantly and consciously tried to mix the two learner groups together in order to reduce any possible tensions between the two groups and build up more cooperative relationship.

> KHLLs play an important role in Korean class as facilitators bridging the two cultures. I am very pleased to see KHLLs help KFLLs in and out of classroom. … Although it's not always easy to pair up a heritage learner with a non-heritage learner, I try as much as I could. (Interview 2)

While students were working together for group activities for reading or writing, Jamie encouraged KHLLs to be a lead role in the activities, mediating two cultures and facilitating peer learning. Throughout the interviews and classroom observations, it has been found that Jamie quite often said 'by yourselves', 'each other', and 'in your group' encouraging students for group activities, which emphasized on cooperation and self-learning among the KHLLs and KFLLs during the group activities.

> There are many occasions KHLLs turn into a lead role and carry out a main role during classroom activities for reading and writing when heritage learners and non-heritage learners are all working together in class. It just happens that they become the center of classroom activities (Interview 1).

> When they participate in classroom activities, they become a mediator, you know. They play the unique role of cultural mediator in classroom between two cultures (Korean and American culture). Decades ago, half Koreans were treated

> as strangers in Korean society, but not any more. More importantly they bridge two cultures emerged from exploring their identity (Interview 1).

> KHLLs play an important role in Korean class as facilitators bridging the two cultures. I am very pleased to see KHLLs help KFLLs in and out of classroom. … Although it's not always easy to pair up a heritage learner with a non-heritage learner, I try as much as I could. … I notice interactions in two pairs are very creative but different from each other … However, KHLL-KFLL pairs seem to balance out their different perspectives while helping each other. When KHLL-KFLL pairs work together, tension between KHLLs and KFLLs seems reduced and two groups become more cooperative (Interview 3).

Jamie emphasized that HLLs should be able to use their heritage language for their classmates, family members, and Korean community, any communities they belong to. Throughout the fall semester during the observation, it is clear that Jamie tried to build a learning community in his class encouraging KHLLs to be an active mediator and native culture informant. Promoting a learner community, constructivist activities on literacy instruction such as pair and group activities were often used in class, which are open-ended and student-centered categorized as free techniques. It is also noteworthy of Jamie's awareness on KHLLs' roles in learner community while teaching a summer course without KHLLs.

> While I design group activities, I should be concerned with what students can build up and help each other through the activities. For example, group activities have to be designed to make up for the weak points of each student (Interview 1).

> After my realization of heritage learners' unique role in classroom, I started to encourage them a little bit to play the lead role. But what really surprises me is that I don't have to intervene group activities much since heritage learners find

> their role soon enough without my help. Somehow I cannot assign the lead role for them, but they rather make the role throughout the semester (Interview 1).

> Also as for learner community during the summer, it seemed my students for summer were not as close as ones for fall or spring semester. I noticed that my students during fall or spring semester got together out of classroom for having meals together or meeting for group study. I found that KHLLs played an important role for study group or social gatherings. Heritage learners cook some Korean food and invited group members for gatherings at their own places. Such gatherings or cultural activities did not happen during the summer because there were not KHLLs in class. (Interview 5)

When KHLLs were not present in classroom during summer, however, Jamie formed student groups based on Korean proficiency so that students with better proficiency could help other students as KHLLs did during the fall semester. It appears that Jamie's beliefs on KHLLs' positive roles for literacy as a facilitator is clearly related to his beliefs in student-centered learning approach. Jamie stated that he has tried to balance between teacher-controlled and student-centered classroom by allowing KHLLs self-directed learning opportunities inside and outside of classroom during the first two Interviews. Jamie's students were assigned to certain tasks, such as dialogue analysis for a part of a passage or dialogue from a textbook, as a group. While doing the assigned tasks of reading and writing together, students interacted and learned from each other on a daily basis as I observed classes. This role of facilitator and community builder in terms of literacy development was reflected in the classroom. During dialogue analysis Jamie asked a student in a group to complete a sentence filling a blank with a proper conjugation. Since the students called seemed to hesitate, another member of the group volunteered to complete the task on a whiteboard.

Through group activities and classroom assignments KHLLs used their background knowledge and experienced their role of a guide in class. Jamie encouraged students to learn vicariously where non-heritage learners can learn more by observing heritage learners' performance. KHLLs helped non-heritage learners to gain more language input and further motivate KFLLs to actively participate in classroom activities with less anxiety because KFLLs realize that KHLLs' performance also presents many errors and learning a foreign language is a long and demanding process. KHLLs' role as a facilitator has positively affected to create more comfortable and meaningful learning environment. Jamie also realized that collaboration between KHLLs and KFLLs reminded students of the advantages of learning from each other as well as helped students to feel safer to ask questions in collaborative groups. He indicated that the classroom atmosphere with less anxiety is necessary for creativity and effective engagement in class activities.

> When I give a homework assignment, I try to plan out ahead of time to maximize each group member's ability and cooperate for the best result. Homework assignment usually requires cooperation of heritage learners and non-heritage learners; somehow they absolutely need other classmates' assistance to finish the assignment (Interview 1).

> Heritage learners help non-heritage classmates a lot. Because heritage students quite often help them, non-heritage learners are grateful for heritage students. Maybe other instructors could think there might be some sort of tension between the two groups, but actually there is nothing to worry about. Sometimes I should concern somehow that we all laugh with some mistakes heritage learners made. Since non-heritage learners have a little bit of high expectation on heritage learners' proficiency, non-heritage students think it funny when heritage learners make some errors in easy tasks in class. I always make sure that we laugh with, not laugh at them though (Interview 1).

During the fall semester, dialogue analysis started with a vocabulary exercise, which students recognized words and read them aloud. Students always had activities where they had to interact with each other. Jamie focused on dialogue analysis in small groups and group assignments to create an authentic dialogue together. These major elements of his literacy teaching promoted collaboration and a shared responsibility towards learning between heritage learners and non-heritage learners. Group activities for literacy learning during the dialogue analysis and writing assignments established a semester-long partnership for literacy learning. Learner communities built by students promoted a learning environment with more freedom to be creative. One of the successes Jamie accomplished was to provide learning opportunities by implementing the dialogue analysis, which encouraged his students in class to become more active and collaborative participants throughout the fall semester. However, structure analysis was almost dropped out of the participant's literacy instruction and used very occasionally in classroom due to changes in students' needs and enrollment.

Adapting to the recent changes in his classroom, Jamie realized that students with various first language backgrounds showed more interests in FL requirement rather than the continuation of learning Korean into intermediate level. In order to accommodate students' needs to learn more practical uses of Korean, Jamie dramatically reduced the use of structure analysis for group activities. Instead, he started to employ more speaking practices for in-class group actives over the summer. It was observed that Jamie still employed in-class group activities and promoted blended

learning through various modes of online communication for a learner community during the summer even after significant instructional changes on literacy instruction.

4.4 Broader Understanding of Literacy

4.4.1 Cultural and Digital Literacy

Observing the Jamie's instructional modifications of reducing the use of structure analysis during the summer language courses without KHLLs in his classroom, it became clearer that Jamie could have utilized various constructivist literacy practices during the fall semester since KHLLs have played as mediators or leaders of learner's community to promote literacy skills. One of the most prominent literacy practices Jamie could employ was texting or online chatting among students themselves and with the instructor through various social media technologies. While Jamie put continuous efforts to build a learner community for better language learning, he acknowledged literacy as a social activity in the communities where students have built up. Regardless of learner's language proficiency, Jamie realized that literacy is more than decoding letters or reading fluency. Jamie emphasized this social aspect of literacy more for KHLLs since heritage learners have more practical motivations and first-hand opportunities to put their literacy skills in the context of their own everyday life as evidenced in these comments:

> Sometimes students send me text messages and ask questions about certain expressions used a lot on text messaging. … Heritage learners have much merit on multimedia or text messages since they can quickly apply what they've learned in class to their real life such as communicating with parents, siblings, or friends in Korean (Interview 3).

> Since many of KHLLs are using some Korean on Facebook and chatting apps in order to communicate with their family or friends, it is easy to utilize Internet sites or chatting apps for the promotion of using Korean in everyday life. However, during the summer, it is almost impossible to use them without KHLLs, who are already using them in their everyday life (Interview 5).

Jamie's answers from interview data showed that he has approached literacy instruction with multiple literacy paradigms for his students. He acknowledged that the world is better connected than ever before due to new technologies and globalization, which students could easily access to diverse cultural and linguistic resources beyond written texts from textbooks. For example, many of Korean language learners are interested in Korean popular culture such as K-pop, TV shows, and movies, which students would facilitate meaning-making practices thinking of visual, aural, spatial, and behavioral information. For instance, I observed that Jamie used a Korean popular song titled as "10 minutes" on YouTube site when he taught numbers and how to read time in Korean. In addition to teaching numbers, he briefly mentioned about "lookism" in Korea and the use of English in K-pop songs. While talking about literacy instruction using multimodal texts such as music videos and movie clips, Jamie talked about cultural literacy how KHLLs connect certain cultural information from given materials in their everyday life. It is also pointed out that KHLL's cultural knowledge plays an important role when KHLLs and KFLLs work together in class activities and project.

> For instance, doing a group writing activity, heritage students talk about their cultural experiences in Korea then non-heritage students ask question to heritage students such as which food they like more between Korean and American food … Since heritage learners have no problem in communicating

> with classmates and share cultural background from American culture, they can answer better and quickly. Having both Korean heritage and the same cultural background and experiences as an American college student, heritage students become a good storyteller in the classroom … Heritage students shine the brightest in the classroom at that moment (Interview 1).

> Since heritage learners speak more fluently and know much about Korean culture whereas non-heritage learners are good at writing with high accuracy, they can work for mutual benefits and eventually friendship (Interview 1).

> Once we start to talk about some Korean food, heritage learners never stop talking. They are very distinct from non-heritage learners in terms of cultural knowledge about Korea. They (KHLLs) help me a lot on my instruction about Korean culture and share their own cultural experiences with me also with their classmates. I really like it as a teacher. Heritage learners know Korean culture much more than non-heritage learners (Interview 2).

> For instance, while watching a Korean film, students can learn how to understand the way people communicate and interact through the language and body language as well as target culture rather than only improving Korean language skills (Interview 4).

The participant also presented the idea that literacy for Internet natives requires a broader understanding of what reading and writing mean in this digitally mediated world. Jamie is fully aware of the fact that his students are living in a world of rapidly changing cultural and technological conditions. Because of the cultural and technological changes by new social media technologies and platforms such as Internet, smartphone, chatting apps, Facebook, YouTube etc., Jamie wanted to employ multimodal texts combined with other semiotic modes such as visual and aural for his literacy so that his students would be exposed to Korean multimodal texts and produce

their own through various communication channels and media. In the end of each class, Jamie often made an announcement about Facebook or eLearning website where students could ask questions if they have any on homework assignments or grammar. Jamie understood technology seems to influence more on writing than reading practices in literacy instruction.

> I use Facebook page to reach out to students. When students ask some questions on Facebook, I answer their questions and provide some examples. It's a little unexpected to read students' comments in Korean on Facebook such as "happy birthday" or "I went somewhere today." Although many of students' friends don't know Korean, students still write some sentences in Korean, which is very interesting to me. When their friends ask about my students' comments in Korean, my students explain the comments in English to their friends. I believe that Facebook could help college students' writing in Korean (Interview 1).

> During the regular semesters, I often utilize SNS (Social Networking Service) such as Facebook or popular Korean chatting app KakaoTalk to interact with students on Internet. Since many of KHLLs are using some Korean on Facebook and chatting programs in order to communicate with their family or friends, it is easy to utilize Internet sites or chatting apps for the promotion of using Korean in everyday life (Interview 5).

It is not surprising to hear Jamie's explanation of employing online technologies for literacy teaching and learning. He has pointed out literacy is more than reading or writing handling print texts such as a textbook or workbook. Jamie considered that the process of reading and writing using technologies such as the Internet sites and movie clips is part of literacy learning. He recognized that online technologies have helped his students access different reading resources much easier than before. Students' uses of SNS and chatting messengers or apps are considered as the acts of reading and writing

providing language learners more opportunities to be exposed to Korean and apply their literacy skills to express themselves in the target language. After class, he showed me his communications with his students on a popular Korean chatting app, KakaoTalk, on his smartphone during our interviews. His interactions with students were mixed with Korean and English. It is natural for elementary-level novice learners to switch codes between Korean and English, but it is quite impressive to see novice learners type messages in Korean and chat with their instructor. Among the conversations, text messages from KHLLs seemed longer whereas KFLL's messages were rather short and simple.

> My students are digital natives so they are very familiar with the technology. I should find some good online reading materials for them. Since it's not easy to access the books written in Korean in this area I often introduce Internet websites such as Korean Broadcasting System (KBS) or National Geography. For example, I asked students to visit an English version of a Korean website and switch to Korean version of the website to see what words or expressions they could recognized. … It is really important to read more online if possible since my students are good at digital devices and technologies (Interview 4).

As for Jamie's literacy instruction, literacy includes in broad digital literacy such as SNS and text messages on daily communications on the Internet and mobile communication. As for the digital literacy, Jamie further explained his experiences of how KHLLs used technology with their literacy skills. It seems that KHLLs' literacy is not only the ability to read and write, but also the ability to connect people and build communities to interact with.

> With their digital literacy skills, heritage learners often help non-heritage classmates on web surfing or text messaging. Heritage learners' digital literacy

> helps students bring together and foster group solidarity among students (Interview 1).

> Sometimes I choose narrations from the textbook for summary assignment. Sometimes if there is a good Youtube video clip, I show the video clip to students and ask them to summarize. Summary is actually very hard to do, I believe. I often give heritage learners to summarize passage in Korean. But I realized that summary in Korean is hard for non-heritage learners and allow them to summarize in English (Interview 3).

The access to written expressions and multimodal texts online such as Facebook and YouTube has created larger audience to interact with inside and outside of language classroom and provided more chances to understand the target language and culture. Jamie mentioned that it is a very positive change to move toward more inclusive texts that go beyond a textbook or workbook in language classroom.

4.4.2 Transformative Learning and Critical Thinking in Literacy

The participant instructor has made huge efforts to create and promote transformative learning environment throughout the academic year in language classroom following the university policy. Transformative learning has emphasized on a holistic approach that learners reflect and build new connections or new perspectives through their own active learning experiences (Kegan, 2000). It has been pointed out that a major impact of transformative learning upon learning experiences is the facilitation of the development of these new “connections” (King, 2002). Transformative learning is embracing the concept of “Connection,” one of the 5Cs in national standard.

Jamie frequently tried to explain about transformative learning implemented in language courses on campus and his adaptation of the learning objective to Korean language classroom maybe partially because he should implement the transformative learning following the university guideline. Jamie's comments on the university policy imply that his literacy beliefs and practices were influenced by certain external factors such as administration and framework in certain degree.

> Transformative learning has to be included in learning outcome for any course in this university, which greatly changed educational goals we have desired. … Transformative learning is one of the major learning objectives in the university. It is stated that transformative learning is applicable to possibly any college courses (Interview 4).

While explaining about English-Korean code switching for group activates, Jamie expressed his long-term goal for his students. Korean proficiency is an important part of his instruction overall, but he also set a goal to help students reflect, have a dialogue, find new perspectives, and pay attention to resultant actions as transformative learning guided beyond language skills.

> More importantly, I hope that my students could attentively listen to other students' opinions, respect one another, and learn from each other through proper communication and cooperative group works. I encourage students to focus on communication in class either in Korean or English (Interview 1).

When Jamie taught Korean alphabet for several weeks in the beginning, he stated that heritage and non-heritage students were treated as equal in order to make sure all learners' mastery of Korean alphabet, which he found KHLLs felt more comfortable than differentiated instruction then. However, Jamie realized that KHLLs'

prior knowledge started to play a significant role in language learning once the Korean alphabet is mastered in a month. Concerning the connections between students' prior knowledge and Korean language, the participant instructor believes, in particular, that KHLLs could become actively engaged to connect heritage language to other subject knowledge and develop critical thinking at the same time they expand vocabularies in various subjects as they develop their language proficiency. While providing differentiated instruction, Jamie assigned a little more challenging writing assignment to HLLs such as summarizing HLLs' papers written in English for other college courses in Korean. In this way KHLLs can improve their vocabularies and writing skills considering their weakness as very limited "kitchen" Korean or age inappropriate Korean in academic setting.

> I challenge heritage learners to summarize their paper written in English for other course's assignment in Korean. I try to differentiate writing assignment between heritage and non-heritage learners considering their language proficiency (Interview 2).

> I often give heritage learners to summarize passage in Korean. But I realized that summary in Korean is hard for non-heritage learners and allow them to summarize in English (Interview 3).

One of the major goals of literacy instruction, Jamie stated that his first priority of teaching elementary Korean is to master Korean alphabet within the first couple of weeks and improve their literacy skills for the rest of the semester regardless of students' prior knowledge of the language.

> My goals in the elementary level Korean are that students will learn the Korean alphabet, communicate their basic needs while studying exceptions (in reading and writing) as much as they can, and understand expressions students already learned in class. It doesn't mean that they have to know all grammar points introduced in the textbook (Interview 1).

However, Jamie talked about the emphasis on the multicultural texts for literacy even in the elementary level once students are familiar with the Korean writing system. It appears that Jamie wants to include a social perspective in his literacy instruction connected to the world beyond classroom. Influenced by the ideas of transformative learning over the years implemented by the university policy, Jamie seems to understand the importance of introducing critical thinking in his literacy instruction. He is trying to provide students guidance and support for critical thinking. While fostering student's effective involvement in class activities or homework assignment, Jamie wanted students to play a more effective role to improve literacy proficiency and reflect on their knowledge about the target language and its culture. For example, when the class covered a topic about pastimes and leisure activities including hiking and trip, a student asked a question almost towards the end of a class whether South Koreans could visit or travel North Korea. Since the student already knew it is possible for American citizens to visit North Korea, Jamie made a clear contrast by pointing out that it is extremely difficult for South Koreans to travel to North Korea. Then Jamie asked back in English to the students the reason in order to foster critical thinking on inter-Korean relations and human right issues in North Korea. Acknowledging the importance of critical reflection and transformative learning experiences, Jamie claimed that broad

materials and various multimodal texts inspiring students to become more creative and engaged should be introduced with social and cultural contexts for transformative learning.

> Korean sitcom, "Hello, Francesca," which is a popular Korean TV show I use several scenes from for class, touches some social issues related to minority or people who are marginalized in the society. … It is very interesting and also meaningful because it makes viewers think of our tolerance in different race and life styles. ... It takes time to get to know people with different background and lifestyle and eventually tolerate all differences. This is what I emphasize most to my students throughout a semester (Interview 3).

In order to foster the connections between individual learners and their community or their real life situations, it appears that Jamie tried to engage in deeper conversations with KHLLs about several social issues such as inequality and intolerance depicted in TV shows based upon his understanding of KHLLs' language proficiency and interests in Korean culture. However, he also indicated that there are challenges to use the various authentic materials for literacy instruction.

> Conversations from TV shows are not too difficult to understand when reading along with scripts. But conversations from sitcoms are more challenging to comprehend even with scripts since viewers should have cultural background knowledge to fully understand the conversations. Sitcom is hard to appreciate unless viewers share the same culture (Interview 3).

Exploring his own answer to the role of foreign language teacher's role in a college classroom where Jamie often described as the academic setting in higher education, Jamie is finding a path for his own role, which can significantly affect the life of college students while fostering transformative learning as a worthwhile teaching

approach. As he gained more teaching experiences and confidence in teaching, he has been struggling to search for an answer to the question of what educational roles Korean language educators play in college classroom. At the end of the last interview, he shared with me an anecdote which happened during one summer class.

> Last Thursday ten students who went to Korea for a year as an exchange student visit my class and talked about their experiences in Korea. Three out of ten were KHLLs who improved Korean proficiency significantly after studying in Korea for a year. … I believe that those students have changed their perspectives on different culture and their changes are related to the transformative learning in a way. … Visiting my class and talking about their experiences to my students, they became active members of learning community and its members connecting their knowledge to their everyday life (Interview 5).

4.5 Summary

This present study has posed three research questions in order to shed a light on a novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs and practices. While the previous sections discussed the findings of this investigation in relation to each of these questions, a summary of the findings can be found in the following section at Table 8.

In this chapter participant's beliefs and classroom practices regarding literacy instruction of a novice Korean language teacher are explored in an elementary Korean course in a college. Participant's literacy beliefs and instructional practices were identified by LOS and classroom observation as a constructivist teacher. However, some observed practices such as choral repetition, structure analysis focusing on grammar structure, and translation did not align with participant's literacy beliefs. The participant took more traditional or eclectic approach for KFLLs whereas more constructivist

approach for KHLLs providing more authentic materials and real-life tasks. The participant also stated a firm belief in the positive role of KHLLs and the importance of transformative learning in a beginning level language classroom. Despite overall congruence between literacy beliefs and practices, Jamie's literacy instruction toward KFLLs did not always align with his beliefs and seemed to be in a state of transition because of gradual changes in student population and needs.

Table 8. Summary of Study

	Study Findings on Literacy
RQ01: What literacy beliefs does a novice Korean language teacher hold about literacy instruction?	• Self-report survey, Literacy Orientation Survey (LOS) results show that the participant's literacy beliefs as traditional whereas practice score as constructivist. • Overall scores on LOS identified the participant's orientation on beliefs as a constructivist teacher. • Possible explanations for the inconsistency in literacy orientation and practice orientation are participant's own language learning experiences, educational background, and student population.
RQ02: 2. How does a novice Korean language teacher put literacy beliefs into practice in his classroom? And to what extent are novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs about Korean as a Second Language (KSL) aligned with his literacy instruction?	• Structure analysis had been employed for literacy instruction to practice how to read and write in class and on homework assignments, but removed to meet students' needs. • Many traditional activities such as reading aloud and spelling check were often used to make sure the mastery of Korean alphabet for elementary Korean. • Some observed practices such as student-centered group activities aligned with participant's literacy beliefs, but not all. • Identified as a constructivist teacher, constructivist activities such as small group activities, role-play, and interview were also often implemented for students to develop literacy skills. • In addition to written texts from a textbook, various multimodal texts were used in classroom to foster multiliteracies and transformative learning.
RQ03: How does a novice Korean language teacher conduct literacy instruction differently for KHLLs in the mixed classroom of HLLs and non-HLLs?	• Differentiated instruction was prepared and provided to KHLLs and KFLLs: additional, more challenging, or more connected to everyday life assignments were given to KHLLs. • KHLLs acted as a mediator and community builder to promote literacy working with KFLLs in a group. • The participant took more constructivist approach for KHLLs who providing more authentic materials and real-life tasks whereas more traditional or eclectic approach for KFLLs.

CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This research examined a novice Korean teacher's literacy beliefs and practices in the classroom of both HLLs and non-HLLs. The purpose of this chapter is to link the literature review and findings from this case study to research questions. Discussion of the findings in terms of incongruence between literacy beliefs and practices, the possibility for wider acceptance of multimodal texts, and multiliteracies in the college-level Korean language classroom are included. Implications for in-service teachers' professional development with a focus on heritage language learners are presented in addition to literacy beliefs and practices on HL education. Explanations of the conclusions based on the findings from this research are addressed. And lastly, limitations and reflections of the study are also presented.

5.1 Discussion of Findings

This study was an initial attempt to examine and describe novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs and practices in college-level Korean classroom. The results of this study indicate that the novice teacher appeared to hold a constructivist viewpoint on overall literacy beliefs. This implies that literacy instruction of the participant teacher is characterized by constructivist reading methods such as integrated instruction and a holistic view of literacy considering language learners as active meaning-makers (Lenski et al., 1998). The results also show overall congruence between participant's literacy beliefs and practices in his elementary Korean class.

However, when closely focused on KFLLs limited correspondence between participant teacher's beliefs and practices toward KFLLs was observed in classroom instruction.

5.1.1 Participant teacher's Literacy Beliefs and Practices

The statements in this section are to examine and describe the first research questions about novice Korean language teacher's beliefs regarding literacy and instructional practices. The LOS identified starting points for the study of novice Korean language teacher's literacy beliefs and instructional practices. As a primary finding from the LOS, the results showed that traditional viewpoint for the participant's literacy beliefs score whereas practice score reflected constructivist approaches. This discrepancy between the two scores led to his overall score combined both beliefs and practice scores on the LOS to fall on the very edge between an eclectic orientation and a constructivist orientation. Possible explanations for this finding are a) university policy on learning and teaching framework, b) participant's educational background from MA training in TESL, and c) Korean language students' challenges with basic proficiency.

The researcher investigated how the participant held the incongruent viewpoints, which is critical to know for an in-depth understanding of teacher's beliefs. Interviews and classroom observations revealed that personal experiences both with teaching and as a learner were the most frequently cited sources of evidence for the incongruent viewpoints. The participant reflected on the survey result and suggested that his own language learning experiences as a student seemed to affect his literacy beliefs. When the participant learned English during secondary education, the grammar translation

approach was heavily used in Korea. While findings show that the participant holds a traditional viewpoint, Jamie gained much knowledge on language teaching and adult education from his previous MA training and experience at TESL program. Therefore, he may have responded to the LOS survey as he thinks effective teachers should answer (Olson & Stinger, 1994). It has been suggested that the use of self-report instruments to assess teachers' literacy beliefs and practices, such as the LOS might be a factor related to inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and practices (Isikoglu et al., 2009; Richardson et al., 1991). The LOS result regarding the congruency of teachers' beliefs and practices confirms the importance of supplementary measures such as interview and observation to verify the results obtained from self-report measures.

In addition to possible influences on the LOS results, Jamie's MA training in TESL heavily influenced Jamie's overall literacy beliefs and played an important role in implementing literacy instruction. While employing a structure analysis classroom pedagogical practice and explaining grammar in English as he was trained to do in TESL, 25% of Jamie's classroom instruction was given in Korean, mostly for reading aloud and some pair/group activities. This frequent use of English is atypical and considered low target language usage in the field of Korean language education and by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). It is suggested that the participant's educational background in TESL is closely related to this frequent use of English, an aspect of his educational background, which is now out of date. This low usage of the target language implies that Jamie's TESL training is not the same as training for Korean or maybe not appropriate for other languages such as LCTLs.

It has been also suggested that other external factors inherent to his particular teaching context such as school administration and educational framework were deemed to influence teachers' beliefs (Duffy, 1985; Duffy & Anderson, 1982). Since transformative learning was playing an important role as one of major learning objectives and a framework at the university, the participant's instruction might be influenced by the framework and reflected on the survey result. This implies that participant teacher's beliefs and his practices may not always be congruent with each other but associated with the organizational culture at the college (Graden 1996; Kuo, 2008).

5.1.2 Implementation of Literacy Practices

In addition, the relationship between the participant teacher's beliefs and his practices, the second purpose of this study was to examine and describe novice Korean language teacher's literacy practices in classroom. Through the second research question, the researcher examined the participant's implementation of literacy beliefs into actual classroom instruction.

The participant's overall literacy beliefs are more supportive of a constructivist viewpoint to literacy instruction and mostly congruent with his practices. Constructivist activities such as small group activities, role-play, and interview were also often implemented for students' development in literacy skills. This study uncovered that observed practices such as student-centered group activities and the use of various authentic materials aligned with participant's literacy beliefs, but not always. It is

understandable that traditional literacy instruction such as reading aloud and spelling checks were used to target the mastery of the Korean alphabet for elementary-level students. It is noteworthy that direct instruction of literacy skills such as structure analysis, which is closer to a traditional viewpoint with the emphasis on grammar structure and grammatical analysis of given discourses, was often employed to check students' understanding of the target language during the fall semester. Korean language students' challenges with basic proficiency were deemed the rationale Jamie provided for this grammar-focused structure analysis activity and to explicitly teach literacy skills.

Although this present study was conducted for a relatively short time period during a second half of fall semester as well as one week of summer session, a significant, if not evolutionary, change was observed in the participant's literacy beliefs and practices within the observation period. Structure analysis activity was removed after serious considerations were given to meet students' needs over the year. This critical change reflects the participant's recognition of various factors on students' diversified needs and language backgrounds. Interview data showed an increased awareness of learner differences and need for a different approach from those that made his literacy instructions. The participant underwent a process of modification, searching for balance in his literacy beliefs and practices. Concerning the change in instructional practices, scholars have found that school and classroom context affects the consistency of teachers' practices and beliefs (Duffy & Anderson, 1984; Lu & Lavadenz, 2014).

It was also observed that the participant worked hard to implement a wide range of literacy activates including cultural and digital literacy and used multimodal texts besides print from a textbook in order to foster multiliteracies and transformative learning. These are discussed later in this chapter.

5.1.3 KHLLs' Presence in the Mixed Language Class

The third research question concerned the consistent implementation of literacy practices toward two different learner groups in the mixed language class: HLLs and non-HLLs. Mixed language class is a class with heritage learners and FL/SL learners in the same classroom. Results from the survey, interview, and classroom observation revealed both congruence and incongruence between the participant's literacy practices toward KHLLs and KFLLs. First of all, the participant prepared and provided differentiated instruction to KHLLs and KFLLs for effective teaching as many researchers suggested (Potowski and Carreira, 2004; Romero, 2000; Wilkinson, 2010). For example, additional, more challenging or real-life like assignments were given to KHLLs concerning HLLs' linguistic skills and learning goals. Since Jamie was aware of HLLs' interests and struggles in literacy skills, the participant teacher implement more constructivist activities in his literacy practices in order to accommodate heritage learners' needs. In addition, the participant constantly emphasized KHLLs' role as a mediator and community builder to promote literacy skills when KHLLs were working with KFLLs in pair/group activities. Because of the KHLLs' presence in the mixed class of heritage and non-heritage learners, it appears that Jamie provided more opportunities

to improve literacy skills in meaningful contexts and for authentic purposes such as online chatting and messages on SNS. He made an effort to first help KHLLs to acquire essential literacy skills beyond the technical level then encouraged HLLs to help their peer KFLLs improve literacy skills. Based on classroom observations, constructivist activities, in which KHLLs could interact with KFLLs and use the target language in real-life situations in and out of classroom, were provided throughout the research period. It is encouraging to know that the presence of KHLLs enables the participant teacher to adopt new approaches for literacy instruction and implement more constructivist activities in the elementary Korean classroom.

Jamie's literacy instructions toward KFLLs did not always align with his expressed beliefs and seemed to be in a state of transition because of KFLLs' low proficiency and gradually changing needs. Despite the fact that his overall literacy beliefs orientation was identified as a constructivist and the KHLLs' presence enabled him to employ more constructivist activities in the mixed-language classroom, several apparent inconsistencies between stated beliefs and actual practices toward non-HLLs were noted from observational data. For example, the participant took more constructivist approach for KHLLs by providing authentic materials and emphasizing on multiliteracies in real-life whereas a more traditional or eclectic approach such as pronunciations and syllable blocks was often implemented for KFLLs.

Observational data demonstrates that teachers' literacy beliefs and practices are not always congruent and this supports the findings from many previous studies (Foote, Smith, & Ellis, 2004; Lenski et al., 1998). It has been suggested that notable

inconsistencies between beliefs and practices might take place when teachers are in the process of changing beliefs (Judson, 2006; Lenski et al., 1998; Wilcox-Herzog, 2002). Therefore, this finding supports the complexity of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices suggested by previous research (Falcón-Huertas, 2006; Feng & Etheridge, 1993).

Some incongruities found between expressed beliefs and instructional practices carried out in the classroom could be explained in terms of the teaching culture of the school and teaching contexts among many other factors (Graden 1996; Rust, 1994; Schawn & Olafson, 2002). The participant's implicit beliefs, which are derived from his educational background or the teaching framework of the university, are not always congruent with the "real world" practices in the mixed class of heritage and non-heritage learners. The participant seems to compromise his constructivist beliefs for a more traditional/eclectic approach in order to accommodate and facilitate KFLLs' basic proficiency and motivations, which were different from those of KHLLs. This finding of changing in pedagogic and managerial goals for non-HLLs is somewhat different from previous studies because accommodations were provided for HLLs (Romero, 2000; Wilkinson, 2010). It may be too challenging to put many constructivist activities into practice for non-HLLs in the elementary level Korean class. Previous research has suggested that situational constraints such as various student factors like low proficiency hamper teachers from putting their beliefs into instructional practices (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003; Liao, 2003). In the context of teaching two different groups, heritage and non-heritage learners, in the same classroom, differences between

beliefs and practices can be expected and understood as the participant put much effort into providing more effective instruction for each learner group.

Another possibility for incongruence between belief and practice is the existence of multiple beliefs systems: for example, beliefs about multilitearcies in one system may conflict with some beliefs about learner factors in another system (Basturkmen, 2012; Graden, 1996).

5.2 Implications of the Research

The findings in this study have triggered a number of thoughts for the fields of FL education and literacy research regarding teacher beliefs and practices. This section will discuss the implications that this study can contribute to teacher education and heritage language education. The implications drawn from this study could be useful for the reconstruction of literacy curriculum in teacher preparation programs and for a better understanding of in-service novice FL teachers teaching HLLs in their classroom. The discussion about literacy beliefs and practices in the context of FL education and teacher education can provide a series of pedagogical insights into heritage language education.

Novice in-service FL teachers who teach both heritage learners and non-heritage learners together in the same classroom may use this study to evaluate how their literacy beliefs types (traditional, eclectic, or constructivist) influence their instructional decisions for literacy instruction. Being aware of the relationship between teachers' literacy beliefs and literacy instruction can assist FL/HL teachers to reflect on their instruction, and further modify literacy beliefs and classroom practices for more

effective instruction. Teacher educators may use some of the findings from this study to gain insight on pre-service language teacher preparation for the reconstruction of literacy curriculum in terms of heritage language literacy.

5.2.1 Literacy Beliefs and Practices on FL/HL Education

The researcher explored literacy beliefs and practices for pedagogical implications for HL education reflected in the findings from this study. In this section, three main implications are presented and discussed; a) increased awareness of differences among HLLs and non-HLLs, b) broader understanding of literacy beliefs and practices, and c) building new perspectives through critical thinking.

A. Increased Awareness of Differences between HLLs and Non-HLLs

Teaching KHLLs and KFLLs together over several years, the participant reaffirmed his awareness that HLLs and non-HLLs have different language proficiency and needs in language learning during interview sessions as a number of previous studies indicated (Andrews, 2000; Cho & Krashen 1998; Ke, 1998; King, 1998; Polinsky & Kagan, 2007; Wiley & Valdés, 2000). The interview data clearly demonstrate a heightened awareness of the differences between HLLs and non-HLLs as well as need for a different approach for each group. While creating comfortable and cooperative atmospheres for both KHLLs and KFLLs, the participant encouraged the KHLLs' role as a mediator and community builder in his class to foster literacy skills. This finding is supported by existing research demonstrating a HLLs' role to help less proficient classmates learn a

target language and aid teachers as native informants on culture and language (Edstrom, 2007; García & Blanco, 2000; Tse, 2010).

The participant acknowledged differences between KHLLs and KFLLs in terms of linguistic and cultural background as well as everyday use of literacy skills through various modes of communication. Considering KHLLs' prior exposures to Korean language and culture as one of the major differences, Jamie maintained higher expectations that KHLLs would be able to figure out their own roles to improve literacy skills and play an important role during various constructivist activities such as pair/group work, role-play, and interviews in the classroom. It is noteworthy that the participant recognized the importance of HLLs' prior experiences and knowledge, and stressed their positive roles in target language learning with non-HLLs. For FL/HL education, pre- and in-service teacher education should increase the awareness of differences between HLLs and non-HLLs, and also provide continuous training to facilitate peer learning among heritage and non-heritage students.

B. Broader understanding of literacy beliefs and practices for HLLs

Keeping two different student groups in mind, the participant provided level-appropriate work that would help KHLLs and KFLLs progress more quickly. He developed differentiated instructions including multicultural readings, separate assignments, and more challenging literacy tasks. There is a consensus about differentiated instruction in the field of FL/HL education as an effective way to deal with issues of equity and excellence in classroom of HLLs and non-HLLs (Potowski and Carreira, 2004; Romero

2000; Tomlinson, 1999). Based on the differences in language proficiency and cultural knowledge in the target language, Jamie emphasized that literacy for his learners should include a broader understanding of literacy than traditional skill-focused reading and writing.

There are previous studies claiming that a comprehensive approach on literacy beliefs and practices is required to go beyond traditional notions of reading and writing for students (Antsey, 2002; Cervetti, Damico, & Pearson, 2007; Vélez, 2010). In an effort to put literacy skills into use in real life, Jamie acknowledged the importance of the connections between school and society, which KHLLs and KFLLs could develop and improve their literacy skills beyond the classroom. It was discovered that, in fact, the participant involved a wider range of literacy practices acknowledging that his students' literacy experiences were very different from his own because of various new social media technologies and platforms such as Facebook and YouTube. Reflecting on the effects of technology on literacy practices, the participant expressed ideas on the multiple literacy paradigm, in particular the central idea of literacy with its understanding of literacies as social and cultural practices beyond decoding letters.

It appears that Jamie engaged in the process of reflection on how technology makes a difference for his students and how to make technology a better support for literacy practices on a daily basis. The participant realized that technology influenced writing more than reading for his students. This approach appears to support existing research claiming that technology and literacy seem to be more influential for writing than for reading practices (Vélez, 2010). It is most likely because of the challenge in

finding proficiency-level appropriate reading materials online. The participant provided multiple alternatives of writing practices such as messages on social networking services (e.g. Facebook) and chatting apps (e.g. KakaoTalk). He admitted that the way his learners write has dramatically changed due to various communication channels and media. He also acknowledged that technologies are more accessible for HLLs due to their prior exposures to communication through a popular Korean chatting application or Korean websites interacting with family and friends in the target language.

This finding implies that teacher education programs should help pre-service teachers develop a broader understanding of literacy situated in cultural and social context, and learn a variety of informational technologies that students use on a daily basis.

C. Building new perspectives through critical thinking

With his broad conception of literacy practices, the participant instructor has made efforts to promote and improve critical thinking skills though literacy activities. Jamie explained about the value of critical thinking within multimodal literacy activities such as watching video clips from Korean TV shows. Concerning the connections between students' prior knowledge and Korean language, HLLs were encouraged more to develop their critical thinking skills in a dynamic cultural context and facilitate academic language proficiency or subject matter knowledge. This aspect of academic registers in HL learning has been studied and suggested to increase the awareness in academic literacy (Achugar, 2003; Chevalier, 2004; Schwartz, 2003). In order to foster

the connections between individual learners and their family and community members, the participant engaged in deep conversations with KHLLs about several social issues such as inequality and intolerance depicted in music videos and TV shows based upon the instructor's understanding of KHLLs' language proficiency and interests in Korean culture. He indicated that there are challenges to using authentic materials for literacy instruction due to learners' language proficiency. However, the participant expressed that it was crucial to introduce critical thinking skills in literacy instruction in order for students to find new perspectives through their own active learning experiences.

This study suggests that teacher education programs and FL educators should help pre- and in-service teachers understand students' multiliteracies and connect their literacy instruction to language learners' everyday lives in personal and meaningful ways. Recognizing and fostering HLLs' prior knowledge and engagement in their heritage language, culture, and community, teacher educators and HL teachers should pay attention to HLLs' development in multiliteracies through new technologies and multimodal texts found in their everyday lives. Understanding critical literacy and multiliteracies as social practice beyond mere comprehension of texts, teachers need to be prepared and assure in-class literacy instruction to be linked to HLLs' literacy practices both in and outside classroom contexts such as home and community.

5.2.2 Teacher education for pre- and in-service teachers

It has been suggested that teachers' experiences and preparation affect the degree of consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices (Deal & White, 2006).

This implies that teachers' educational and life experiences are crucial factors when discussing one's literacy beliefs and practices (Vélez, 2010). As interviews with the participant progressed, it was noted that education had a lasting effect on the participant's constructions of literacy. Jamie gained much knowledge in language teaching and adult education studying in graduate school. For example, he made references to how he started to employ technologies, critical thinking, and differentiated instruction with his coursework in a master's program. Also, the participant instructor's experiences of living overseas and studying as an international student affected his literacy beliefs. His emphasis on communicative competence over accuracy and in-class group activities of reading and writing over written tests could be attributed to his study and work as a non-native English speaker in several English-speaking countries. As the participant mentioned about his own learning experiences during interviews, however, the participant instructor did not take any graduate course regarding HLLs or HL education during his study at a graduate school. When he started to teach in an elementary-level mixed Korean language class with HLLs and non-HLLs, he regretted not paying much attention to any literacy method courses for diversified language learners during his coursework. This implies that some changes are needed to encourage pre-service language teachers about how to react to students' unique characteristics, special needs, and learning objectives. It appears that FL teachers have been prepared to teach FL but have not necessarily been prepared to teach heritage language learners. Therefore, if FL pre-service teachers take methods courses to identify successful techniques for differentiated instruction and design effective teaching

strategies for HLLs, FL teachers will be better equipped to understand various language backgrounds and student's needs in classroom.

The participant recognized his shortcomings and the lack of in-depth knowledge in literacy practices for more effective FL/HL instructions. For some time language educators requested professional development on HL instruction (Huang, 2010; Schwartz, 2001; Potowski & Carreira, 2004). While teaching Korean language, Jamie stated that he felt he was disconnected from other FL instructors to share his struggles and gain some insights in literacy instruction for HLLs. He hoped for in-service teacher training program so he could learn more about HL teaching and HLLs. However, unfortunately there were few professional development opportunities for ongoing study the participant and his colleagues teaching FL at his college could take. There seems very little support for novice teachers at the college based on what the participant described.

Although there was no in-service training program over the course of this present research, Jamie has been improving his literacy instruction through his own reflection and interaction with the researcher. The researcher discovered that Jamie is incredibly open to new instructional practices in his classroom with new ideas and approaches such as differentiated learning and transformative learning. However, feeling isolated, he has not been able to attend many workshops or seminars for his in-service development mainly because of insufficient support from the department or college. Now he has come to the realization that he need to start to look for professional development opportunities outside his college since he encountered many

challenges and modified his instructional practices in efforts to accommodate different student needs. As for Jamie's current involvement in any professional organization, he is not active in any organizations although he is willing to get more involved with AATK or ACTFL in near future.

While this study examined a novice Korean teacher's literacy beliefs in the mixed class of HLLs and non-HLLs over a finite amount of time, the implications of the findings for future work with FL/HL teachers' pre-service preparation, professional growth, and in-service training are promising.

5.3 Limitations and Reflections

It appears that this study supports findings from existing research and provides questions for future research. By conducting the present study and analyzing data, this study generated useful findings for the FL/HL education. However, I am also aware that this study had some limitations, which are recognized in this section in order to offer a higher degree of credibility to this study.

I believe a qualitative case study with a combination of research instruments is the most appropriate approach to thoroughly investigate a novice teacher and reveal unique information about the case. This case study analyzed data from one participant employing various data collection instruments to capture a larger picture about literacy beliefs and practices: survey, interview, and observation.

The self-reported instruments, the survey or interview, may have provided an incomplete picture to explore wider range of literacy practices. Although the LOS was

adopted to identify participant teacher's beliefs regarding reading and writing, incongruence may be caused by the data gathering means, such that the participant answered to items following his idea of what good instructors should do. However, classroom observation was corroborated with this data in order to increase the meaningfulness of results. For future research, the development of literacy orientation survey for HL may be used to increase FL teachers' awareness of how teachers' literacy beliefs are implemented into practices and to address unique issues HL teachers encounter.

The qualitative research design and case study used for this study has limitations in that the results cannot be generalized or transferred to other populations or settings. Conclusions drawn from data represent the researcher's interpretation of the data collected from a single unique participant. The findings and implications from this study cannot be readily generalized to all other teachers and researchers in the field. Nevertheless, data generated by this study have value in that it may provide individual readers with information that is relevant for their teaching contexts and research.

Another limitation is that the voices of the students were not collected in this study. Focusing on novice teacher's literacy beliefs and practices throughout the study, the heritage and non-heritage learners in the classroom were not queried to determine how the novice teacher's literacy instruction was received, and how it influenced students' literacy development. Learner perspectives should be included for future research in order to grasp the realities that language learners are constructing and discover more effective literacy instruction.

The limited time period to complete data collection at the research site and successfully reach my goals of conducting this study was a limitation for this case study. Observation data from the videotaped classroom instruction provided rich information regarding the context and instructional practices. However, this instrument of observational data does have limitations for providing an accurate representation of teaching practices if there is time limitation. The researcher recorded two classes per week for the second half of fall semester, which was not enough to provide a complete representation of literacy instructions in classroom. Therefore, more data was collected from the participant during the following summer term. While this allowed observation of changed in instructional practice to emerge, it was not a gradual evolving picture, which a continuous time frame would allow. A longitudinal study of multiple semesters or even years can provide more evidence and insights for significant changes in literacy beliefs or practices in the future research.

Although findings from this case study with one participant are useful and valuable for research, another limitation is related to recruiting. More participants can provide more data for future study. The challenge of participant selection criteria and distance to the research site prevented me from accessing multiple informants. Future researcher will benefit from more participants, a mixed group of participants with novice and veteran teachers. The comparison of literacy beliefs and practices toward KHLLs and KFLLs between novice teachers and experienced teachers may provide more insights on the literacy instructions in the future research. I admit that the degree of

complexity of the research findings would have increased substantially if I had access to more participants.

The researcher designed a study about literacy beliefs and practices, framed within the context of novice teacher's elementary Korean classroom. Due to the challenges of teaching and learning of new writing system in Korean writing system, Hangul, which is completely different from the Roman alphabet, the context of literacy instruction could be limiting for both the instructor and novice learners. Students' low proficiency in the target language might constrain instructor's literacy practices differently than when teaching higher proficiency learners. Literacy instruction of intermediate and advanced learners can reveal more perspectives in the future research.

Throughout this study, I have come to realize that one of the most difficult parts of teacher research is to locate and recruit participants for the research. Access to participant and data was the very challenging in this study. Since I know it is not easy to give a researcher permission to observe classes for several of months, I am extremely grateful for the participant's generosity and commitment for the present study. Recognizing the participant's struggles, challenges, and dedication of his time and energy for his students, I could understand his strong passion and desire to become a better teacher through any possible interactions and connections with colleague teachers in the filed. The participant's reflection and constant efforts to improve his instructions reminded me of my own teaching experiences and struggles in the mixed class of HLLs and non-HLLs for the very first couple of years.

5.4 Conclusion

Less is known about novice in-service teachers of the Korean language, who have been teaching KHLLs and KFLLs. The current study attempted to further the current understanding of literacy instruction in Korean by examining the beliefs and practices of a novice Korean teacher in a college-level FL/SL classroom.

This present study had two main purposes. First, it examined and described a novice Korean language instructor's literacy beliefs and practices. The second purpose was to investigate incongruences between literacy beliefs and practices toward KHLLs and KFLLs in teaching and learning of Korean. The results of the current study indicated that the novice teacher of Korean has general literacy beliefs compatible with a constructivist orientation even though in the specific beliefs score fell into a traditional orientation. For most of the instructor's literacy instruction in classroom, literacy beliefs appeared to be congruent with his practices toward KHLLs. However, overall literacy beliefs were incongruent with his instructional practices toward KFLLs because of frequent accommodations for less proficient learners through more traditional or eclectic activities. I would argue that there are several possible explanations of this incongruence: university policy on teaching and learning, participant's educational background and teaching experiences, and the low proficiency of Korean language learners.

These findings pose several challenges for literacy instruction and teacher preparation for diversified language learners since the embracement of comprehensive

and constructivist approaches to literacy is only possible when teachers are aware of their own premises or propositions about literacy beliefs and instructions. This study of a novice teacher's literacy beliefs toward different learner groups suggests that a first step to make changes in literacy instruction and curriculum is to increase pre- and in-service teachers' awareness of the differences and to guide them to a comprehensive approach on literacy beliefs and practices through various teacher development. Findings generated by this study can serve as, not a perfect, but a good starting point to expand the field of HL literacy studies in the future.

APPENDIX A.
LITERACY ORIENTATION SURVEY (LOS)

The Literacy Orientation Survey (Lenski et al., 1998)

Directions: Read the following statements and circle the response that indicates your feelings or behaviors regarding literacy and literacy instruction.

1. The purpose of reading instruction is to teach children to recognize words and to pronounce them correctly.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

2. When students read text, I ask them questions such as —What does it mean?

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

3. Reading and writing are unrelated processes.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

4. When planning instruction, I take into account the needs of children by including activities that meet their social, emotional, physical, and affective needs.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

5. Students should be treated as individual learners rather than as a group.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

6. I schedule time every day for self-selected reading and writing experiences.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

7. Students should use —fix-up strategies such as rereading when text meaning is unclear.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

8. Teachers should read aloud to students on a daily basis.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

9. I encourage my students to monitor their comprehension as they read.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

10. I use a variety of prereading strategies with my students.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

11. It is not necessary for students to write text on a daily basis.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

12. Students should be encouraged to sound out all unknown words.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

13. The purpose of reading is to understand print.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

14. I try to encourage Korean heritage students to find some possible ways how parents can help their leaning Korean in college. (Or I try to encourage Korean foreign language learners to find some possible ways how their Korean friends can help their learning Korean in college)

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

15. I try to encourage organize my classroom so that my students have an opportunity to write in at least one subject every day.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

16. I ask the Korean heritage language learners to share their time, knowledge, and expertise in my classroom.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

17. Writers in my classroom generally move through the processes of prewriting, drafting, and revising.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

18. In my class, I organize reading, writing, speaking, and listening around key concepts.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

19. Reading instruction should always be delivered to the whole class at the same time.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

20. I teach using themes or integrated units.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

21. Grouping for reading instruction should always be based on ability.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

22. Subjects should be integrated across the curriculum.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

23. I use a variety of grouping patterns to teach reading such as skill groups, interest groups, whole group, and individual instruction.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

24. Students need to write for a variety of purposes.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

25. I take advantage of opportunities to learn about teaching by attending professional conferences and/or graduate classes and by reading professional journals.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

26. Parents‘ attitudes toward literacy affect my students’ progress.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

27. The major purpose of reading assessment is to determine a students' placement in the basal reader.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

28. I assess my students' reading progress primarily by teacher-made and/or book tests.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

29. Parental reading habits in the home affect their children's attitudes toward reading.

strongly disagree strongly agree

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

30. At the end of each day, I reflect on the effectiveness of my instructional decisions.

never always

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5

LOS Scoring Sheet

Directions: Place the number of your answer in the space provided. Recode answer for items with an asterisk (*).

Beliefs	Practices
*1.	2.
*3.	4.
5.	6.
7.	9.
8.	10.
*11.	14.
*12.	15.
13.	16.
*19.	17.
*21.	18.
22.	20.
24.	23.
26.	25.
*27.	*28.
29.	30.

*Recoding Scale: 1=5 2=4 3=3 4=2 5=1

Interpreting the LOS Score

Total Score

If your total score is in the 90-110 range, you are most likely a traditional teacher.

If your total score is in the 111-125 range, you are most likely an eclectic teacher.

If your total score is in the 126-145 range, you are most likely a constructivist teacher.

Beliefs Score

If your beliefs score is closest to 51, you have beliefs similar to a traditional teacher.

If your beliefs score is closest to 61, you have beliefs similar to an eclectic teacher.

If your beliefs score is closest to 69, you have beliefs similar to a constructivist teacher.

Practice Score

If your practices score is closest to 51, you have practices similar to a traditional teacher.

If your practices score is closest to 56, you have practices similar to an eclectic teacher.

If your practices score is closest to 63, you have practices similar to a constructivist teacher.

APPENDIX B.
INTERVIEW GUIDE & QUESTIONS

B-I. Guidelines For The First Formal Semi-structured Teacher Interview

1. How long have you been in the US? What is your English proficiency level?

Please tell me about your educational background.

2. Tell me about your teaching experiences. How long have you taught Korean? Have you ever planned to teach Korean? As a novice teacher, what were the challenges for you to teach the language? What kind of difficulties did you expected and how did you manage them over the years? Have you been aware of KHLLs in your classroom before stating to teach?

3. What are the challenges you teach in the mixed class?

How many KHLLs are taking Korean language courses on average over the years in your program? How is their Korean language proficiency in general? What were the challenges to teach them, if there were any?

4. Tell me about your school's foreign language program.

Please describe your classroom in terms of students, class schedule, textbook, homework, and culture activities organized and provided by the Korean instructor. Would you describe how your typical classes were like for the last couple of years?

How many KHL students in your classroom in general? And have there been any changes over the years since you started to teach?

5. Tell me how you conceptualize literacy in general.

6. Tell me how you conceptualize emergent reading and writing in the foreign language classroom.

7. What do you think is a reasonable goal for your students to accomplish in the Korean language class in regards to literacy learning? Any differences between KHLLs and KFLLs for the goals?

8. Tell me what you think a foreign/heritage language teacher needs to know in order to teach reading and writing in the foreign/heritage language. Particularly to KHLLs and to KFLLs?

9. What kind of experiences/knowledge does a foreign/heritage language teacher need to have in order to teach students to read and write in another language?

10. How does your past training (e.g., course work, professional development) influence your classroom practices relating to reading and writing?

11. How does your personal experience in learning to read and write in another language influence your classroom practices relating to reading and writing?

12. What are some of your favorite reading practices you do with students? Why?

13. What are some of your favorite writing practices you do with students? Why?

14. What do you think about using children's and young adult literature or poetry in your class in order to introduce some authentic materials and exposure to authentic Korean?

15. What do you think about using personal and creative writing projects in your class?

16. What do you think about using phonics instruction in your class?

17. What do you think supports reading and writing development in the foreign/heritage language classroom with college students?

18. Do you hear/see students, particularly KHLLs, switch/mix languages in your classroom? What do you think about that?

B-II. Guidelines for Interim Semi-structured Formal Interviews

1. What were the main objectives for the lesson (in terms of literacy instruction)? What kinds of resources do you use to help prepare for the lessons and literacy instruction?

2. In your view what is the most effective way to teach these students (KHLLs) how to read and write in Korean? Do certain activities work better in your classroom than others? If so, which ones?

3. Tell me about any reading or writing event in your classroom from this semester (or the ones from the past years) that was particularly motivating for the students. What made it special? Does it work for both KHLLs and KFLLs?

4. Tell me about any reading or writing in your classroom event from this semester (or the ones from the past years) that did not seem to have the impact you had hoped it would and why you believe so. Does it not work for both KHLLs and KFLLs?

5. Have you modified anything in the way you taught writing or reading in this semester as compared to last semester (years)? Why or why not?

6. Do you hear/see students, particularly KHLLs, switch/mix languages in your classroom? What do you think about that?

7. What is your greatest challenge with regard to teaching reading in Korean and why?

Are the challenges same to KHLLs and KFLLs?

8. What is your greatest challenge with regard to teaching writing in Korean and why?

Are the challenges same to KHLLs and KFLLs?

9. In order to overcome the challenges, what do the Korean foreign/heritage language teachers should be prepared or equipped the most? Did you receive any particular support or professional development from the department or peers? Cons and pros?

10. Have you changed your teaching methods, materials, conceptualization, and approaches in terms of reading and writing over the years you have taught at your school? If so, how? If not, why?

Do you have any accommodation for your KHLLs? How do you provide them? When and why do you provide them?

11. Does expertise and knowledge in English such as syntax and lexicon help you in your teaching of Korean in general? If so how? If not, why? What about toward KHLLs and KFLLs? Can you describe an episode that will illustrate your experience?

12. Is there anything else you would like to share on the development of reading and writing in Korean? Particularly for each KHLLs and KFLLs?

B-III. Guidelines for Exit Semi-structured Formal Interviews

1. Tell me how you think your students' reading and writing development in Korean is going so far this year. What things are you pleased with? What would you like to see change for KFLLs and KHLLs? Why?

2. Who are your most successful learners? Why do you think this is the case? Who are your learners who struggle the most? Why do you think this is the case? What about KHLLs in your class? (Teacher beliefs and instructional practice)

3. What do you think the most important to teach in the beginning level Korean class?

Do you think that learning to read and write in Korean are important skills for your students to learn? Why or why not?

4. Describe how you would ideally like to see students grow in their foreign/heritage language reading and writing development. What do you see, feel, and hear when you walk around your ideal classroom? Two track system or mixed class?

What are you doing in your ideal Korean classroom? What is your role? Why?

What are your students doing in this ideal classroom? What role(s) do the students play? Why?

5. Describe any particular reading and writing activities that you wish you could conduct in the foreign/heritage language classroom and why. What resources would be needed to make this happen in your classroom?

Do you often attend to conferences or workshops for professional development? Do you feel any needs to learn more about KHLLs or change pedagogy for KHLLs?

6. Is there any area of foreign/heritage language reading and writing that you wish to personally explore more deeply and why? If not, why not?

7. You are the only Korean instructor and invited tutors into class. Why do you invite them in class? If you have KHLLs in class, are their role and KHLLs' similar each other?

APPENDIX C.
TAXONOMY OF TECHNIQUES

Taxonomy of Techniques (Brown, 2001)

I. Controlled Techniques

1. Warm-up: Mimes, dance, songs, jokes, play. This activity gets the students stimulated, relaxed, motivated, attentive, or otherwise engaged and ready for the lesson. It does not necessarily involve use of the target language.

2. Setting: Focusing in on lesson topic. Teacher directs attention to the topic by verbal or nonverbal evocation of the context relevant to the lesson by questioning or miming or picture presentation, possibly by tape recording of situations and people.

3. Organizational: Structuring of lesson or class activities includes disciplinary action, organization or class furniture and seating, general procedures for class interaction and performance, structure and purpose of lesson, etc.

4. Content explanation: Grammatical, phonological, lexical (vocabulary), sociolinguistic, pragmatic, or any other aspects of language.

5. Role-Play Demonstration: Selected students or teacher illustrate the procedure(s) to be applied in the lesson segment to follow. Includes brief illustration of language or other content to be incorporated.

6. Dialogue/Narrative presentation: Reading or listening passage presented for passive reception. No implication of student production or other identification of specific target forms or functions (students may be asked to “understand”).

7. Dialogue/Narrative presentation: Reciting a previously known or prepared text, either in unison or individually.

8. Reading aloud: Reading directly from a given text.

9. Checking: Teacher either circulating or guiding the correction of students’ work, providing feedback as activity rather than within another activity.

10. Question-answer display: Activity involving prompting of student responses by means of display questions (i.e. teacher or questioner already knows the response or has a very limited set of expectations for the appropriate response). Distinguished from referential questions by the likelihood of the questioner’s knowing the response and the speaker’s being aware of that fact.

11. Drill: Typical language activity involving fixed patterns of teacher prompting and student responding, usually with repetition, substitution, and other mechanical alterations. Typically with little meaning attached.

12. Translation: Student or teacher provision of LI or L2 translations of given text.

13. Dictation: Student writing down orally presented text. 14. Copying: Student writing down text presented visually.

14. Copying: Student writing down text presented visually.

15. Identification: Student picking out and producing/labeling or otherwise identifying a specific target form, function, definition, or other lesson- related item.

16. Recognition: Student identifying forms, as in Identification (i.e., checking off items, drawing symbols, rearranging pictures), but without a verbal response.

17.Review: Teacher-led review of previous week/month/or other period as a formal summary and type of test of student recall performance.

18. Testing: Formal testing procedures to evaluate student progress.

19. Meaningful drill: Drill activity involving responses with meaningful choices, as in reference to different information. Distinguished from Information Exchange by the regulated sequence and general form of responses.

II. Semi-controlled Techniques

1. Brainstorming: A special form of preparation for the lesson, like Setting, which involves free, undirected contributions by the students and teacher on a given topic, to generate multiple associations without linking them; no explicit analysis or interpretation by the teacher.

2. Story telling (especially when student-generated): Not necessarily lesson-based, a lengthy presentation of a story by teacher or student (may overlap with Warm-up or Narrative recitation). May be used to maintain attention, motivate, or as lengthy practice.

3. Question-answer, referential: Activity involving prompting o f responses by means of referential questions (i.e., the questioner does not know beforehand the response information). Distinguished from Question- answer, display.

4. Cued narrative/Dialogue: Student production of narrative or dialogue following cues from miming, cue cards, pictures, or other stimuli related to narrative/dialogue (i.e., metalanguage requesting functional acts).

5. Information transfer: Application from one mode (e.g., visual) to another (e.g., writing) which involves some transformation of the information (e.g., student fills out diagram while listening to description). Distinguished from Identification in that the student is expected to transform and reinterpret the language or information.

6. Information exchange: Task involving two-way communication as in information-gap exercises where one or both parties (or larger group) must share information to achieve some goal. Distinguished from Question-answer, referential in that sharing of information is critical for the task.

7. Wrap-up: Brief teacher or student-produced summary of point and/or items that have been practiced or learned.

8. Narration/exposition: Presentation of a story or explanation derived from prior stimuli. Distinguished from Cued narrative because of lack of immediate stimulus.

9. Preparation: Student study, silent reading, pair planning and rehearsing, preparing for later activity. Usually a student-directed or -oriented project.

III. Free Techniques

1. Role -play: Relatively free acting out of specified roles and functions. Distinguished from Cued Dialogues by the fact that cueing is provided only minimally at the beginning, and not during the activity.

2. Games: Various kinds of language game activity not like previously defined activities (e.g., board and dice games making words).

3. Report: Report of student-prepared exposition on books, experiences, project work, without immediate stimulus, and elaborated on according to student interests. Akin to Composition in writing mode.

4. Problem solving: Activity involving specified problem and limitations o f means to resolve it; requires cooperation on part o f participants in small or large group.

5. Drama: Planned dramatic rendition of play, skit, story, etc.

6. Simulation: Activity involving complex interaction between groups and individuals based on simulation of real-life actions and experiences.

7. Interview: A student is directed to get information from another student or students.

8. Discussion: Debate or other form of grouped discussion of specified topic, with or without specified sides/positions prearranged.

9. Composition: As in Report (verbal), written development of ideas, story or other exposition.

10. A propos: Conversation of other socially oriented interaction/speech by teacher, students or even visitors, on general real-life topics. Typically authentic and genuine.

APPENDIX D.
CONSENT FORM

Title of project: Korean Language Teacher's Literacy Beliefs and Practice toward Korean Heritage Learners (KHL)

Names of Researcher: Ho Jung Choi

This consent form establishes that you have read and understood what taking part in this research study will involve. Please initial all boxes that apply.

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. _____

2. I understand that taking part is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason. _____

3. I understand that any information that I give will only be used anonymously and I will not be identified when my views are presented to other participants or in any publications and reports. _____

4. I consent to the researcher contacting me for surveys, interviews, and classroom observation for the research study. _____

5. I agree to take part in this study. _____

6. I agree to the researcher having the following personal details for the purpose of contacting me directly to arrange a research interview and classroom observation. _____

Name: _____ Date: _____

Signature: _____

Work Address: _____

Work Phone: _____

Work Email: _____

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