

A NEEDS ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH FOR KOREAN NAVAL OFFICERS

BY

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THESIS

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## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to conduct a needs analysis for the English courses offered at the educational institutions of the Korean navy. A comprehensive survey and interviews were conducted to identify the target situations and tasks for which Korean naval officers must use English. Also investigated were their wants for the English courses and their perceptions of their own use of English. Further data about officers' needs was drawn from a literature review of published books and newspaper articles about the navy. Fourteen Korean naval officers were then interviewed, and a survey of 64 Korean naval officers was administered. A survey of three U.S. naval officers was also administered to achieve triangulation of the data. Through these research methods, six main target situations and 44 target tasks were identified along with the participants' perceived frequency, difficulty and criticality of these target situations. In addition, this study reveals that Korean officers' biggest weakness in their engagement with target tasks is their insufficient speaking skill, in spite of their great desire for improving it. The findings of this study support the adoption of TBLT and the learning-centered approach to ESP by English for Military Purposes Courses, in which not only the language but also necessary knowledge can be taught together for the learners' successful performance of the target tasks.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Since the term *English for Specific Purposes (ESP)* first emerged in the 1960s (Hyland, 2002), the importance of needs analysis for ESP courses has been emphasized over time (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Long, 2005; Belcher, 2009). However, while a considerable amount of research has been conducted on needs analysis of English for various occupations in business, medicine, the law, engineering, aeronautics, and hospitality and tourism, not much useful information about the needs of English for military personnel in general or for naval officers in particular seems to have yet been identified. In this era of globalization, many countries have been participating in more and more cooperative military operations in order to maintain their national security and to deal with shared threats such as terrorism or sea piracy. The navy is a military branch that engages in military cooperation more often than the army or air force because its area of operations is not limited to the territory of a country. Thus, naval officers can be exposed to various situations where they are required to interact with foreigners to carry out assigned tasks, and help for the improvement of their English communication skills is needed. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to conduct a needs analysis for Korean naval officers to determine the information that could support the design of effective curricula for the educational institutions of the Korean navy and relevant syllabi for the English courses offered at these institutions.

This paper is organized in the following way. First, the institutional contexts of the Republic of Korea Naval Academy and the Korean Military Language Institute will be examined in order to understand the necessity for this study. The literature on teaching

methodologies and the previous research on English for Military Purposes will then be reviewed to provide a theoretical framework for this study. A detailed description of the research design for the current study will follow the literature review to provide rationale for the selected sources and methods. After that, the results of research that were identified through the literature review, interviews, and questionnaire surveys will be presented. The findings of this study will include information about the target situations and tasks for which Korean naval officers need English, their desire for the English courses offered for Korean naval officers and deficiencies they feel while performing the target tasks. The implications of this study will then be discussed, followed by a brief reflection, the limitations of this project and suggestions for further research at the end of this paper.

### **The Contexts of the English Education Institutions of the Korean Navy**

The primary purpose of this study is to provide useful information for the English teachers, program coordinators and administrators of the educational institutions of the Korean Navy as well as the English learners who would probably need to use English while serving in the navy. Thus, the contexts of these institutions will first be briefly presented in order to provide background information for this study.

**The Republic of Korea Naval Academy.** The Republic of Korea Naval Academy is a four-year college founded to prepare young men and women to become professional officers of competence, character, and compassion. The curriculum of the institution has been carefully developed and revised to accomplish this goal. While being educated in this college, all students must take at least 6 English courses before their graduation including English Reading I & II , English Conversation I & II , English writing and Naval English. Students

who are more motivated to learn English can choose English as their major and take more English courses. In addition, several special programs are offered such as the Intensive English Program and Special Night English Class, as well as courses to study for the standardized English proficiency tests, TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) and TEPS (Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University). These exams are popular and influential in Korea, so they are offered on weekends or during breaks throughout the year. Many professional native/non-native English teachers work in the English department, but most of them have no experience serving in the navy, or working on naval vessels or on other naval bases. For that reason, even though the students are a very homogenous group who would have the same occupation, the English that is taught in this college is not English for Specific Purposes but general English. Furthermore, most of the English teachers do not want to be assigned to teach Naval English due to their lack of experience using military English and the lack of relevant information for the course. Therefore, support involving information about the students' needs, syllabus models and guidelines (Nunan, 1987) is necessary for the teachers responsible for teaching Naval English as well as any other teacher who needs to take advantage of the homogenous group of students at the institution.

**The Korean Military Language Institute.** The Korean Military Language Institute is an educational institution that provides linguistic and cultural instruction to members of the Korean Ministry of National Defense. In this institution, six English programs for various levels of English learners as well as two programs for each of seven other foreign languages are now being offered. Officers from all the military branches can apply for these programs if they want to learn a foreign language, and the periods of the programs are from 4 to 24 weeks according to the kind of program.

At this institution, a certain amount of class time is spent teaching Military English. However, although most students are officers serving in the Korean Ministry of National Defense, they are not actually a homogenous group because they come from different branches of the military. Thus, due to the great variation in the need for English in the army, navy and air force, the teachers feel frustrated in figuring out what they should focus on while teaching the Military English class. Moreover, there is neither much available information about English for military personnel in general, nor are there useful materials for the officers of each military branch; consequently, it is difficult for teachers to design more communicative and authentic syllabi. For these reasons, it is necessary both to identify what should be taught in the Military English class as well as to help teachers understand how English for military purposes can be taught efficiently.

**Biographical information about the researcher.** This researcher is a graduate student of the MATESL program offered by the Linguistics Department of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Before beginning graduate study at this university, I served in the Korean navy for three years as a surface warfare officer and for two and a half years as an English teacher at the Republic of Korea Naval Academy. Unlike most of the other teachers who were civilians or junior officers (those who complete three years of their mandatory military service as English instructors) I had experience working on two naval vessels and on a naval base. This experience provided me deep *insight* for this study.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

In the academic literature on ESP, many different ways of conducting needs analyses have been suggested depending on each researcher's different understanding of *what should be the foci of ESP programs* and *how to deal with these issues*. For that reason, it is first necessary to determine an appropriate approach to language teaching that would be employed for the target courses before conducting needs analysis. Therefore, in this part, the literature about the teaching methods that gives insights into efficient management of communicative ESP programs will first be discussed. After that, the literature on English for Military Purposes will be reviewed.

#### **A Learning-Centered Approach in ESP**

##### **The appearance of a communicative approach to ESP based on learners' needs.**

From its early development, ESP has been inseparable from learners' needs (see Swales, 1985) because the goal of providing language instruction for learners' specific purposes for language learning is an important characteristic of ESP. Thus, Hyland (2002) argues that it is this characteristic that distinguishes ESP from general English. Similarly, Johns and Price (2014) contrast ESP, which is "based on a careful assessment of a particular group's specific language learning needs and target situation", with "teaching English for no apparent reason (TENAR)" or general English instruction that is "intended to cover the presumed fundamentals of the language" (2014, p. 472). Belcher (2009) argues that ESP practitioners are responsible for "finding out what their learners will likely need (and want) to be able to read, write, speak, and comprehend as listeners to achieve their goals" (p. 3), maintaining that

this is the first step for teaching ESP. Therefore, these are the reasons why Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) describe needs analysis as “the corner stone of ESP” which “leads to a very focused course” (p. 122). Thus, ESP researchers have focused on a great variety of types of needs among a large number of professions.

Traditionally, one of the most famous efforts for taking into account learners’ needs for language learning – in the broadest sense – has been trying to determine the features of the discourse that learners would be engaged with while studying or working in their own fields. For example, Swales (1985), who wrote about the history of English for Science and Technology (EST), introduced Barber’s attempt (1962) to identify the syntactical and lexical characteristics of scientific texts based on a statistical analysis of passages from three American science textbooks. After Barber’s initial study, many researchers expanded the horizons of ESP research from descriptive analysis of the language used in a specific field. For example, Swales (1971) introduced the exercises through which learners could become familiar with the grammatical and lexical features of academic texts. Lackstrom, Selinker and Trimble (1972) illustrated how rhetorical functions influence semantic choices in scientific papers, and Allen and Widdowson (1974) argued for the importance of developing the knowledge of how sentences are used for rhetorical functions in academic writing. This interest in the functions of rhetoric in ESP developed into Genre Analysis (e.g., Swales, 1990). In addition, the field of corpus linguistics has methodologically supported the analysis of ESP texts (e.g., Gavioli, 2005). As a result, plenty of information about the descriptive features of various types of discourse has been provided, and this information is believed to be useful for teachers who are responsible for assisting students with professional knowledge of the target forms found in different areas of language use (Hyland, 2002).

However, this overarching concern with the specific characteristics of texts has been

criticized by several researchers. For example, Holliday and Cooke (1982) point out the problems of linguistically oriented syllabuses such as Munby's (1978) work in which what had been identified through analysis of ESP discourses became the content of instruction. Claiming that the solutions that ESP researchers formulated through the analysis of a sample target text – produced by native speakers of English – are unlikely to be applicable to students in different contexts, the authors caution against the alleged efficiency of this approach to ELT, especially in EFL contexts. In addition, they believe that learners' ability to appropriately use every detail or subtle feature of the language to accomplish communicative functions is not solely derived from the teachers' instruction on the linguistic features. Instead, they think that learners can implicitly improve this ability even without a teacher's specific lessons if they develop their communicative competence sufficiently. Thus, they argue that it is not necessarily required to investigate the special linguistic features of a target discourse or to present them to the students in ESP courses.

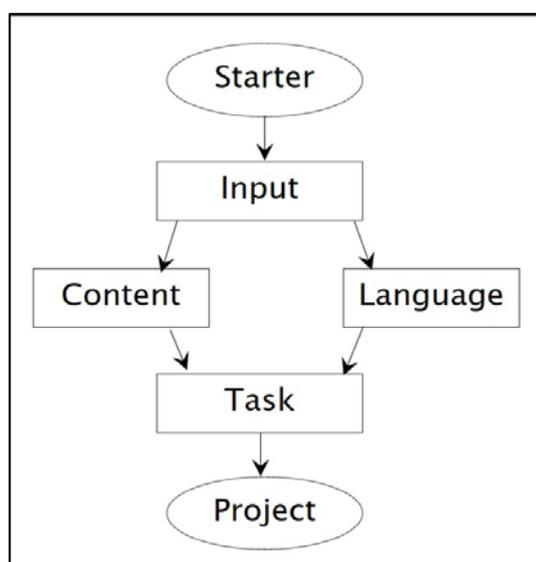
Hutchinson and Waters's stance on the language-oriented approach to ESP is similar to Holliday and Cooke's. They contend that it can be meaningless to present descriptions of the language used for specific purposes, because the language used in a particular field is not significantly distinctive from that used in other fields (1980; 1987). Moreover, they cast doubt upon the usefulness of teaching linguistic patterns of ESP discourses because they think that getting learners to learn those patterns does not guarantee the learners' ability to use them in communication (1987).

Instead, Hutchinson and Waters suggested a new approach, which they call *a learning-centered approach to ESP* (1984; 1987). Under the belief that language teaching should be more concerned with *how to teach* rather than *what to teach*, they devised their approach based on the theories of learning instead of on language description (Hutchinson &

Waters, 1980; 1984; 1987). In order to develop this approach, they suggest a model of language instruction that is illustrated in Figure 1 below (Hutchinson & Waters, 1982). In this type of language class, language is just a means of conveying information and feelings rather than the goal of a lesson. Thus, when teachers provide input after an activity for scheme activation – labeled *starter* in Figure 1 – *content* needs to be presented together with the language. In addition, students engage in *tasks* and *projects* (more developed or complicated tasks) because these activities are understood as tools to provide authentic opportunities to use the language as well as the content. The teacher’s role in the ESP classroom is to lead discussions and facilitate students’ interactions while replicating a target situation. Group work is also highly encouraged in this approach to ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1980; 1987).

Figure 1

*A model of Language Instruction in the Learning Centered Approach to ESP*



Cited from Hutchinson & Waters (1982, p. 110, Figure 4)

**Needs analysis in the learning-centered approach.** In Hutchinson and Waters's learning-centered approach, the role of needs analysis is fundamental not only to the processes of syllabus design, lesson preparation and materials selection/creation but is also the basis for evaluation after the lessons (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Even though Hutchinson and Waters acknowledge the value of Munby's target situation analysis (1978) as a source of providing new insights into ESP, they think that it is neither feasible nor efficient to teach the grammatical structures for language functions that might be required in a target situation, as suggested by Munby (1978) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1980; 1987). Their perspective on the role of needs analysis in ESP is well articulated in their book (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987):

ESP must be seen as an approach not as a product. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need. The foundation of all ESP is the simple question: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? (p. 19)

In the learning-centered approach, they suggest that the role of needs assessment is not just to determine 'what features of a language should be taught?' Instead, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) believe the reason why needs analysis is important is that "the clear relevance of the English course to their needs would improve the learner's motivation and thereby make learning better and faster" (p. 8). For that reason, the goal of their needs assessment is to provide pedagogically helpful information such as students' necessities, lacks and wants rather than information about the target discourse.

Hutchinson and Waters' approach is really meaningful because it suggests a way to

adapt Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1984; Dudley-Evans, 2000). Moreover, this approach embraces many of the advantages of the task-based approach to language teaching. Specifically speaking, it provides learners the chance to be engaged with a negotiation of meaning (Pica, 1994), so the learners can improve their command of the language through noticing a new form in input (Schmidt, 1995) as well as the gap in output (Swain, 2000). Therefore, despite the fact that many years have passed since the publications of Hutchinson and Waters, this learning centered approach will provide a framework for the target courses in the present study.

### **Task-Based Language Teaching**

**The meaning of TBLT.** Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an approach to language instruction in which learners are expected to practice *target tasks* – which are “tasks identified as required in order for an individual to function adequately in a particular target domain” (Long, 1985, p. 91) – while carrying out gradually more complex *pedagogic tasks* – which are “the tasks teachers and students will actually work on in the classroom, at least initially, until they are capable of tackling the full version of the target task” (Long, 1985, p. 92). TBLT also utilizes *analytic syllabuses* instead of *synthetic syllabuses*. The analytic syllabus “presents the target language whole chunks at a time” and depends on “the learners’ presumed ability to perceive regularities in the input and induce rules” (Long & Crookes, 1993, p. 11). This contrasts with the more traditional synthetic syllabus, which “segments the target language into discrete linguistic items for presentation one at a time” and relies on “learners’ ability to learn a language in parts independently of one another, and also to integrate, or synthesize, the pieces when the time comes to use them for communicative purposes” (Long & Crookes, 1993, p. 12).

In a TBLT course, target tasks are identified through *needs analysis*, and *focus on form* is recommended as a way of teaching grammar (Long, 2015). Focus on form means dealing with the grammatical error types that occur in learners' speech or writing as they attempt to use these structures communicatively. However, the concept of TBLT has been recognized and accepted differently by many researchers since Long first presented his idea about TBLT (1985). Thus, there has been a great deal of variation in how the term *task* has been used and how the role of *tasks* has been conceptualized in syllabus design (Robinson, 1998). For that reason, Long (2015) distinguishes TBLT (upper case) from tblt (lower case) in which *tasks* are just used to practice linguistic features of a language – called focus on forms by Long (1991) – and a synthetic approach is adopted for syllabus design.

The rationales for TBLT have been ceaselessly argued in the academic literature. Long (2015) maintains that “the tenets of TBLT are motivated by, and broadly consistent with, the past 40 years of SLA research findings” (p. 8). He claims that TBLT can facilitate not only *implicit learning* but also *intentional learning* for acquisition of *explicit L2 knowledge* through engagement with interactions that are required to perform tasks. According to Long, classroom interactions initiated from tasks can stimulate learners' attention to linguistic features and let them *notice the gap* for the delivery of intended meaning. He also adds that these tasks can provide precious opportunities for producing stretched output, through which learners can develop implicit knowledge of grammar rules (Long, 2015). Another strong rationale for TBLT is the assumed acquisitional potential of tasks that is relatively greater than that of ordinary conversations (Kasper, 2004). This argument was made based on the reasoning that learners have more chances to engage with negotiable work in task-oriented interactions than in free conversations (Long, 1996) so they have more chances of getting *comprehensible input* (i.e., *elaborated input* according to Doughty & Long, 2003). These

rationales strongly support the appropriateness of using TBLT in language courses.

**Applicability of TBLT to ESP.** When it is considered that the most important characteristic of ESP to differentiate it from other approaches to ELT is “commitment to the goal of providing language instruction that addresses students’ own specific language learning purpose” (Belcher, 2009, p. 1), TBLT is not distinct from ESP. Long (2005) argues that language courses designed without particular groups in mind are not only inefficient but also inadequate. In other words, from his perspective, all language courses should have a specific purpose. In this sense, in the kind of TBLT that he proposes, identifying a particular group of learners’ needs is regarded as the first step in the process of designing, implementing and evaluating a language course for those learners. Therefore, it can be concluded that TBLT is quite compatible with ESP.

TBLT also has the advantage of providing a way to avoid the dangers of a one-size-fits-all approach in ESP. Benesch (1996) points out that, in EAP classes, textual hegemony, which was established through analyses of native speakers’ sample texts, has been emphasized so much that the students’ right to have different responses to the texts – such as critiques or questions – have been disregarded. Long (2005) also argues that it is insufficient to teach models of interactions or patterns of texts because the language, skills and texts required to accomplish target tasks vary greatly according to the situations a learner would be located in. Moreover, he adds that these models or patterns of discourse samples from native English speakers are not applicable to ESL learners who have their own beliefs, practices and ways of speaking according to the culture of their native discourse community. Regarding this problem, Doughty and Long (2003) claim that adopting the planning methodologies used in TBLT – specifically, assessing learners’ needs, employing an analytic syllabus and providing elaborated input – is an appropriate way of providing students with individualized

instruction. This is also the reason why Gimenez (2001) suggests that employing a task-based approach could be better than providing formulaic representations of business negotiations for teaching cross-cultural business negotiations.

Another advantage of employing TBLT in ESP is that TBLT is compatible with Content-Based Language Teaching (CBLT), which has already been widely employed in ESP courses. After comparing the rationales for CBLT presented by Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) with the rationales that underpin TBLT, Huh (2006) contends that CBLT and TBLT have been developed based on almost identical foundations. Nunan (2004) also maintains that the task-based approach (e.g., TBLT) seems similar to CBLT because both of them are not only realizations of the philosophy of CLT but are also dependent on analytic syllabuses. Thus, the fact that TBLT can be used efficiently as a way of implementing CBLT further supports the usefulness of TBLT in ESP courses.

**Task-Based needs analysis.** The importance of task-based needs analysis is well demonstrated in the procedure for implementing TBLT. Robinson (1998) describes several steps to be taken in developing a TBLT program based on the literature (Long, 1985; 1997; Long & Crookes, 1993): (a) conducting a needs analysis to identify the target, real world tasks; (b) classifying the target tasks into types or superordinate categories; (c) deriving pedagogic tasks from the target tasks; (d) sequencing the pedagogic tasks to form a syllabus; (e) implementing the program with appropriate methodology and pedagogy (including focus on form).<sup>1</sup> In this procedure, needs analysis is the first step in implementation of TBLT and significantly influences the steps that follow.

In needs analysis for TBLT, the unit of analysis should be *task*. Long (2005) claims

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<sup>1</sup> Note: according to Long (1993; 2015) there is an additional step after these: (f) assessing students' achievement using task-based, criterion-referenced performance tests.

that “the new approaches to second and foreign language instruction require NAs (needs analyses) to be conducted using units of analysis that are compatible with the ensuing syllabus specification, methodology, materials and assessment, and all approaches to NA” (p. 22). Because Long and Crookes (1993) argued that task is the most appropriate element for the unit of a syllabus, Long’s argument (2005) means that, when the unit of needs analysis is also task, the needs identified through the needs analysis can be usefully exploited for syllabus design.

Hutchinson and Waters’s learning-centered approach to ESP and Long’s TBLT do not make totally distinct arguments about how to manage a language class. In both approaches, language is regarded as a vehicle for interactions rather than as the subject matter of analysis. Use of tasks is also emphasized under the belief that tasks guide students to practice using the target language and facilitate their language learning process. In addition, in both, needs analysis is considered a crucial step for designing a syllabus that can increase learners’ interest and motivation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 2001). However, while TBLT adopts task as the unit of syllabus design, in the learning-centered approach, topic is the unit of syllabus. Moreover, while TBLT first engages students with tasks without presenting the language, in the learning-centered approach, the language is presented first through teaching materials, and then students are asked to carry out tasks using the provided input.

Thus, because various types of English courses are offered in the educational institutions of the Korean navy, and the contexts in which teachers would be placed while teaching the courses would vary greatly, it would be best to choose between TBLT and the learning-centered approach to ESP according to the teacher’s judgment rather than to reject one of them. In addition, because TBLT and the learning-centered approach complement each other, both of them can be efficiently exploited according to changing circumstances in a

class. Therefore, the primary aim of the needs analysis in this study will be to provide useful information for implementing the learning-centered approach to ESP as well as TBLT.<sup>2</sup>

### **Literature on English for Military Purposes**

The significance of naval officers' ability to be able to communicate with foreigners is argued by Lemieux (1966). Pointing out the false belief among U.S. naval officers that they do not need to learn foreign languages because English is the international language, he contends that this belief is undesirable for naval officers who need to promote friendship in a world divided by strong nationalistic feelings. He also argues that it is important for naval officers to learn a foreign language, claiming that an officer's foreign language ability can influence the performance of his or her duties, which "may determine the fate of his own country as well as that of foreign nations looking to us (the U.S.) for leadership" (p. 634).

Several researchers have focused on the features of military discourse. Fuiorea (2010) tried to examine the pragmatic aspects of military language by analyzing the written English texts used in the media. She reveals how the principles and maxims introduced in pragmatic theories are employed in military discourse to accomplish speakers' goals. In addition, she illustrates the particular pragmatic features of military English that are distinct from those in other domains. Lee, Shin and Lee (2012) tried to draw meaningful implications for teaching Military English from a military English corpus built from the transcripts of 26 war movies and 109 episodes of TV war dramas. Their study shows what words are used frequently in

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<sup>2</sup> Even though the procedures for implementing TBLT and the learning-centered approach to ESP are described in this literature review, they are just idealizations of language instruction. Pointing out that what actually happens in the real world classroom is different from ideal models of class management, Markee (2015) argues that a cycle of curriculum design, implementation and evaluation should be ceaselessly iterated while a language course proceeds. Similarly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argued that needs analysis is "not a once-and-for-all activity" but "a continuing process, in which the conclusions drawn are constantly checked and re-assessed" (p. 59). Both of these claims support that "effective NA (needs analysis) is continuous and cyclical, rather than sporadic" (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2014, p. 157).

military discourse. Their study also presents how the words used in ordinary conversations among civilians are used distinctively in military discourse. However, although both Fuiorea (2010) and Lee et al. (2012) tried to investigate the linguistic features of military discourse, their sources for data are weak. The raw data for Fuiorea's analysis are from newspaper articles about the U.S. armed forces or from politicians' addresses about military actions taken by the United States. The source for the corpus in Lee et al.'s study is the transcripts of war movies and dramas on TV. Thus, it is difficult to acknowledge that their studies disclose the features of authentic military discourses.

Military personnel's attitudes toward English and English learning have also been examined in the literature. Zafarghandi and Jodai (2012) investigated how English learners studying at an Iranian military university felt about English and learning English. After administering a survey questionnaire of 34 Iranian military university students, they conclude that the learners who would work in military organizations in Iran learn English mainly for its utilitarian value. This result indicates that these learners' integrative motivation is not much stimulated in the Iranian military university setting. Moreover, they disclose that the military university students have less positive attitude toward English and English learning than other civilian university students who would have other occupations in Iran after graduation. Chen (2009) probed the reasons why cadets in the Republic of China Military Academy felt difficulties speaking English. Based on results of his survey of 16 cadets, he argues that the learners feel difficulties speaking English due to their lack of confidence, fluency and knowledge of vocabulary. The researcher then adds that the difficulties are due to learners' insufficient practice and shyness as well as the environmental factors of Taiwan that make it difficult to find chances to communicate in English. However, while these studies demonstrate how learners in military organizations in EFL contexts perceive English or

English learning, they do not offer useful information about the learners' needs. In addition, some of the survey questions in Chen's study (2009) are too vague (e.g., "what is your most difficult part of English speaking?" (p. 124)) or inappropriate (e.g. "how do you think to enhance your English speaking ability?" (p. 124)) to draw a reliable conclusion. Based on responses to the latter question, Chen made suggestions for ways to improve the learners' speaking skill, but their perceptions offered few useable points. Therefore, these studies are limited in identifying pedagogically practical and reasonably acceptable implications for syllabus design or curriculum development.

Research on learners' needs for English for Military Purposes programs has also been conducted. Lett (2005) introduced the procedures for foreign language needs assessment in the U.S. military. However, this research is not very useful for developing an ESP program because instead of syllabus design or curriculum development, the primary purpose of this needs assessment was to provide data for establishing foreign language proficiency requirements for the navy's various career fields. Furthermore, the results of this needs assessment are unobtainable because the paper only presents the procedures without the results.

In another study of needs for English for Military Purposes programs, Kushi (2012) conducted a needs analysis of Pakistan military cadets through semi-structured interviews with eleven English instructors who were on-duty Pakistani army officers. However, he only investigated (a) the reasons why the instructors thought they needed to teach English to the cadets, (b) their personal opinions on the importance of the four language skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing (c) their evaluation of the students' English ability and (d) the instructors' ideas regarding ways to improve the students' English skills. For that reason, even though the researcher presented several instructors' short comments on the necessity of

English for Pakistan army officers with brief illustrations of several target tasks (e.g., professional study and written communication), this information is not sufficient to fully understand the complexity of the students' needs for learning English. Furthermore, although the instructors were army officers who had experience serving in the military, the researcher depended only on the instructors' perceptions in order to determine the learners' needs. Therefore, a question could be raised on the reliability of the findings of this study.

Solak (2012) carried out a needs analysis of English for Turkish gendarmerie through two questionnaire surveys of 40 officers and non-commissioned officers serving in the Turkish Gendarmerie, and 30 trainees attending English courses. This study examined the perceived importance of the five language skills, speaking, listening, reading, writing and grammar, for successful performance of given tasks. It also analyzed the subjects' self-evaluation of these five skills and their perceived reasons for learning English. Based on the results of the survey, this study offers information about the subjects' needs in terms of the five language skills. Nevertheless, it is difficult to determine the subjects' target situations or tasks from this information. Similarly, Qaddomi's needs analysis (2013) used a questionnaire survey of 91 cadets studying at Al-Istiqlal University in Palestine. To identify the learners' needs in their future workplace, the researcher depended only on the learners' perception. However, it has been argued in the literature that learners who are not yet familiar with their future work domain cannot be a reliable source for a needs analysis (Long, 2005). Thus, it is difficult to regard the findings of this study as reliable information.

To sum up, although a number of studies have been conducted in the field of English for Military Purposes, many of them are either insufficiently reliable or not very useful for pedagogical application. Specifically speaking, in terms of the studies of military discourse, none have been performed based on authentic military discourse samples. Moreover, these

studies lack practicality because it is uncertain whether learners would really have a chance or need to engage with the discourses that were analyzed in these projects. For example, Lee et al. (2012) analyzed a corpus built from the scripts of American war movies and dramas in which all the participants in the conversations were mostly American soldiers who are native English speakers. Moreover, many of the situations described in the movies and dramas occur in battle. Thus, it is not reasonable to assume that Korean military officers who are not native English speakers would ever have a chance to take part in an actual battle or engage in discourses similar to those delivered in the movies.

Among the research on needs analysis, no needs analyses have yet been conducted for Korean military personnel. In addition, most of the studies either have focused on learners' attitudes toward English learning, or they have depended solely upon the learners' or teachers' perceptions to draw conclusions. Thus, the available literature does not help to fully understand the various aspects of military personnel's needs in their workplaces. Furthermore, in none of the identified needs analyses for English for Military Purposes, has triangulation been implemented. For that reason, none of these studies offer sufficient reliability of the research findings. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct a specific needs analysis in order to gain more practical and reliable information about military personnel's needs for English, especially in the context of Korea. The findings of this needs analysis would also give useful implications for selecting discourse samples for genre analysis for teaching English for Military Purposes (Long, 2005).

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

#### Research Questions

As already mentioned, identifying learners' target tasks for implementation of TBLT is a crucial first step. Because these target tasks offer useful information about learners' target situations, they can be usefully exploited even for Hutchinson and Waters' learning-centered approach to ESP which requires an understanding of learners' target situations. For these reasons, the primary aim of this study was to identify Korean naval officers' target tasks along with the perceived frequency, difficulty and criticality of these target tasks. Such data could be used not only for selecting, grading and sequencing tasks in the process of syllabus design (Robinson, 1998) but also for developing education policies such as graduate standards at the educational institutions of the Korean navy (Lett, 2005). However, identifying only target tasks was neither sufficient to fully understand the diverse needs nor efficient in terms of the cost-effectiveness of a needs analysis (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Thus, it was necessary to conduct a more comprehensive needs analysis in which the learners' wants and lacks (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) were addressed together. Keeping these purposes in mind, the following research questions were developed:

1. What are the tasks that Korean naval officers need to carry out using English?
2. What are Korean naval officers' wants for the language courses offered in the educational institutions of the navy?
3. What are the lacks that Korean naval officers feel in terms of use of English while performing target tasks?

## **Sources of Information**

Various sources were used for collecting the data for this study. The first was a review of the literature that describes naval officers' jobs or illustrates Korean naval officers' engagements with foreign military forces. Second, Korean naval officers were included as domain experts in the setting of the Korean navy. Third, the perceptions of U.S. naval officers who had experience participating in military cooperation with the Korean navy were also included to achieve triangulation of the data.

Long (2005) argues for the usefulness in task-based needs analysis of reviewing published and unpublished literature such as detailed job descriptions or guidance books for employees of companies or government departments. However, because security is highly prioritized in military organizations, neither kind of literature was readily obtainable. Neither could much specific data be obtained from either newspaper articles about the Korean navy or information released to the public through publications such as "The Naval Officer's Guide" (McComas, 2011). Thus, while the literature showed that Korean naval officers had many chances to engage in various kinds of military cooperation with other countries, it was insufficient to determine the specific target tasks encountered by the naval officers in diverse situations. Therefore, most of the needs in this study were identified through interviews with, and a survey of, domain experts.

The usefulness of domain experts as reliable sources for needs analysis in EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) course design has been documented by several researchers (see Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 72; Belcher, 2009, p. 14). In particular, after describing and evaluating how he had used the different sources and methods for his needs analysis for journalists in Catalonia, Gilabert (2005) concludes:

As far as the use of multiple sources is concerned, it has been shown how, although all the social actors of a domain can provide useful information about the kind of tasks that are carried out within the domain, as well as about the language needs they have, it was domain experts who provided the most accurate and reliable information. This supports Long's claim that, if only one source is to be used in a NA, domain experts should be that source, rather than students, scholars, company representatives, or applied linguists (p. 197).

While domain experts have been regarded as valid sources of information, learners, teachers and applied linguists have been considered inappropriate as sources of information for needs analysis which aims at understanding the target situations or tasks of a specialized domain. Belcher (2009) contends that examining learners' current and future needs can contribute to triangulation of the data. However, in the literature, learners' needs are regarded as sources for *means analysis* rather than *needs analysis* (Holliday & Cooke, 1982; Long, 2015). Thus, considering the research questions of the current study, it was determined that the learners' needs (i.e., learning situations) would not be investigated in this project. Teachers and applied linguists are believed to be able to provide more reliable linguistic information than domain experts through analysis of discourse samples. However, although it is worth examining the linguistic aspects of target discourses in subsequent studies, discourse analysis is beyond the scope of the current study. Therefore, teachers and applied linguists' opinions were not investigated in this project.

Regarding triangulation, Gilabert (2005) argues that "the view of how English is used in the performance of tasks would have been partial if different sources had not been used" (p. 192). This is because the needs that are determined from only one party lack objectivity and reliability. Thus, in order to increase the objectivity and reliability of this

study, the opinions from the conversation counterparts of Korean naval officers needed to be examined. Therefore, U.S. naval officers who had experience working with Korean naval officers were also included as sources of information. They were asked what they thought about Korean naval officers' use of English for carrying out their target tasks.

### **Methods of Obtaining the Information**

In order to determine the information at which this study aimed, literature review, unstructured interviews, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaire surveys were employed. At first, the literature review and unstructured interviews were conducted to get general ideas of Korean naval officers' use of English in their workplaces. Then, after designing the interview questions, semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to identify Korean naval officers' target tasks, their perceived wants for the English courses offered in the Korean navy and their shortcomings for successful performance of the target tasks (see Appendix A for the semi-structured interview questions). After that, based on the results of the semi-structured interviews, a questionnaire was designed and distributed to a larger number of Korean naval officers (see Appendix B for the questionnaire for Korean naval officers). This survey aimed primarily at determining the frequency, difficulty, and criticality of the identified target tasks, along with participants' perceived wants and what they lack. Finally, another questionnaire was sent to U.S. naval officers for triangulation of the data (see Appendix C for the questionnaire for U.S. naval officers).

### **Participants**

In total, 78 Korean naval officers participated in this study: three for the unstructured

interviews, 14 for the semi-structured interviews and 64 for the survey. Three U.S. naval officers also took part in another survey to achieve triangulation of the data. All three officers who participated in the unstructured interviews also took part in the semi-structured interviews after the interview questions for the semi-structured interviews were developed. All the interviewees volunteered to participate in the interviews, although no compensation was made. Three dollars was offered for participants who took part in the survey, but more than half of them (n=33) declined to accept it. The process of participant selection and the demography of the participants are described here in detail starting with the interviews and then the survey.

For the unstructured interviews, three Korean naval officers who had been known to have many experiences of engagement with foreigners were contacted. Two of the interviewees were unrestricted line officers (URL) who were in charge of operating naval vessels and could be authorized to command ships or other military units, and one of them was an interpreter officer<sup>3</sup>. Even though interpreter officers' needs were not planned to be included in the needs analysis of this study, it was revealed through the interviews with the two URLs that interpreter officers were usually engaged with the tasks which were assigned to other naval officers in order to provide help for them. Thus, the interpreter officer was interviewed, and he offered valuable information based on his rich experience of participation in various kinds of military cooperation and exchange programs with other navies, and other military branches and civilians from other countries.

For the semi-structured interviews that were designed to identify Korean naval

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<sup>3</sup> Note: *Interpreter* is a career field for Korean naval officers. Young Korean men who have a good command of English can volunteer to serve as interpreter officers under the system of compulsory military service of South Korea. Interpreter officers' term of military service is 3 years, so no interpreter officer can serve in the Korean navy for more than 3 years. Because the number of interpreter officers is very limited, not every single military unit can get help from them. They are usually assigned to work only in the headquarters or major fleet commands.

officers' needs for English, purposive sampling, in which a researcher selects participants based on criteria for ensuring typicality, was made instead of using a more convenient group in order to collect data which would more reliably reflect the distinct ideas of various members of the Korean navy (Long, 2005). Because the majority of Korean naval officers are URLs, many potential interviewees (n=4) were selected from among them. In this process of selecting potential interviewees, keeping the primary aim of the interviews in mind, only the naval officers were chosen who were known to have many experiences interacting with foreigners for carrying out given tasks. In addition, because the interpreter officer who had participated in the unstructured interview had many experiences offering help for URLs, he was also selected as a potential interviewee. In order to gather opinions from diverse ranks, the participants' years of service were considered. Thus, the potential interviewee pool included a junior officer with only three years of service, a senior officer with 27 years of service, and others with an average of about 10 years in the navy. The researcher then personally contacted the potential participants, and all of the five voluntarily agreed to take part in the interviews.

The other interviewees were selected from among restricted line officers (RL) and staff corps officers. The RLs are eligible to command ashore within their particular specialty but are not authorized for combatant command at sea, and the staff corpsmen work to support military operations rather than to directly participate in them. These officers were selected in order to see whether the minor groups' needs were remarkably different from the major groups'. Seven RLs and staff corps officers were contacted, and five willingly participated in the interviews. To sum up, a total of ten Korean naval officers who had been working in the different career fields participated in the semi-structured interviews.

Table 1

*Demography of the Interviewees in the Research for General Naval Officers' Needs*

| Interviewee    | Career field                    | Years of service | Participation in the unstructured interview |
|----------------|---------------------------------|------------------|---|
| Interviewee 1  | URL (Surface warfare officer)   | 9                | ○   |
| Interviewee 2  | URL (Submarine warfare officer) | 11               | ○   |
| Interviewee 3  | Interpreter officer             | 3                | ○   |
| Interviewee 4  | URL (Surface warfare officer)   | 10               |   |
| Interviewee 5  | URL (Submarine warfare officer) | 27               |   |
| Interviewee 6  | Supply corps officer            | 5                |   |
| Interviewee 7  | Civil engineer corps officer    | 9                |   |
| Interviewee 8  | Public affairs officer          | 7                |   |
| Interviewee 9  | Intelligence officer            | 9                |   |
| Interviewee 10 | Engineering duty officer        | 9                |   |

A detailed description of the interviewees' backgrounds is shown in Table 1. Two were surface warfare officers, and another two were submarine warfare officers. One interpreter officer also took part in this semi-structured interview for the reason that was already mentioned above. The other interviewees were from various career fields: supply, civil engineering, public affairs, intelligence and ship engineering. On average, they had been serving in the military for about ten years, ranging from three to twenty seven years of service.

While undertaking the interviews to determine the general needs of Korean naval officers, it was also planned that the same format of interviews would be conducted with several officers who had worked or were working on special billets (i.e., job assignments) for which much use of English was expected. Thus, five potential interviewees who had experience working abroad or in the ROK-US Combined Forces Command were selected and

contacted by the researcher. Because most naval officers are usually required to rotate billets every year or two, when they took part in the interviews, they were asked to answer the questions solely from the targeted billets' perspective and to exclude their experiences in other work places.

Table 2

*Demography of the Participants in the Research for Particular Billets' Needs*

| Participant   | Billet the participant had been assigned to  | Years of service |
|---------------|--|------------------|
| Participant 1 | Battle Watch Captain<br>(A liaison officer in a multinational task force against piracy)                     | 9                |
| Participant 2 | PEP (Personal Exchange Program) Officer<br>(A staff in the U.S. Navy Warfare Development Command)            | 21               |
| Participant 3 | Flagaide to Commander, US Naval Forces Korea<br>(An aide to the commander of the U.S. naval forces in Korea) | 9                |
| Participant 4 | Airport/Harbor Control Officer<br>(An officer in the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon)                | 8                |

A detailed description of the participants in the interviews for the particular billets' target tasks is illustrated in Table 2. With regard to the participants' billets, the first participant had experience working as a liaison officer in charge of mediating the interactions between the commander of a multination task force for an anti-piracy operation and the naval vessels from many different countries that were members of the task force. The second participant had experience working as a staff officer in an organization of the U.S. navy located in the United States. The third officer had served as an aide to the Commander of U.S. Naval Forces in Korea. And the last participant had experience participating in a peacekeeping operation in Lebanon under the control of the United Nations.

The survey questionnaire was distributed to 120 Korean naval officers, and 64 of them (a 53.3% return rate) participated. The participants had served in the navy for an average of 8.48 years, ranging from 5 to 17 years. In order that the study results not be biased toward a certain career field, purposive sampling was conducted. In other words, the number of potential participants from each career field was decided based on the actual proportion of officers working in each career field to the total number of the Korean naval officers. In order to support the reliability of the data, only naval officers who had sufficient experience serving in the military were selected as potential participants. Thus, the survey questionnaire was distributed only to those who had served in the navy for more than five years.

Table 3

*Demography of the Participants in the Second Survey*

| Career field                                     | Number of participants | Years of service |             |
|--|------------------------|------------------|-------------|
|  |                        | Range            | Mean        |
| URL (Surface & submarine warfare officer)        | 46                     | 5 ~ 17 years     | 8.46 years  |
| URL (Navy aviator)                               | 3                      | 5 ~ 9 years      | 7.67 years  |
| Supply corps officer                             | 5                      | 9 ~ 10 years     | 9.4 years   |
| Engineering duty officer (for weapon system)     | 3                      | 9 ~ 14 years     | 10.67 years |
| Engineering duty officer (for ship construction) | 2                      | 9 ~ 10 years     | 9.5 years   |
| Information professional officer                 | 2                      | 5 ~ 9 years      | 7 years     |
| Intelligence officer                             | 1                      | 7 years          | 7 years     |
| Civil engineer corps officer                     | 1                      | 7 years          | 7 years     |
| Medical service corps officer                    | 1                      | 5 years          | 5 years     |
| Total  | 64                     | 5 ~ 17 years     | 8.48 years  |

A detailed description of the participants in the survey is illustrated in Table 3.

Korean naval officers from ten different career fields of the navy took part in the survey.

Among them, 49 of 64 participants (76.6%) were URLs responsible for military operations on the sea, and the others were RLs and staff corps officers (22.7%) who support operations on the naval vessels or shore. This proportion roughly corresponds to the actual proportion of URLs to RLs plus staff corps officers in the Korean navy.

In the interviews for triangulation of the data, three U.S. naval officers participated. Among them, two interviewees had participated in dozens of combined military exercises between the U.S. navy and Korean navy while they were working on U.S. navy warships. Another had had worked in the Operation Division of the ROK-US Combined Forces Command located in Seoul, Korea.

Table 4

*Demography of the Participants from the U.S. navy*

| Interviewee   | Job assignment when the participant were engaged with Korean naval officer | Years of service in the U.S navy |
|---------------|--|----------------------------------|
| Interviewee 1 | An URL in a destroyer of the U.S. navy                                     | 8                                |
| Interviewee 2 | An URL in a cruiser of the U.S. navy                                       | 8                                |
| Interviewee 3 | An operation planner in the ROK-US Combined Forces Command                 | 8                                |

**Instruments**

A series of questions was developed for the semi-structured interviews. These questions can be divided into four major categories: (a) bio-data, (b) target situations and target tasks, (c) wants for military English courses and (d) what they lack in terms of use of English. For the bio-data, in order to protect participants’ personal information as much as possible, the least information about their identities was asked: only their career fields and

years of service in the Korean navy. The participants were then asked to recall the situations in or the tasks for which they had needed to use English to perform their job. When this question was asked, the researcher requested that participants describe the target situations and tasks in detail. Next, questions were asked about their wants for the English courses that were offered in the navy. Finally, the Korean naval officers were asked about their perceived lack in terms of their use of English (see Appendix A for the interview questions).

Based on the results of these interviews, a questionnaire was developed for the survey. This questionnaire was also composed of the same four categories of the interviews.

In the section for bio-data, only participants' career fields and years of service were requested. Then, in the section for target situations and target tasks, closed-response questions were developed to determine the frequency, difficulty and criticality of the identified situations. In the semi-structured interviews, six primary target situations and 44 target tasks that could be encountered were identified. Thus, it seemed inappropriate to ask a long question in order to identify the frequency, difficulty and criticality of every single identified target task because the respondents who felt that their time was valuable could lose interest in the survey while answering a boring question (Brown, 2001, p. 45).

It was also estimated that identifying the frequency, difficulty and criticality of the six main target situations – which required the 44 target tasks – would still be valuable for curriculum development or syllabus design. Therefore, it was determined that only the frequency, difficulty and criticality of the six main target situations would be examined in the survey. Thus, a list of all the target situations with the target tasks encountered in each situation were illustrated in the questionnaire in order to help the participants understand what kinds of tasks they could be engaged with in each situation. The participants were then

asked to indicate the perceived level of difficulty of each situation on a five-point Likert scale: *very easy* (0), *a bit easy* (1), *normal* (2) *a bit difficult* (3), and *very difficult* (4).

However, the Likert scale was not appropriate to measure the perceived frequency or criticality of the target situations. In terms of frequency, Korean naval officers were expected to rotate job assignments every year or two. Thus, there was great variation in the frequency of an individual officer's engagement with foreigners according to his/her job assignment. For example, an interviewee who had taken part in combined military exercises with the U.S. navy many times in 2013 while working on a ship had far fewer chances to use English in 2014 while working on shore. In this case, the officer wouldn't be able to accurately decide which point of the Likert scale he should mark. Therefore, to more objectively measure the relative frequency of each target situation during one's years of service, the participants were asked to rank the target situations in order of frequency.

It also seemed inappropriate to ask the participants to indicate the perceived criticality of each target situation on a Likert scale. This was because, in the military culture of the Korean navy, it is emphasized that every single mission is important to a soldier, no matter how big or small. With this training came the possibility that many participants would indicate that all the situations were critical. Furthermore, a question to rank criticality was also inapplicable for the same reason. Therefore, the question for measuring Korean naval officers' perceived criticality of the target situations, participants were asked to select only the two most critical situations. The reason they were requested to choose two tasks was to make them feel more comfortable, and the request was easier to answer than to choose only one task.

To investigate participants' wants and lacks, the questions originally used in the

interviews were adopted for the survey. All but one were open-response questions. In order to examine the Korean naval officers' perceived English requirement for successful completion of their target workplace tasks, a close-response question was developed and asked to more easily demonstrate the data. For this, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) Proficiency Guideline for speaking skill was used. The participants were provided with descriptions of the ACTFL proficiency levels and then asked to mark the description that depicted the least level of English proficiency required for their occupation (see Appendix B for the survey questions for Korean naval officers).

The questions for the survey of U.S. naval officers were categorized into three categories: (a) bio-data, (b) Korean naval officers' target situations and target tasks and (c) Korean naval officers' strengths and weaknesses in terms of their use of English. In the section for bio-data, the participants' years of service and the billets to which they had been assigned while engaging with Korean naval officers were asked. In the section for Korean naval officers' target situations and target tasks, the list of the identified target situations and tasks that had been determined through the interviews with Korean naval officers was provided. The participants were then asked to double check the list and supply any missing information. In the last section of the interview, open-response questions were asked in order to identify Korean naval officers' strengths and weaknesses in communications with the U.S. navy (see Appendix C for the survey questions for U.S. naval officers).

## **Procedures**

Because of the distance between the interviewer and the interviewees (i.e., the interviewer was in the U.S. while most of the interviewees were in Korea), Internet chat tools such as Skype, Facebook Messenger and Kakao Talk – a messenger program widely used

among Koreans – were used as media for the interviews. The medium for each interview was determined according to the interviewees' preference. Among the total 14 Korean interviewees, one was interviewed through Skype, seven were contacted through Facebook Messenger, and the other six were questioned through Kakao Talk. The interaction using Skype was oral and visual and took place over the Internet video telephone. The other interviews were conducted through written communications. The data obtained through the oral interview included more diverse kinds of information than those from the written communications because this interviewee's experience of engagement included a wide range of target tasks. Therefore, it is difficult to conclude that the different data collection methods used for the interviews yielded different kinds of data. Each interviewee was interviewed individually, and an interview took about an hour on average. All of the interviews with the Korean interviewees were conducted in Korean, the first language of both the interviewer and the interviewees.

Based on the interview results, the questionnaire was formatted on a Google Docs Survey Form. A link to the questionnaire was then distributed to the potential participants via e-mail, Facebook Messenger or Kakao Talk. In the recruitment script that was distributed with this questionnaire, the potential participants were informed that they could voluntarily take part in the survey according to their choice, and that compensation was offered. The recruitment script also included an explanation of the purpose of the survey as well as the process for managing the data that would be attained from it. All the results of the survey were automatically saved in the researcher's Google Docs account.

In the survey of U.S. naval officers, the questionnaire was written in English. This questionnaire was sent to the interviewees' email addresses, and the interviewees returned the questionnaire after having written their answers to the questions in it.

## **Analysis**

In the interview through Skype, the researcher recorded the dialogue using MP3 Skype Recorder. Thus, even though there was video, only the voice was recorded in an MP3 file. For the interviews via Facebook Messenger and Kakao Talk, the researcher saved the dialogues as TXT files. In order to identify Korean naval officers' target situations and tasks as well as their wants and lacks, the researcher carefully listened to and read the interview dialogues.

The results of the survey that had been saved in the researcher's Google Docs account were saved again in the researcher's personal computer as a XML document. He then carefully read the results to determine the targeted information. When analyzing the quantitative data, all the answers to the close-response questions in the interviews were considered together with the answers to the same questions in the survey. For quantitative data analysis, descriptive statistics were used. When the respondents did not choose any of the options in the close response questions, they were coded into the 'no answer' category. Data analysis of the difficulty of target situations employed an internal consistency reliability measure (Cronbach alpha) to examine the consistency of participants' answers to the questions in the survey. As for qualitative data analysis, the answers to the open-response questions were coded into more general, encompassing categories identified through the researcher's examination of the data.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

#### **Korean Naval Officers' Target Situations and Tasks**

Through the literature review and unstructured interviews, many kinds of combined military exercises and multilateral military operations against shared threats were identified. A variety of rescue operations and humanitarian aid efforts performed abroad by the Korean navy were also determined. In addition, several international celebrations and large-scale ceremonies such as the international fleet review hosted by the Korean navy were listed, and other situations in which Korean naval officers must communicate with foreigners in Korea were recognized. This wide range of responses was categorized into six main situations in which Korean naval officers' use of English is expected: (a) *foreigners' visit to Korea*, (b) *operations for coast guarding or maritime safety*, (c) *combined military exercises (or operations) with the armed forces of other countries*, (d) *Korean navy's visit to other countries*, (e) *hosting an international event* and (f) *military education or training*.

In the structured interviews, the target tasks encountered in each of these six situations as well as the means of communication for each target task were identified as shown in Table 5. However, there is one thing that should be noted in this table. Even though target situations were categorized into 6 main situations, it does not mean that these situations always occurred separately. Sometimes several of them integrated and took place simultaneously. For example, when several interviewees visited other countries, they occasionally needed to participate in a combined military exercise with the navy of that country before leaving. Likewise, in a case when several U.S. naval vessels visited Korea, the U.S. naval officers not only participated in a planned memorial ceremony on the shore but also took part in a combined military exercise on the sea after the ceremony.

Table 5

*Target Situations and Tasks Identified through the Lit-review and Interviews*

| Situation   | Task   | Means of communication  |
|---|--|---|
| Foreigners' visit to the Korean navy  | ➤ Cooperation for setting an itinerary   | Email, correspondence, telephone                              |
|   | ➤ Welcoming / greeting   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Guiding the naval bases, facilities or vessels   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Having a meal (usually lunch or dinner) together   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Taking group photos / guiding for taking group photos  | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Participating in a talk (formal or informal communication)   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Tour guiding (around tourist attractions)  | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Participating in a volunteer activity at social welfare facilities   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Taking part in a sports game   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Meeting the naval vessels from other countries near an arrival port and guiding them to the port   | Radiotelephone  |
| Operations for coast guarding or maritime safety                                    | ➤ Making welcoming banners, guidebooks or brochures  | Banner, booklet, brochure                                     |
|   | ➤ Participating in a reception   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Ship inspection  | Radiotelephone  |
|   | ➤ Providing a support to a broken or emergent ship   | Radiotelephone  |
| Combined military exercises (or operation) with the armed forces of other countries | ➤ Providing notices or warnings about nearby military trainings to commercial ships for their safety   | Radiotelephone  |
|   | ➤ Forward air control (Controlling military aircrafts)   | Radiotelephone  |
|   | ➤ Receiving documents  | Naval message   |
|   | ➤ Sending documents  | Naval message   |
|   | ➤ Participating in a preparatory conference for the exercise   | Face-to-face interaction, real time video chatting system     |
|   | ➤ Communicating with other navies while conducting the exercise (information exchange, reporting/receiving the results of exercises, giving/receiving directions for next actions) | Radiotelephone, satellite chatting system, satellite phone    |
| Korea navy's visit to other countries   | ➤ Participating in a debrief conference  | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Taking part in a reception   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Cooperation before arrival   | Email, correspondence, telephone                              |
|   | ➤ Contacting/interacting with a maritime pilot   | Radiotelephone  |
|   | ➤ Greeting   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Visiting a military command  |   |
|   | - Meeting the commander/supervisor   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | - Touring military facilities or naval vessels   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | - Having a meal (usually lunch or dinner) together   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | - Taking group pictures  | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
| - Participating in a talk (formal or informal communication)                        | Face-to-face interaction   |   |
| - Touring tourist attractions   | Face-to-face interaction   |   |
| - Participating in a volunteer activity at social welfare facilities                | Face-to-face interaction   |   |
| - Taking part in a sports game  | Face-to-face interaction   |   |
| Hosting an international event  | ➤ Sending out invitations  | E-mail, letter, telephone                                     |
|   | ➤ Receiving RSVP   | E-mail, letter, telephone                                     |
|   | ➤ Cooperation before the event   | E-mail, letter, telephone,                                    |
|   | ➤ Taking part in the event   |   |
|   | - Guiding the event  | Face-to-face interaction, radiotelephone, satellite telephone |
|   | - Having a meal together   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
| - Participating in a reception  | Face-to-face interaction   |   |
| Military education or training  | ➤ Sending out thank-you letters  | Email, correspondence   |
|   | ➤ Taking a class taught in English   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Asking questions and understanding the answers   | Face-to-face interaction                                      |
|   | ➤ Translating books or documents   | Book, document  |
|   | ➤ Reading books or journals  | Book, journal   |

While identifying the typical target situations and tasks for general Korean naval officers, the target situations and tasks for Korean naval officers' particular billets (see Table 2) were also investigated. The target situations and tasks of the particular billets were distinct from those of general naval officers and generally required relatively more use of English. Thus, it seemed inappropriate to include these situations and tasks in Table 5. However, it was estimated that the identified situations and tasks of the particular billets could be useful for some naval officers who would be assigned to those billets. Therefore, the target situations and tasks for the particular billets are separately illustrated in Appendix D.

**The relative frequency of each target situation.** After the target situations and tasks were identified, this information was presented to the participants of the survey. They were then asked to rank the six situations in order of frequency of their engagement in each situation with consideration of the target tasks that could be faced in these target situations.

Figure 2

*Korean Naval Officers' Relative Frequency of Engagement in the Target Situations (n = 64)*

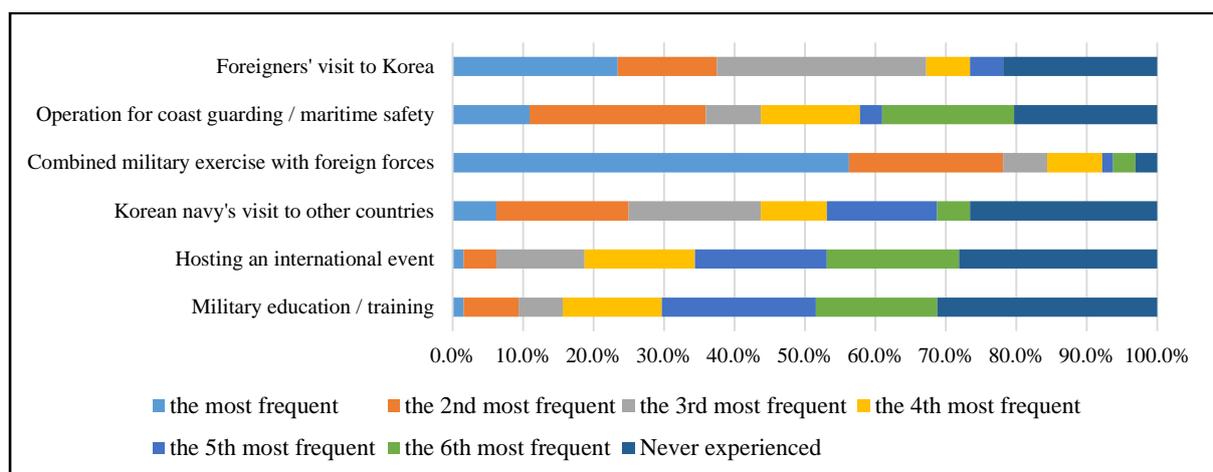


Figure 2 illustrates that the most frequently encountered situation by Korean naval

officers in which their use of English is necessary is when they participate in combined military exercises with foreign forces. 36 participants (56.3%) answered that *participation in a combined military exercise* was the most frequently experienced situation, and 14 participants (21.9%) replied that it was the second most frequent situation. Only two (3.1%) of the participants remarked that they had never taken part in any combined military exercises with foreign forces. The next frequently encountered situation was *foreigners' visit to Korea and operation for coast guarding or maritime safety*. The other situations were less frequently experienced by Korean naval officers.

URLs' perceived relative frequency of the target situations was also compared with RLs and staff core officers' perceptions in order to compare the frequency of those situations according to the different career fields. As presented in Figure 3, for URLs, *combined military exercises with foreign forces* and *operations for coast guarding or maritime safety* were experienced relatively more often than the other situations. In contrast, as illustrated in Figure 4, RLs and staff core officers replied that the most frequently encountered situation was *foreigners' visit to Korea*, while they had not often engaged in *operations for coast guarding or maritime safety*.

One more remarkable thing was found in the URLs' answers as illustrated in Figure 3. Usually, coast guarding against unexpected infiltrations from the North Korean navy is a mission most frequently given to Korean URLs, and they spend many days a year at sea on a naval vessel for this mission. However, these URLs answered that they had used English more often in combined military exercises with foreign forces than in coast guarding operations. Their response means that they do not need to use English in every single operation for coast guarding or maritime safety. Nevertheless, many of these officers indicated that coast guarding is their second most frequently faced situation, meaning that the

use of English in this situation is not rare.

Figure 3

*URLs' Relative Frequency of Engagement in the Target Situations (n=49)*

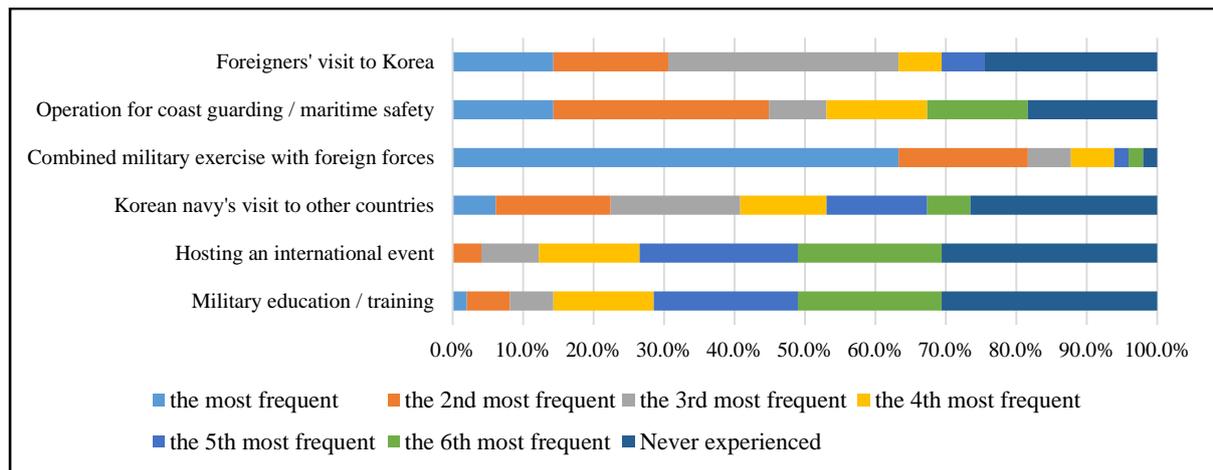
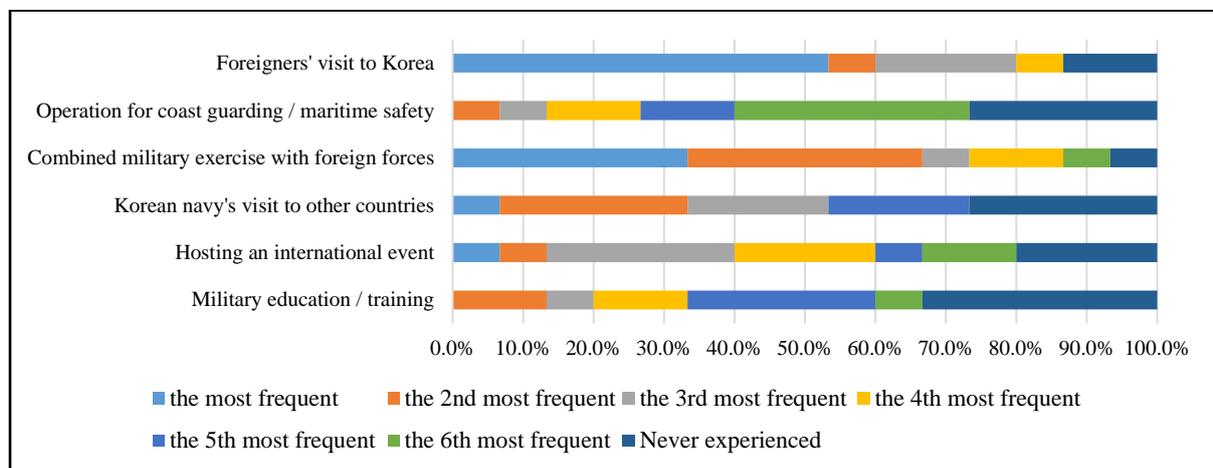


Figure 4

*RLs & Staff Core Officers' Relative Frequency of Engagement in the Target Situations (n=15)*



A naval officer's engagement in a target situation does not mean that he engages with all the target tasks illustrated under a category in Table 5. Instead, if once he was asked to carry out only one of the target tasks that could be encountered in a target situation, he may think that he has been engaged in this situation. For example, if a naval officer only

participated in a reception when several U.S. naval officers visited Korea one day, he might consider that he has been engaged in *foreigners' visit to Korea*, even though he did not performed other tasks entailed by that situation such as guiding the foreigners or giving a presentation. This implies that the findings illustrated above do not inform of the frequency of each target task although they do inform us of the relative frequency of each target situation. Thus, it is not possible to determine from the findings which task is required more often when a naval officer is engaged in a target situation. Therefore, this is a limitation of the identified information about the relative frequency of the target situations.

**The difficulty of each target situation.** Several participants declined to indicate the difficulty of the target situations when they were asked about it in the survey because they had never experienced them. Thus, the number of respondents was different depending on the target situation, as shown in the last column of Table 6.

Table 6

*Difficulty of the Target Situations*

| Target Situation                               | 0    | 1     | 2     | 3     | 4     | mean | sd   | n  |
|--|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|----|
| Foreigners' visit to Korea                     | 1.6% | 6.3%  | 21.9% | 45.3% | 23.4% | 2.84 | 0.92 | 63 |
| Operation for coast guarding / maritime safety | 1.6% | 14.1% | 32.8% | 34.4% | 15.6% | 2.49 | 0.98 | 63 |
| Combined military exercise with foreign forces | 1.6% | 7.8%  | 26.6% | 35.9% | 28.1% | 2.81 | 0.99 | 64 |
| Korean navy's visit to other countries         | 1.6% | 3.1%  | 34.4% | 43.8% | 14.1% | 2.68 | 0.83 | 62 |
| Hosting an international events                | 1.6% | 7.8%  | 40.6% | 42.2% | 6.3%  | 2.44 | 0.80 | 63 |
| Military education / training                  | 1.6% | 3.1%  | 20.3% | 35.9% | 35.9% | 3.05 | 0.93 | 62 |

Cronbach Alpha (a) = .90

Among the six target situations, the Korean naval officers considered *military*

*education or training* the most difficult in terms of use of English. Twenty-three participants (35.9%) responded that use of English in this situation was *very difficult*, and another 23 participants (35.9%) indicated that it was *a bit difficult*. These results might be due to the fact that the participants are exposed to unfamiliar terminologies and complicated contents in their lessons from experts from the U.S. navy or in reading professional books and journals written in English about new weapon systems or naval tactics.

Participants also felt that *combined military exercises with foreign forces* were difficult. Eighteen respondents (28.1%) replied that the use of English in this situation was *very difficult*, and 23 (35.9%) remarked that it was *a bit difficult*. In this situation, Korean naval officers are also faced with many unfamiliar terminologies that are not used often in general English. Furthermore, the styles of spoken and written military discourses are remarkably distinct from those of academic or general discourses with which they may be more familiar. Therefore, it seemed that the participants' unfamiliarity with professional terminologies and military discourses was the reason why they felt frustrated when they were engaged in the combined military exercises.

Although relatively fewer participants indicated that it was *very difficult* to carry out the target tasks when they were engaged in *foreigners' visit to Korea* (23.4%) or *Korean navy's visit to other countries* (15.6%), almost half of the participants (45.3% for *foreigner's visit to Korea* and 43.8% for *Korean navy's visit to other countries*) replied that carrying out the target tasks in these situations was *a bit difficult*. This means that the use of English in these situations is not as difficult as using it in military education or training, or in combined military exercises, but it is still never easy. Between them, it was revealed that *foreigners' visit to Korea* was a little more difficult situation in terms of use of English than *Korean navy's visit to other countries*. This might be because Korean naval officers tend to be

providers of information – probably about Korea and the Korean navy – when they guide visitors from other countries. In contrast, they tend to be more receptive than productive when they visit another country, being provided with a lot of information by the naval officers of that country.

The tasks encountered in *operations for coast guarding or maritime safety* and *hosting an international event* were considered relatively less difficult. Only 15.6% of the participants responded that *operations for coast guarding or maritime safety* were *very difficult* with regard to the use of English, and just 6.3% of them answered that *hosting an international event* was *very difficult*. The interactions in *operations for coast guarding or maritime safety* such as the radiotelephone communications for ship inspection or forward air control are very similar case by case, so the types of information that would be exchanged in these interactions are predictable. Thus, Korean naval officers can use formulaic expressions while carrying out these tasks if they are sufficiently trained to use them, as long as an exceptional situation such as an emergency does not occur. Therefore, it seems that this is the reason why only a few of the participants indicated that the use of English in coast guarding or maritime safety operations was *very difficult*.

The use of English for *hosting an international event* was also not considered very difficult. It is estimated that, among many kinds of the tasks that could be given to them in this situation, many of the participants had been engaged with only the relatively easier tasks such as receiving RSVP's or guiding foreigners during an event. In other words, although inviting other navies or exchanging information with them to set an itinerary could be complicated tasks, it seems that many participants had not been required perform them in this situation because these tasks are usually performed by only a small number of naval officers who work in the navy headquarters or the fleet commands. This is probably a reason why the

participants considered the use of English in this situation not as difficult as in the others.

Another important finding revealed in Table 6 is that overall Korean naval officers do not think that their current command of English is fully sufficient for the successful performance of the target tasks. The evidence of this finding is found from the fact that only 4.7 % ~ 15.7 % of the participants replied that use of English in each situation was either *very easy* or *a bit easy*, while 50 % ~ 71.9 % of them answered each situation was either *very difficult* or at least *a bit difficult*. Thus, Korean naval officers' lack of confidence in their use of English requires further discussion or more attention to solve this problem.

One more thing that needs to be addressed in this section is a weakness in the research method used for identifying the difficulty of each target situation. As illustrated in Table 6, not all the participants had experienced all the target situations. However, several participants who had not been engaged in some of the target situations also indicated their perceived difficulty in these situations. This means that the answers from these participants were not from their actual experience but from their assumption. Therefore, even though the perceived difficulty from assumption might be still useful and could approximate actual experience, the reliability of the findings illustrated in this section is low.

**The criticality of the target situations.** In the survey question for this information, the participants were asked to indicate two situations that they considered most important among the six situations. However, 17 participants misunderstood this question, so they noted down only one situation as shown in the last row of Table 7. Nevertheless, the findings from this question give useful information about Korean naval officers' perception of the criticality of the target situations.

Table 7

*Criticality of the Target Situations (n = 64)*

| Target situation                               | (A) No. of respondents who wrote this situation first | (B) No. of respondents who wrote this situation second | (A) + (B) | Percentage of the respondents |
|--|---|--|-----------|-------------------------------|
| Foreigners' visit to Korea                     | 10  | 0  | 10        | 15.6%                         |
| Operation for coast guarding / maritime safety | 21  | 1  | 22        | 34.4%                         |
| Combined military exercise with foreign forces | 31  | 26   | 57        | 89.1%                         |
| Korean navy's visit to other countries         | 0   | 3  | 3         | 4.7%                          |
| Hosting an international events                | 1   | 15   | 16        | 25.0%                         |
| Military education / training                  | 1   | 2  | 3         | 4.7%                          |
| No answer                                      |   | 17   | 17        | 26.6%                         |

According to the survey, the participants considered that the result of a miscommunication might be the most critical in a combined military exercise with foreign military forces. Fifty-seven participants (89.1%) indicated this situation as one of the two most critical situations among the six. The next critical situation was an operation for coast guarding or maritime safety. Twenty-two participants (34.4%) replied that this situation was either the most or the second most critical situation. To sum up, the participants thought that a misunderstanding was more critical in military operations than in events or ceremonies for friendship or military diplomacy.

**Additional target tasks.** The survey also asked about other target tasks not illustrated in Table 5. One participant noted that he had been required to work on a team with several U.S. naval officers when he took part in a combined military exercise with the U.S. navy. He reported that, in this combined military exercise using a computer simulation program, his team had managed the enemy's virtual military forces, discussing efficient deployments of the military units and available military strategies and tactics from the

perspective of the enemy. He further noted that in this exercise the apposite team in the simulation game – officers from the Korean navy and the U.S. navy – had also needed to discuss in order to find efficient ways to deal with enemy attacks. Another three participants remarked that they had needed to contact or negotiate with foreign companies in the military industry to receive necessary information about weapons or combat systems, or to purchase them. Another two answered that they sometimes had had to read the regulations, codes or rules of the U.S. navy as well as books and journals published by it in order to use them as reference materials. And another participant replied that he had needed to use English when he helped foreign military officers who were studying in an educational institution of the Korean navy while working in that institution.

### **Korean Naval Officers' Wants for English Courses**

In order to identify Korean naval officers' wants for English courses, one open-response question was asked in the interviews as well as in the survey. This question addressed what the participants would hope to learn if they could take an English course, and their answers were coded into nine categories: (a) *English conversation or speaking*, (b) *writing*, (c) *listening*, (d) *reading*, (e) *military terminologies including acronyms and abbreviations*, (f) *the knowledge about the procedures of combined military exercises*, (g) *skills for taking standardized English tests*, (h) *English is not very necessary* and (i) *no answer*. In this process of coding, the answers referring to 'English conversation' were categorized only into *English conversation or speaking*, even though these answers could include the participants' desire for developing their listening skill. Furthermore, because this was an open-response question, one participant's answer could be coded into multiple categories. For example, when a participant noted that his want was 'improving speaking

skill and learning how to write an email,' this answer was coded as both *English conversation or speaking* and *writing*. The results of this coding process are presented in Table 8 below.

Table 8

*Wants for English Courses (n = 78)*

| What the participants want to learn about                     | No. of Respondents | Percentage of the respondents |
|---|--------------------|-------------------------------|
| English conversation or speaking                              | 61                 | 77.2%                         |
| Writing   | 18                 | 22.8%                         |
| Listening   | 18                 | 22.8%                         |
| Reading   | 1                  | 1.3 %                         |
| Terminologies including acronyms and abbreviations            | 7                  | 8.9%                          |
| Knowledge about the procedures of combined military exercises | 1                  | 1.3%                          |
| Skills for taking standardized English tests                  | 2                  | 2.5 %                         |
| English is not necessary                                      | 1                  | 1.3 %                         |
| No answer   | 3                  | 3.8 %                         |

The majority of participants (77.2 %) mentioned that they wanted to learn about *English conversation or speaking*. Several participants whose answers were coded into this category described their wants more specifically. Eight participants remarked that they wanted to be able to more confidently take part in conversations in military contexts. One participant replied that he hoped to learn about giving a military presentation, and another wanted to learn how to have conversations with foreign military officers over the telephone. Another participant hoped to learn how to interact with commercial ships or naval vessels from other navies over the radiotelephone.

Moreover, many of the participants (22.8% for each category) wanted to improve their *writing* and *listening* skills. Among the 18 respondents who hoped to learn about writing,

several participants stated their wants specifically. Four participants answered that they wished to learn how to write naval messages, and another four indicated that they wanted to learn how to write a correspondence or an email.

The fact that the majority of participants wanted to improve speaking and listening skills opens up the possibility of concluding that the participants experienced oral-aural communications more often than written communications. However, two interviewees provided useful information that cautions against misinterpreting this data. One argued that the frequency of exposure to a certain type of communication could vary greatly depending on a naval officer's billet or the context. In other words, oral-aural communication is not always dominant in Korean naval officers' interactions with foreigners. Another participant emphasized the importance of written communication in spite of the fact that he had fewer engagements with it than with oral-aural communication. He contended that, in military operations, various kinds of written communications among military units during an operation were always retained, so accuracy in written communication was really important because liability was usually determined based on the written records of communication when a problem occurred. He added that the use of written communication in military operations had been becoming more and more popular along with the development of text chatting tools available on the satellite communication system. It was thanks to the higher reliability of written communication, that real-time interchangeability of, and greater accessibility to, complicated information was available to many of the participants. This is an example of technology influencing the emergence and development of a new genre (see Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

Another interviewee emphasized the importance of listening skill, especially when an interpreter was engaged in a task. He explained that because interpreter officers did not have

sufficient understanding of military operations or weapon systems, many misunderstandings occurred when Korean naval officers depended too much on interpreters while interacting with foreign military officers. Therefore, he claimed that naval officers should be able to understand the main points not only of their conversation partner's speeches but also of the interpreter's interpretations while communicating with a foreigner. According to him, by doing so, Korean naval officers could understand the conversation partner's real intentions more easily as well as prevent any miscommunication.

**Wants for knowledge besides linguistic knowledge.** Johns & Price-Machado (2001) claim that it is really important for ESP practitioners to choose appropriate input content for classes because the efficiency of teaching ESP really depends on selecting proper materials. Therefore, one aim of the interviews and surveys was to identify the content that Korean naval officers need to learn for more successful performance of the target tasks.

Thirty-nine participants indicated that they wanted to know more about the U.S. navy. To be more specific, what they hoped to learn included the culture, organization, capabilities and limitations of the U.S. navy as well as their ways of conducting military operations. These participants wanted to understand the U.S. navy because Korean naval officers have many more chances for engagement with the U.S. navy than with any other due to the fact that the U.S. is the only official military ally of Korea.

Another ten participants reported that they felt that more general understanding about the countries from which their conversation partners came was necessary. These participants' interest was not limited to the knowledge of the navy or the military organizations of these countries. Instead, they thought that knowing about their conversation partners' overall society or culture would be beneficial not only for understanding them but also for building

close relationships with them.

Seven participants thought that they needed more understanding of the Operation Plans that illustrate in detail the processes of cooperation between the Korean navy and the U.S. navy in various kinds of situations. Another two participants argued for the necessity for general understanding of engineering or oceanography to help them comprehend the basic principles of ship operation.

### **Korean Naval Officers' Perceived Lacks in Terms of Use of English**

To determine Korean naval officers' perceived lack of skill using English, one open-response question was asked of both interviewees and participants of the survey. For easier illustration of the identified data, their answers were sorted into 7 categories: (a) *speaking*, (b) *writing*, (c) *listening*, (d) *reading*, (e) *vocabulary*, (f) *grammar* and (g) *understanding of the procedures of combined military operations*. A few participants answered that (g) they *had never felt a lack*, and others (h) *did not respond* to this question, so these responses also became categories. Like the questions for identifying the participants' wants for English courses, this question was also open-response. Thus, many of the answers included a participant's shortcomings in more than one area, so these responses were coded into multiple categories. For example, one answer that revealed a participant's lack of confidence in speaking and in understanding how to write a naval message was coded not only into the *speaking* category but also into the *writing* category. The results of this data analysis are presented in Table 9 below.

Table 9

*Perceived Lacks in Terms of Use of English (n=78)*

| Lack in use of English  | No. of Respondents | Percentage of the respondents |
|---|--------------------|-------------------------------|
| Speaking  | 42                 | 53.2 %                        |
| Writing   | 11                 | 13.9 %                        |
| Listening   | 11                 | 13.9 %                        |
| Reading   | 2                  | 2.5 %                         |
| Vocabulary (Military terminologies)                             | 8                  | 10.1 %                        |
| Grammar   | 1                  | 1.3 %                         |
| Understanding of the procedures of combined military operations | 2                  | 2.5 %                         |
| Never felt lacks  | 2                  | 2.5 %                         |
| No answer   | 9                  | 11.4 %                        |

More than half of the participants (42 people, 53.2 %) in the interviews and the survey mentioned that they felt difficulties in *speaking* while conducting the target tasks. Among them, 19 participants described particular target tasks that were difficult for them to carry out in their answers. Specifically, seven participants replied that participating in meetings or conferences with foreign military officers was difficult, and another four remarked that coordination of business and tour guiding around military facilities were difficult to perform. The other eight participants answered that they felt difficulties while interacting over the telephone or radiotelephone before events or during military operations. On the other hand, four of the 42 respondents who indicated their speaking deficiency remarked that they were not confident when speaking, no matter what type of conversation they were engaged with. Another two participants expressed their difficulties in choosing socioculturally or pragmatically appropriate words or expressions in spoken interactions with foreign military officers.

Listening was also one of the most difficult areas for Korean naval officers. Eleven

participants (13.9%) mentioned that listening to their conversation partners' speech was hard, even though they knew that listening to their partners and understanding what they say is really crucial for successful communication. Among these 11 participants, four mentioned that it was much more difficult for them to understand spoken English about professional topics than ordinary conversations. Two other participants noted that listening to foreigner's speech over the phone or radiotelephone was more challenging than listening to them in face-to-face meetings. Another said that it was more difficult for him to recognize the speech of African-Americans because he felt that their accents were a bit different from those of the formal dialogues he had listened to in the school on audio tapes or CDs. Another mentioned his difficulty understanding non-native English speakers' English. These three interviewees' responses support the necessity of exposure to diverse English accents for Korean naval officers engaged with counterparts from foreign countries.

Eleven participants (13.9%) replied that writing was another difficult area for them. Among them, eight participants answered that they had difficulty because they did not know how to write the correspondences, emails, naval messages or operation reports used in the military contexts while two other participants revealed their concerns about selecting appropriate words and expressions for their papers. In addition to writing, vocabulary was also a noteworthy challenge for Korean naval officers' use of English. Eight participants (10.1 %) reported that their lack of knowledge of English vocabulary significantly hindered successful communications with foreigners. Four of these eight participants indicated that unfamiliar military terminology was one of the difficult areas in their use of English. Although only two participants (2.5 %) replied that reading was one of their deficiencies, the reason for their difficulty also needs to be addressed. They commented that, because they did not know the formats or organization of military documents, they had been unable to interpret

naval messages when they had to read them for the first time before a combined military exercise.

In conclusion, the findings in this section yield two important implications. First, Table 6 shows that speaking is the greatest difficulty for Korean naval officers. And second, the detailed descriptions of their difficulties hint at the necessity for instruction on the features of the genres encountered in military contexts.

**Lack of understanding of other cultures that caused problems.** Sociolinguistics emphasizes that second language instruction must include the teaching of social norms of the target culture because unless learners understand them, they can experience miscommunication in their conversations with people from that culture (Young, 2011). Therefore, the participants' experiences of miscommunication with their English-speaking counterparts were investigated in order to determine the social norms that are necessary to teach in English courses for naval officers.

One of the cultural differences that many participants pointed to was the horizontal relationship between superiors and subordinates in the U.S. navy. Four participants indicated that they had felt a kind of culture shock when they saw that subordinate U.S. naval officers addressed their superiors by their first name. Another participant noted that a U.S. naval officer had felt uncomfortable when he had to work with Korean naval officers as a team because the Korean naval officers were too conscious of their superior. He felt that this was because it is the custom for Korean naval officers to remain on the job until their superior is finished with his work, even though their jobs were already finished and they had nothing left to do. The participant said that the U.S. naval officer had complained about that.

Another interviewee mentioned relayed his discomfort when a U.S. naval officer's

criticized a Korean naval officer's delay in making a decision. According to this interviewee, the U.S. naval officer had not fully understood the culture of the Korean navy in which subordinate officers make no decisions by themselves in meetings or conversations for business coordination with the U.S. navy. He explained that the reason for the Korean naval officer's delay in making the decision was that he needed to check his superior's intention. He stated that this situation occurred because Korean naval officers could be severely criticized by their superiors if they make a decision in a meeting with foreign officers that is different from their superiors' thought.

Another participant remarked that he had felt uncomfortable when he thought that junior U.S. naval officers did not respect him because they did not salute him. However, he added that he had later realized that it is the culture of the U.S. navy to not salute as many times as Korean junior naval officers do. A misunderstanding occurred when another participant met several U.S. seamen on the street and they had smiled at him. He thought that they were laughing at him because he had not known that it is an American custom to smile a small smile when exchanging greetings, in direct contrast to Koreans who do not say hello to people they do not know.

Americans also seemed to think that Korean naval officers lack respect for privacy. Two participants described their experience trying to identify foreign guests' personal information (age, family or detailed itinerary in Korea) before a scheduled ceremony or meeting because commanders of the Korean navy wanted that information. They said that they had trouble explaining why they needed to know because the guests did not understand why they had to provide this type of information to the Korean naval officers.

Another challenge in communication was from different working culture. A

participant described a difficulty he had felt while trying to receive necessary information from U.S. naval officers on a weekend or at night. Korean officers often have to stay in their offices even during weekends or at night for their work, so it is not unusual for them to get in touch with other departments or other military units of the Korean navy when they needed information from them. However, the participant reported that most of U.S. naval officers who work in Korea seemed not to stay in their offices after work hours if there was no emergency. For that reason, this participant noted that it had been really hard for him to explain this custom to his superior who wanted to request information from the U.S. navy during a weekend. The superior thought that the work he was dealing with was worth being regarded as a task that required urgent cooperation. Two other participants reported that they thought that U.S. naval officers usually knew about only what they were responsible for, while Korean naval officers shared information about the various tasks with which their department engaged. Thus, they reported that it had been difficult for them to identify the person in charge whom they should contact in order to be provided with necessary information when they needed to cooperate with the U.S. navy.

Another participant mentioned about his confusion when answering negative questions. While he was talking with the naval officers from Southeast Asia in English at an international event, he had had to answer negative questions. At that time he had said “yes” in order to express an agreement with the premise of a negative question as he would do when he spoke in Korean. Thus, the foreign naval officers had misunderstood his intention. This example shows that it is necessary to have the learners – who respond yes/no questions differently when they speak in Korean – practice how to answer negative questions in English.

## The Importance of English Perceived by Korean Naval Officers

In the interviews and the survey, one open-response question was asked to identify Korean naval officers' perceived importance of English. The answers to this question were coded into four categories: (a) *English is important*, (b) *English is not so important*, (c) *English is not important* and (d) *no answer*. The results illustrated in Table 10 show that 68.4% of participants believe that English is important while 26.6% of them think that English is either *not so important* or *not important*.

Table 10

*Korean Naval Officers' Perceived Importance of English (n = 78)*

| Importance of English       | No. of Respondents | Percentage of the respondents |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|
| English is important        | 54                 | 68.4%                         |
| English is not so important | 7                  | 8.9%                          |
| English is not important    | 14                 | 17.7%                         |
| No answer                   | 3                  | 3.8%                          |

Many of the 54 respondents who felt that *English is important* remarked that it was essential because it was necessary for them to communicate in English for successful performance of given tasks while serving in the navy. Among them, 14 participants emphasized Korean naval officers' frequent use of English in the various target situations, and 13 others argued that, although Korean naval officers might not be engaged with the target situations very often, their ability to use English was really required in some situations, especially in unexpected engagements with emergencies on the sea. Three participants stated that English was important in order to understand how to operate the military equipment developed in English-speaking countries such as the U.S. or the U.K. Another three

respondents maintained that English was crucial because it was the international language which made it possible to communicate not only with Americans or the British but also with many other people from all around the world. They added that because naval officers were required to take part in diverse kinds of operations in various regions of the world, learning the international language was really vital.

Although 21 participants answered that English was either *not so important* or *not important*, more than half of them (13) acknowledged that use of English was indispensable for the Korean navy at least in some situations. However, six of these 13 participants responded that they thought that not every Korean naval officer needed to be a fluent English speaker because there were interpreter officers who could help them interact with foreigners in the Korean navy. Another five noted that, even though the Korean navy might need some officers who could carry out the various tasks for which the use of English is necessary, it was neither feasible nor efficient to force every naval officer to have a sufficient command of English. Another participant replied that he could not say English was important because the situations in which the officers needed to use English were quite infrequent. Three more claimed that sufficient understanding of the principles of ship operation, naval doctrines and tactics was more significant than good command of English for naval officers. These officers pointed out the problem of the current trend in which English was overemphasized, and most young Korean naval officers hoped to learn English in order to get a good chance to work or study abroad, or to differentiate them with others rather than to acquire the professional knowledge needed by naval officers.

While some of the participants responded that English was not important for the above-mentioned reasons, five Korean naval officers cautioned against the devaluation of English based on their general perception emphasizing the significance of English in a war.

For example, one interviewee argued that because it is certain that the Korean navy and the U.S. navy would cooperate very closely and frequently during wartime, it was not valid to estimate the value of English based on the frequency of Korean naval officers' engagements with the U.S. navy during peacetime. He also maintained that Korean naval officers' sufficient command of English was really crucial during wartime because a minor miscommunication with the U.S. navy could cause a really critical result. Moreover, he asserted that, even though Korean naval officers' dependence on interpreters in communications with the U.S. navy was allowable during peacetime, it would not be appropriate during wartime when rapid exchange of information between the two navies was required.

Table 11

*Comparison between URL and RL + Staff Corps Officers' perceived Importance of English*

| Importance of English       | URLs               |                               | RL + Staff Corps Officers |                               |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
|                             | No. of Respondents | Percentage of the respondents | No. of Respondents        | Percentage of the respondents |
| English is important        | 38                 | 65.5%                         | 16                        | 80%                           |
| English is not so important | 7                  | 12.1%                         | 0                         | 0%                            |
| English is not important    | 11                 | 19%                           | 3                         | 15%                           |
| No answer                   | 2                  | 3.4%                          | 1                         | 5%                            |

Analyzing the data, the difference in perceptions of the importance of English according to different career fields was also investigated. As shown in Table 11, not only many of the URLs but also most of the RLs and Staff Corps officers responded that they thought English was important. Two RLs and two staff corps officers reported that they had many chances to engage with foreign officers for many kinds of combined military exercises.

This means that RLs and Staff Corps Officers also have to be engaged in combined military exercises as often as the URLs do in order to support these exercises. This result indicates that English is considered important by most Korean naval officers no matter in which career field they serve.

These findings reveal that Korean naval officers' perception of the importance of English is remarkably different from the perceptions of Korean businessmen and even other military personnel. Huh (2006) reports that while 40 of the 73 businessmen participating in her study (54.8%) replied that English was important to them, only 13 participants (17.8%) answered that English was necessary in at least some situations for their work. In other words, although many Korean businessmen think English is important, it is because English is beneficial for developing their careers rather than for use in their workplaces. In contrast, a clear majority of the naval officer participants in this current project perceived the necessity of English in their workplaces, even though they may not use it very often. Zafarghandi and Jodai (2012) provide an interesting comparison to these Korean officers' attitude. They reveal that the officer candidates of an Iranian military university were less motivated to learn English than civilian university students who would have other occupations in Iran. According to Zafarghandi and Jodai, this was because the military students assumed that they would not have many chances to use English while serving in the Iranian military. In contrast, it seems that there is no reason for Korean naval officers to be less motivated to learn English than Korean civilians who work in various fields of business in Korea because most of the participants believed that use of English was necessary in their workplaces, even though some of them thought that its use was just a minor part of their work.

## **The Least Level of English Proficiency Required for Korean Naval Officers**

In the interviews, 14 interviewees were asked to respond to an open-response question investigating the required level of English proficiency for Korean naval officers. They were also asked to describe the required level of four language skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. Even though there was a wide range of variation among the answers, several interviewees described a similar level for each language skill, so the descriptions provided by the majority of interviewees were chosen for presentation along with several noteworthy comments.

Opinions about required speaking skill represented two basic views. Four participants responded that a very high level of speaking proficiency might not be required for Korean naval officers. Instead, they thought that if officers could deliver their intentions successfully, hesitations and grammatical errors were acceptable in most situations. However, two other participants pointed out that, in military operations such as aircraft control or ship inspection, naval officers needed to be sufficiently trained to deliver and ask for information fluently and accurately.

The 14 naval officers were also somewhat ambivalent about listening skill. Eight participants replied that the level of being able to understand the main points of spoken English seemed to be sufficient. In other words, these participants did not think that naval officers had to understand every single word or sentence accurately. However, they thought that the ability to glean essential information from speeches about naval operations was really crucial.

It was generally acknowledged that the level of reading skill required was not great. Three participants answered that the level of being able to understand a text accurately by

using a dictionary was sufficient no matter how much time was required for reading it. However, three other interviewees remarked that skimming skill was sometimes needed because their speed of reading was important when they had to read many texts. Comments about writing skill varied similarly. Five interviewees said that grammatical errors might be acceptable if these errors did not significantly impede the delivery of meaning of an email or correspondence. One of them mentioned that grammar was not very important if officers could ask an interpreter officer to check their writing for grammatical errors. In contrast, another interviewee commented that grammatical errors were not acceptable in reality because Korean commanders did not want to send correspondence that included errors. He added that these commanders forced their subordinates to write as accurately as possible and emphasized use of rhetoric and organization appropriate to the genre of a text. Another participant emphasized the importance of accuracy, especially when writing a naval message or taking part in a text chat for military operations because misunderstanding in these types of communication could be fatal to the participants in the operation.

The answers to these open-response questions provided insights into understanding the contexts where Korean naval officers were required to use English. However, it was still difficult to set goals for English education at the educational institutions of the Korean navy based on these answers because they were not specific enough. Thus, for the survey, a multiple choice question was developed in which the participants were asked to indicate the required level of English for Korean naval officers with descriptions of several levels as choices. The scale and descriptions of the levels were from ACTFL proficiency guidelines for speaking section. Although this question could measure only the perceived required level of speaking skill, it was expected that the identified information through this question would provide more useful information for curriculum design.

Table 12

*The Perceived Required ACTFL Level for Korean Naval Officers (n = 64)*

| ACTFL Level       | Description of each level  | No. of Respondents |
|-------------------|--|--------------------|
| Advanced Low      | Speakers at this level are able to handle a variety of communicative tasks. Also, they are able to demonstrate the ability to narrate and describe in the major time frames of past, present, and future in paragraph-length discourse with some control of aspect.  | 2<br>(3.1 %)       |
| Intermediate high | Speakers at this level are able to handle a substantial number of communicative tasks, but they are unable to sustain performance of all of these tasks all of the time. These speakers can narrate and describe in all major time frames using connected discourse of paragraph length, but not all the time. When they are engaged in complicated tasks, their speech exhibits one or more features of breakdown, such as the failure to carry out fully the narration or description in the appropriate major time frame, an inability to maintain paragraph-length discourse, or a reduction in breadth and appropriateness of vocabulary. They can generally be understood by native speakers unaccustomed to dealing with non-natives.   | 32<br>(50 %)       |
| Intermediate Mid  | Speakers at this level are able to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated communicative tasks. However, they tend to function reactively, for example, by responding to direct questions or requests for information. When they are engaged in complicated tasks, they provide some information but have difficulty linking ideas, manipulating time and aspect. They are able to express personal meaning by creating with the language, in part by combining and recombining known elements and conversational input to produce responses typically consisting of sentences and strings of sentences. Their speech may contain pauses, reformulations, and self-corrections as they search for adequate vocabulary and appropriate language forms to express themselves. In spite of the limitations in their vocabulary and/or pronunciation and/or grammar and/or syntax, these speakers are generally understood by sympathetic interlocutors accustomed to dealing with non-natives. | 20<br>(31.3 %)     |
| Intermediate low  | Speakers at this level are able to handle successfully a limited number of uncomplicated communicative tasks by creating with the language. These speakers are primarily reactive and struggle to answer direct questions or requests for information. They are also able to ask a few appropriate questions. They express personal meaning by combining and recombining what they know and what they hear from their interlocutors into short statements and discrete sentences. Their responses are often filled with hesitancy and inaccuracies as they search for appropriate linguistic forms and vocabulary while attempting to give form to the message. In spite of frequent misunderstandings that may require repetition or rephrasing, they can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors, particularly by those accustomed to dealing with non-natives.   | 3<br>(4.7 %)       |
| Novice high       | Speakers at this level are able to manage several uncomplicated communicative tasks in straightforward social situations. These speakers sometimes respond to simple, direct questions or requests for information. They are also able to ask a few formulaic questions. Their language consists primarily of short and sometimes incomplete sentences in the present, and may be hesitant or inaccurate. They can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors used to non-natives.   | 7<br>(10.9%)       |
| Novice Mid        | Speakers at this level communicate minimally by using a number of isolated words and memorized phrases limited by the familiar situation. When responding to direct questions, they may say only two or three words at a time or give an occasional stock answer. They pause frequently as they search for simple vocabulary or attempt to recycle their own and their interlocutor's words. They may be understood with difficulty even by sympathetic interlocutors accustomed to dealing with non-natives.  | 0                  |
| Novice Low        | Speakers at this level have no real functional ability because of their pronunciation, may be unintelligible. Given adequate time and familiar cues, they may be able to exchange greetings, give their identity, and name a number of familiar objects from their immediate environment. However, they are unable to participate in a true conversational exchange.   | 0                  |

As illustrated in Table 12, half of the participants (50%) indicated that Korean naval officers needed to have an Intermediate-high level of speaking skill, and 20 participants (31.3%) judged Intermediate-low to be the required level for Korean naval officers. This means that Korean naval officers do not necessarily need to be fluent and accurate in all of various kinds of interactions. Instead, it implies that they need to deal with at least a limited range of tasks successfully although what they produce in the interactions need not be perfect. Findings from this survey correspond with the findings from the interviews regarding the required level of speaking skill for Korean naval officers.

### **U.S. Naval Officers' Perception of Korean Naval Officers' Use of English**

After administering the survey of Korean naval officers, three U.S. naval officers were contacted to achieve triangulation of the data. Although the answers gathered through a survey of only three naval officers were not sufficient to fully understand the diverse aspects of Korean naval officers' needs, their answers helped me to see the research questions of this study from a new perspective.

All three participants of the survey responded that they felt that Korean naval officers' use of English was fine. In other words, even though errors were sometimes found in their speeches or written messages, the Americans noted that they could usually successfully figure out the intended meanings. However, one participant pointed out that that might not mean that all Korean naval officers' command of English was good enough. He explained that some Korean naval officers tried to avoid using English by depending too much on interpreter officers when they needed to communicate with a U.S. naval officer. He added that he sometimes felt it quite inefficient that these Korean naval officers tried not to directly interact with U.S. naval officers, even for very easy tasks. Thus, he thought that Korean naval officers' lack of confidence in speaking and writing could be one of the weaknesses in their

use of English. His comment supports the necessity for improving Korean naval officers' confidence in using productive skills.

Another participant also pointed out the limitations of Korean naval officers' dependence on interpreter officers. They reported that because the interpreter officers did not have sufficient experience or professional knowledge of naval operations, they sometimes misinterpreted important information or did not understand either the Korean naval officers or the U.S. naval officers. Thus, they claimed that it was necessary for Korean naval officers to be able to understand the U.S. naval officers as well as their interpreter officers' interpretation. Another participant remarked that he sometimes felt that neither interpreter officers nor Korean naval officers knew the professional terminologies or the capabilities and limitations of the U.S. forces that were necessary for successful performance of combined military exercises. These reports inform us that not only language proficiency but also a basic understanding of the military terminologies and background information for military operations are required for Korean naval officers' effective communication with foreign military officers.

When asked about the required level of English proficiency for Korean naval officers, two of the American officers thought that the Intermediate-high level – on the scale of ACTFL proficiency guidelines – was required for Korean naval officers, and the other indicated that the Intermediate-mid level was sufficient. As for the question about cultural differences, one participant remarked that Korean naval officers needed to be more direct in their interactions with U.S. naval officers while the other two did not respond to this question. This could mean that either the difference of social norms is not significantly problematic for the Americans in most of their interactions with Korean naval officers, or that they are already prepared to accept the Koreans' different customs due to their understanding of cultural diversity.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION

The findings from this study not only help us understand the contexts where the learners have to use English in their workplaces, they also give implications for efficient curriculum development and syllabus design. In this section, the implications of this study will be discussed in detail.

#### **Focuses of Language Teaching for Korean Naval Officers**

Dörnyei (1994) contends that learners' motivation is an important factor in their progress, but also that their *need for achievement* and the *relevance* of the course to their needs are important factors that impact their foreign language learning motivation. In the context of Korea, where English learners have few chances to interact in English, many instrumentally oriented learners are likely to study English just to get good scores on English tests. This is because taking English tests may be the only way these learners use English. In addition, there are many advantages to getting good scores on English tests such as more opportunities to get a good job or to enter a good university. Accordingly, in this context, although the learners' need for achievement may be great, that need may only extend to improving the required skills enough to get good scores. They do not perceive a need for successful communication in English. Therefore, because they cannot disregard the learners' need (Li, 1998), it has been extremely difficult for English teachers in Korea to concentrate on developing learners' communicative competence, especially since the all-important tests evaluate only the learners' receptive skills and grammar.

However, unlike other EFL learners such as the Korean businessmen (Huh, 2006) or

military personnel in Iran (Zafarghandi & Jodai, 2012), the results of this study show that Korean naval officers are not only highly motivated to improve their speaking skill, but they also feel it necessary to do so for the successful performance of certain tasks in their workplaces. They are motivated because many of them are frequently engaged with interactions with foreigners, and none of them can avoid using English in at least several particular situations. In spite of their motivation, however, my interview and survey data point to the officers' insufficient confidence in taking part in oral-aural communications with foreigners. This implies that the priority of English teaching for Korean naval officers should be to improve their speaking skill with enough attention to the development of their listening skill. In other words, the findings of this study support the appropriateness of adopting Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) for English courses for Korean naval officers.

Even though it seems that Korean naval officers' use of writing skill is less frequent than their use of speaking and listening skills, it was revealed through this study that writing instruction should not be disregarded in English courses for Korean naval officers. There are still many kinds of the target tasks such as sending emails, naval messages or correspondences for which Korean naval officers' writing skill is needed. The data also reveal that technology is gradually increasing the use of written communication in military operations due to its high reliability and usefulness for the rapid exchange of a lot of information among many parties while reducing the dependence on spoken communication. In addition, Korean naval officers are motivated to avoid errors in written communication during an operation. Their responses indicate awareness that written errors could cause a critical result. Therefore, the importance of teaching writing in English for Military Purposes courses should not be overlooked, despite the great emphasis on developing speaking skill in the English courses.

If writing instruction is to be relevant and useful for Korean naval officers, then teaching the features of the genres of military documents is necessary. This is because that many participants of this study expressed their lack of familiarity with the rhetoric of these documents as well as their desire to learning the formats and the organization of military documents. The participants' own articulated wishes suggest that the English teachers of the Korean navy do not need to follow writing instruction methods for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or English for Business Purposes (EBP) that are popularly used in civilian educational institutions in Korea. Instead, it argues for the necessity of genre analysis of authentic texts that are widely used in military organizations along with the development of pedagogic tasks and materials designed specifically for Korean naval officers.

According to interview and survey data, speaking fluency seems to be more important than accuracy in most target situations. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), in EBP, "the primary concern is to communicate effectively, not necessarily totally accurately" (p. 73). Likewise, the identified target tasks of Korean naval officers reveal the necessity for focusing on fluency in teaching English for Military Purposes. This means that, in spite of some naval officers' great concern for English grammar, it is not efficient for teachers to provide them with grammar-centered instruction to improve their performance of the target tasks in their workplaces. Such a shift would require a change in some Korean naval officers' misconception on accuracy. Several participants in this study mentioned their superiors' excessive emphasis on accuracy in the outcomes they produced. However, the findings from this study imply that, in most of the target situations, the lack of accuracy does not greatly hinder Korean naval officers from successfully performing the target tasks as long as they can deliver intended meanings clearly. Corroborating this implication, the U.S. naval officers who took part in this study also reported that they had rarely felt that Korean naval

officers' lack of accuracy was problematic in communications with them. Therefore, although accuracy is still important particularly in written communication during military operations, improving the learners' fluency should be the priority in English teaching for Korean naval officers. Moreover, this study hints at the need for teachers to determine effective communication skills from the research on EBP, because teaching those skills could be more advantageous for Korean naval officers than teaching grammar.

### **Implications for Selecting, Grading and Sequencing Tasks**

The findings of this study imply that helping learners deal with the target tasks encountered in *a combined military exercise (or operation) with military forces from other countries* should be a priority of the English courses for Korean naval officers. This is because not only is it the situation most frequently encountered by the participants but also that miscommunication or being unable to communicate in this situation could cause the most critical results. Many participants reported that carrying out their target tasks in this situation was especially difficult when they had to use English. Thus, teachers must focus on the skills required in this situation and help learners to develop them.

The next important situation for which the English courses should be designed is *operations for coast guarding or maritime safety*, especially since a majority of the students are prospective or current URLs. Many URLs who participated in this study remarked that the use of English in this situation is not only frequently encountered but also very important. To perform successfully in *military education or training*, learners need strong a military vocabulary and terminology set. They also need sufficient military and technical background knowledge for easier understanding of professional speeches and texts about military science because many participants replied that the use of English for these tasks is really difficult.

If the teachers could take a more long-term view of curriculum development and syllabus design, or could have sufficient class hours to deal with many issues, the target tasks faced in *foreigners' visits to Korea*, *Korean navy's visits to other countries* or *Korean navy's hosting an international event* could be simulated and practiced before the tasks of other target situations<sup>4</sup>. The rationale for this suggestion comes from Robinson (1998) who claims that easier tasks tend to bring about fluent production because *cognitive loads* and *demands for processing* are low, while complex tasks tend to result in less fluent but more complex and accurate speech. He also adds that, due to these reasons teachers need to use both easy and complicated tasks to improve their students' accuracy as well as fluency. In addition, he maintains that when teachers use various levels of pedagogic tasks, it is efficient for them to sequence tasks by giving easy tasks and then to gradually increase the cognitive complexity of pedagogic tasks.

In this study, it was revealed that the target tasks in *foreigners' visits to Korea*, *Korean navy's visits to other countries* or *hosting an international events* were perceived as relatively easier for Korean naval officers than other situational tasks. Moreover, most of the target tasks faced in these situations seem to require a lower *cognitive load*, less *communicative stress*, *particularity* and *code complexity* than the target tasks for *combined military operations with foreign forces*, *operations for coast guarding or maritime safety*, and *military education or training*. Therefore, carrying out the target tasks in these situations

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<sup>4</sup> As Baralt, Gilabert and Robinson (2014) point out, "there is still no widely agreed-upon set of criteria" (p. 1) for grading and sequencing tasks. For example, a traditional way of syllabus design in which tasks are sequenced based on the notion of linguistic complexity is still widely used for language instruction under the assumption that complex structures can be learned only after simple structures have been mastered. On the other hand, Candlin (1984) arguing for the inefficiency of pre-determined syllabi, claimed that task sequencing decisions should be made through negotiation between the teacher and the learners. However, illustrating the great amount of research on task sequencing, Baralt et al. (2014) show that sequencing tasks in terms of increasing complexity and culminating in a synthesizing task is supported by many proponents of task-based approaches to syllabus design – although there is a little variation in the suggested concepts of *task complexity* according to researcher.

could be practiced in earlier units of the English programs or courses for Korean naval officers, while complex tasks which require complicated professional knowledge and exposure to unfamiliar discourses would be addressed later.

### **Compatibility of TBLT with the Korean Naval Officers' Needs**

One of the most significant difficulties for conducting task-based needs analysis for an ESP course is that it is not easy to determine all the students' target tasks because the range of communicative events that diverse learners from various subfields could experience is too broad. This is one of the reasons why Belcher (2009) remarked that "it would be impossible to fully prepare learners for all the routine (and less routine) communicative events they will eventually need to engage in, all the spoken and written genres they will want to be functionally competent with" (p. 9).

However, the needs analysis of this study found that the range of communicative events experienced by these Korean naval officers was not so broad. Except for several billets, most of the Korean naval officers' target situations and tasks were readily identifiable thanks to the homogeneity of the group. Thus, the data imply that TBLT could be used efficiently in the English courses for Korean naval officers. Of course, this does not mean that learners have to analyze sample dialogues from each target task and repeat or memorize them for further use. SLA research has shown that this behavioristic approach to language teaching is not efficient (Lightbown, 2003). Instead, teaching would be efficient if learners could experience instantaneous and creative use of English while performing the target tasks of the future. Students would be more highly motivated to learn English each time they participated in the interactions in the classroom to perform a task relevant to their career. In addition, experiences of engagement with simulations of the target tasks in their English classes would

help students feel more confident when they engaged with similar tasks in their workplaces in the future.

### **The Necessity for CBLT**

Several participants in this study commented that their lack of background knowledge about the combined military exercises impeded the successful performance of tasks assigned to them in that situation. Others commented that they felt a lack of enough understanding about the participating countries in international events or the partners of combined military exercises while interacting with officers from these countries. Their insufficient understanding included their lack of awareness of the culture and society of these countries as well as the capabilities and limitations of their military forces. The U.S. naval officers who participated in this study also pointed out that Korean naval officers' lack of understanding of these things was the most significant obstacle in their cooperation with the U.S. navy. Thus, the findings of this study suggest the necessity for teaching content materials that not only inform about the different cultures but also about the various kinds of background knowledge required for successful performance of the target tasks.

Considering the context of the Korean navy in which their engagement with the U.S. navy is much more frequent than that with the military forces of any other countries, it seems that several books published for junior U.S. naval officers might be good textbooks for CBLT-type English for Military Purposes classes for Korean naval officers. For example, "The Naval Officer's Guide" (McComas, 2011) includes information about the culture, organization, weapon systems, history, procedures of military operations, capabilities and limitations of the U.S. Navy as well as a list of basic naval terminologies. Thus, this book could be a useful source for understanding the U.S. navy. This book could also be usefully

exploited for implementation of Hutchinson and Waters' learning centered approach to ESP. For example, after reading a section of the book that describes the chain of command of the U.S. navy, the teacher could ask the students to describe the chain of command of the Korean navy consulting the section for required vocabulary and expressions. This type of task would help them learn the new vocabulary and expressions efficiently. Moreover, their experience of carrying out this pedagogic task would help them feel more comfortable and confident when they need to explain the chain of command of the Korean navy to foreigners in a real situation.

### **The Need for Change in the Use of the Standardized English Proficiency Tests**

Generally, the roles of standardized English proficiency tests such as TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) or TEPS (Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University) have been overemphasized in Korea, and many people still believe that the scores of these tests are the actual manifestations of one's English proficiency. This misunderstanding of the scores of the standardized English proficiency tests is also rampant in the Korean navy. Many administrators of the educational institution of the Korean navy have not only been urging the students to get high scores on these tests but they have also been asking the teachers to help them improve their test scores. Legitimizing this attitude, a personnel management policy of the Korean navy implicitly requires naval officers to get high scores on these tests, and they give advantages to high scorers in order to improve Korean naval officers' command of English.

However, researchers of language testing caution against this kind of misinterpretation of a test score. For example, Messick (1989) argues the importance of "the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores or other modes

of assessment” (p. 13). From Messick’s perspective, inferring one’s level of overall command of English based on the scores of comprehension tests is neither adequate nor appropriate, so any interpretation is invalid. Moreover, no empirical data have supported a close correlation between test takers’ scores on standardized English comprehension tests – such as TOEIC and TEPS – and their productive skills (Woo, 2008). Thus, the current understanding and use of standardized proficiency tests in the Korean navy is improper and unhelpful for Korean naval officers who need to improve their productive skills more than their receptive skills.

Several participants in this study directly pointed to the negative influences of this over-emphasis on standardized English proficiency tests and the wrong personnel management policies that resulted. For example, two participants remarked that they felt that what they studied for the standardized English tests helped them not at all in their use of English in their workplaces. Another participant claimed that the personnel management policy prevented him from concentrating on developing his speaking skill, which he wanted to improve for better performance of the target tasks. He first needed to get a high score on one of the standardized English proficiency tests in order not to be disadvantaged in the eyes of his superiors. Another participant reported that he lost motivation to learn English for interaction whenever he had to submit the transcripts of a standardized English proficiency test to the headquarters or the educational institution. He felt that it was foolish to spend his precious time for something far less valuable for his career. Therefore, the findings of this study require further research and discussion to find a more desirable way to use the standardized English tests in the context of the Korean navy.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSIONS**

The aim of this study was to ascertain the language-learning needs of Korean naval officers. Until now, there has been only a proliferation of guesswork on this topic rather than a genuine student needs analysis. Using various kinds of sources and methods, this study provides reliable information about Korean naval officers' needs for English in their workplaces. The identified needs help English teachers understand in what situations and for what kinds of tasks their students need to use English. This information about the target situations and tasks offers a solid basis for selecting and developing pedagogic tasks and teaching materials that could be effectively used in the English courses. The identified information about Korean naval officers' wants and deficiencies gives valuable implications for curriculum development and syllabus design, as mentioned in the discussion section above. In addition, this study verifies that the ability to communicate in English is required for Korean naval officers. Although it is still questionable whether all the naval officers have to have a good command of English, it seems certain that none of them can avoid the use of English in every situation, and that a naval officer's sufficient command of English is an advantage not only to the individual officer but also to the Korean navy in many situations. Moreover, the identified requirements of English for Korean naval officers help teachers set more practical objectives for their courses. Most of the participants remarked that Korean naval officers should be able to deal with a limited range of communicative tasks. This level of English requirement seems to be achievable when language courses are designed based on the identified target tasks provided by this study, and when learners practice performance of these communicative tasks in the classroom through their engagement with pedagogic tasks.

However, this study suffers from several limitations. First of all, while the most important source of the information was domain experts, stratified random sampling was not sufficiently employed. Even though a high-ranking officer participated in the interview, no high-ranking officer took part in the survey. The high-ranking interviewee remarked that interactions among commanders or admirals from different countries were usually more sociable because their most important goal was building close relationships. In contrast, he said that the interactions among mid-ranking officers tended to be goal-oriented because their interactions were usually for the exchange of information for successful performance of given tasks. Thus, his remarks signify the needs for English of high-ranking officers were different. Therefore, this study could have identified more diverse aspects of those needs if more high-ranking officers had participated in this study.

Another limitation is in the inadequate specificity of the information gathered through the survey of three U.S. naval officers. Even though the researcher had wanted to interview them personally, the U.S. naval officers wanted to answer the interview questions via email due to their busy schedule. Thus, the questionnaire was sent to them. However, because the range of responses is limited by pre-determined questions in questionnaire surveys (Long, 2005), the answers to this survey were not very concrete, and it was also not possible to obtain information beyond the questions required. Furthermore, the number of participants (three) was too small, even though all of them had very rich experience of engagements with Korean naval officers. This limitation prevented me from gathering fully reliable data for triangulation.

The employment of other methods could have helped to crosscheck the findings of this study. Long (2005) maintains that observing domain experts perform target tasks can be useful not only for confirming the findings from interviews or surveys but also for

discovering new aspects of needs that were not addressed by the participants' introspection and retrospection. Another potentially fruitful method for identifying learners' needs suggested by Ferris and Hedgcock (2014) would be to check the writing samples of the learners. By observing and analyzing what Korean officer participants produced, their specific needs not only for writing but also for speaking could have been pinpointed.

Despite these limitations, the findings of this study are meaningful. To begin with, it seems that this study is the first attempt to use various sources of information for a needs analysis for English for Military Purposes courses. The previous needs analyses (Kushi, 2012; Solak, 2012; Qaddomi, 2013) depended on only one source of information in order to determine the learners' needs. In contrast, this study gathered the data from various sources such as professional literature, domain experts and their conversation counterparts. I believe that more relevant sources increased the reliability of the results. This study also provides more diverse aspects of military personnel's needs than the previous needs analyses, thus helping to more thoroughly explain the contexts in which the students of English for Military Purposes courses would be engaged. Of course, the context of the Korean navy is rather distinct from that of the other navies because of its frequent engagement with the U.S. navy. Nevertheless, the general findings of this project may be applicable to other navies or other military branches.

Finally, this study provides useful implications for further research.

At first, this study identifies the kinds of sample discourses that need to be scrutinized for discourse analysis. This effort would support the efficient instruction of English for Military Purposes. Many participants indicated that writing (and even reading) military documents such as naval messages, correspondence and email is difficult due to their

unfamiliarity with the formats, customs and terminologies needed. This strongly hints at the urgency for a genre analysis of these types of military documents so that teachers can more effectively address officers' writing skills.

Because the use of English in *combined military exercises (or operations) with military forces from other countries* is the situation most difficult, critical and frequently faced, the discourses produced in this situation need more attention. Specifically speaking, corpus analysis of these discourses and identifying the kinds of information that are exchanged during the performance of each target task in this situation would provide useful materials for instruction. In addition, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) remark "when learners have a limited need for English in certain predictable situations, the learning of key lexical phrases may provide a very quick road to the proficiency required of that situation" (p. 87). This implies the usefulness of teaching key expressions for ship inspection, forward air control and interactions with a maritime pilot because the flow of the communications occurring during the performance of these tasks is typical and quite predictable. Therefore, it would be helpful for naval officers if discourse analysis could identify the key expressions and overall organization of dialogues produced during the performance of these tasks. Of course, the issue of security might limit collecting authentic discourse samples in military organizations. However, the learners' needs, which were identified in this study, require that administrators and teachers make more effort to overcome this limitation wisely.

Secondly, this project suggests the necessity for research for the development of pedagogic tasks for naval officers. Efficient implementation of TBLT requires high quality pedagogic tasks, adequately sequenced to gradually increase in complexity while steadily approximating the real world target tasks (Long, 2015). Thus, because this study only identifies the target tasks, additional efforts for developing pedagogic tasks for English for

Military Purposes courses are needed.

Thirdly, this study recommends a combined approach in which not only the learners' English skills but also their job competence can be developed together. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) claim that combined language development and skill development courses are beneficial in EBP because they meet learners' wants in the both areas at the same time. Likewise in EAP, writing skills and strategies are taught together with the rhetoric and organization of academic papers. In the needs analysis of this study, several participants reported that they thought job competence was more important than command of English for naval officers. Some of them also revealed their concern about the current trend in which Korean naval officers are interested only in improving English skills while disregarding their basic job competence – which is more necessary for them to be a good naval officer. Thus, their responses imply the advantages of a language course that not only helps the learners' language learning but also contributes to their development as competent naval officers. Job competence does not only entail the knowledge of naval tactics or weapons systems that could be readily addressed through CBLT. It can even include the professional skills for ship operation, leadership, morality, critical thinking and the ability to make a decision based on sound reasoning. Therefore, research would be useful to identify the professional skills and qualifications for a good military officer, and which could be developed in communicative English courses together with learners' command of English. Along with this, studies that investigate efficient pedagogic tasks that could promote both naval officers' job competence and language proficiency would be valuable.

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## APPENDIX A: QUESTIONS FOR SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

### <Bio-Data>

1. How many years have you served in the Korean navy? In which career field have been serving?

### <Target Situations & Tasks>

2. While you work as a naval officer, in what situations, what kinds of tasks do you need to carry out using English?

| Situations | Tasks | Communication Types |
|------------|-------|---------------------|
|            |       |                     |

3. While you were performing the tasks for which use of English was needed, could you get some help from interpreters or other experts in English?

### <Korean Naval Officers' Wants for English Courses>

4. Based on your experiences of engagements in the tasks for which use of English was needed, what do you think should be taught in the English courses offered in the Republic of Korea Naval Academy or the Korean Military Language Institute? If you can take an English course, what do you want to learn in the class? What might be useful for you to improve your performance in English at work?

5. Which do you think is more important for carrying out the target tasks between accuracy and fluency?

6. Could you rank the importance of the four language skills in order of importance for performance of the tasks?

7. According to a recent Korean newspaper article, even though Korean companies require high scores of the standardized English proficiency tests such as TOEIC or TOEFL when they hire employees, most employees replied that they had not had many chances to use English after they were hired.

Then, do you think English skills are important to Korean naval officers? Please tell me the reasons of your response.

8. What level of each English skill do you think is needed for successful accomplishment of the tasks given to Korean naval officers? (This question is asking **not** your level of English but **the required level** of English for Korean naval officers.)

| Language Skills | Required Levels |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| Speaking        |                 |
| Listening       |                 |
| Reading         |                 |
| Writing         |                 |

**<Korean Naval Officers' Perceived Lacks in Terms of Use of English>**

9. What were the lacks you felt while you carried out given tasks in terms of your English skills?

10. What kinds of knowledge do you think is needed for successful performance of given tasks besides linguistic knowledge such as grammar or vocabulary? In other words, what kinds of contents do you think is necessary to be taught in Military English programs?

11. Have you ever experienced any miscommunications caused by your conversation partners' different cultures? If yes, could you describe those situations?

## APPENDIX B: QUESTIONS FOR A SURVEY OF KOREAN NAVAL OFFICERS

### <Bio-Data>

1. How many years have you served in the Korean navy? In which career field have you been serving?

### <Target Situations & Tasks>

In the table below, the situations in and the tasks for which Korean naval officers need to use English are illustrated. Please reply the questions below seeing the information in the table.

| Situations   | Tasks  |
|--|--|
| Foreigners' visit to Korea                             | Cooperation for setting an itinerary, Welcoming / Greeting, Guiding around the naval bases, facilities or vessels, Having a meal together, Taking group photos, Participating in a talk, Tour guiding, Participating in a volunteer activity at social welfare facilities, Taking part in a sports game, Meeting the naval vessels from other countries near an arrival port and guiding them to the port, Making welcoming banners / welcome brochure, Participating in a reception |
| Operations for coast guarding or maritime safety       | Ship inspection, Providing a support to a broken or emergent ship, Providing notices or warnings about nearby military trainings to commercial ships for their safety, Forward air control   |
| Combined exercises (or operations) with foreign forces | Receiving documents, Sending documents, Participating in a preparatory conference for the exercise, Communication with other navies while conducting the exercise, Participating in a debrief conference, Taking part in a reception   |
| Korea navy's visit to other countries                  | Cooperation before arrival, Contacting/interacting with a maritime pilot, Greeting, Visiting a military command (Meeting the commander/supervisor, Touring military facilities or vessels, Having a meal together, Taking group pictures, Participating in a talk, Touring tourist attractions, Participating in a volunteer activity at social welfare facilities, Taking part in a sports game), Conducting combined military trainings  |
| Hosting an international event                         | Sending out invitations, Receiving RSVP, Cooperation before the events, Taking part in the events (Guiding the events, Having a meal together, Participating in receptions), Sending out thank-you letters   |
| Military education or training                         | Taking a class taught in English, Asking questions and getting the answers, Translating books or documents   |

3. Based on your experience as a naval officer, please rank the six situations – in which you needed to use English – in order of the frequency of engagement in each situation.

4. How much is the tasks which are encountered in each situation difficult to perform?

| Situation  | Difficulty |            |        |                 |                | Answer |
|--|------------|------------|--------|-----------------|----------------|--------|
|  | Very easy  | A bit easy | Normal | A bit difficult | Very difficult |        |
| Foreigners' visit to Korea                             | 0          | 1          | 2      | 3               | 4              |        |
| Operations for coast guarding or maritime safety       | 0          | 1          | 2      | 3               | 4              |        |
| Combined exercises (or operations) with foreign forces | 0          | 1          | 2      | 3               | 4              |        |
| Korea navy's visit to other countries                  | 0          | 1          | 2      | 3               | 4              |        |
| Hosting international events                           | 0          | 1          | 2      | 3               | 4              |        |
| Military education / training                          | 0          | 1          | 2      | 3               | 4              |        |

5. In which situations do you think the result of a miscommunication would be the most critical? (Please select the most critical two situations.)

6. What else situations in or tasks for which you needed to use English have you experienced in your workplaces?

7. While you were performing the tasks for which use of English was needed, could you get some help from interpreters or other experts in English?

**<Wants for English Courses>**

8. Based on your experiences of engagements in the tasks for which use of English was needed, what do you think should be taught in the English courses offered in the Republic of Korea Naval Academy or the Korean Military Language Institute? If you can take an English course, what do you want to learn in the class? What might be useful for you to improve your performance in English at work?

9. What do you think is the least level of English proficiency required for Korean naval officers for successful performance of any given tasks? Please choose one description which depicts the required level for Korean naval officers the most appropriately. (The descriptions in the left column of the table are arranged in order of proficiency.)

| Description of each level  | Mark |
|--|------|
| Speakers at this level are able to handle a variety of communicative tasks. Also, they are able to demonstrate the ability to narrate and describe in the major time frames of past, present, and future in paragraph-length discourse with some control of aspect.  |      |
| Speakers at this level are able handle a substantial number of communicative tasks, but they are unable to sustain performance of all of these tasks all of the time. These speakers can narrate and describe in all major time frames using connected discourse of paragraph length, but not all the time. When they are engaged in complicated tasks, their speech exhibits one or more features of breakdown, such as the failure to carry out fully the narration or description in the appropriate major time frame, an inability to maintain paragraph-length discourse, or a reduction in breadth and appropriateness of vocabulary. They can generally be understood by native speakers unaccustomed to dealing with non-natives.  |      |
| Speakers at this level are able to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated communicative tasks. However, they tend to function reactively, for example, by responding to direct questions or requests for information. When they are engaged in complicated tasks, they provide some information but have difficulty linking ideas, manipulating time and aspect. They are able to express personal meaning by creating with the language, in part by combining and recombining known elements and conversational input to produce responses typically consisting of sentences and strings of sentences. Their speech may contain pauses, reformulations, and self-corrections as they search for adequate vocabulary and appropriate language forms to express themselves. In spite of the limitations in their vocabulary and/or pronunciation and/or grammar and/or syntax, these speakers are generally understood by sympathetic interlocutors accustomed to dealing with non-natives. |      |
| Speakers at this level are able to handle successfully a limited number of uncomplicated communicative tasks by creating with the language. These speakers are primarily reactive and struggle to answer direct questions or requests for information. They are also able to ask a few appropriate questions. They express personal meaning by combining and recombining what they know and what they hear from their interlocutors into short statements and discrete sentences. Their responses are often filled with hesitancy and inaccuracies as they search for appropriate linguistic forms and vocabulary while attempting to give form to the message. In spite of frequent misunderstandings that may require repetition or rephrasing, they can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors, particularly by those accustomed to dealing with non-natives.   |      |
| Speakers at this level are able to manage several uncomplicated communicative tasks in straightforward social situations. These speakers sometimes respond to simple, direct questions or requests for information. They are also able to ask a few formulaic questions. Their language consists primarily of short and sometimes incomplete sentences in the present, and may be hesitant or inaccurate. They can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors used to non-natives.   |      |
| Speakers at this level communicate minimally by using a number of isolated words and memorized phrases limited by the familiar situation. When responding to direct questions, they may say only two or three words at a time or give an occasional stock answer. They pause frequently as they search for simple vocabulary or attempt to recycle their own and their interlocutor's words. They may be understood with difficulty even by sympathetic interlocutors accustomed to dealing with non-natives.  |      |
| Speakers at this level have no real functional ability because of their pronunciation, may be unintelligible. Given adequate time and familiar cues, they may be able to exchange greetings, give their identity, and name a number of familiar objects from their immediate environment. However, they are unable to participate in a true conversational exchange.   |      |

10. According to a recent Korean newspaper article, even though Korean companies require high scores of the standardized English proficiency tests such as TOEIC or TOEFL when they hire employees, most employees replied that they had not had many chances to use English after they were hired.

Then, do you think English skills are important to Korean naval officers? Please tell me the reasons of your response.

**<Lacks in Terms of Use of English>**

11. What were the lacks you felt while you carried out given tasks in terms of your English skills?

12. What kinds of knowledge do you think is needed for successful performance of given tasks besides linguistic knowledge such as grammar or vocabulary? In other words, what kinds of contents do you think is necessary to be taught in a Military English course?

13. Have you ever experienced any miscommunications caused by your conversation partners' different cultures? If yes, could you describe those situations?

## APPENDIX C: QUESTIONS FOR A SURVEY OF U.S. NAVAL OFFICERS

### <Bio-Data>

1. How many years have you served in the U.S. navy? Where and when did you engaged with Korean naval officers?

### <Target Situations & Tasks>

In the table below, the situations in and the tasks for which Korean naval officers need to use English are illustrated. Please reply the questions below seeing the information in the table.

| Situations   | Tasks  |
|--|--|
| Foreigners' visit to Korea                             | Cooperation for setting an itinerary, Welcoming / Greeting, Guiding around the naval bases, facilities or vessels, Having a meal together, Taking group photos, Participating in a talk, Tour guiding, Participating in a volunteer activity at social welfare facilities, Taking part in a sports game, Meeting the naval vessels from other countries near an arrival port and guiding them to the port, Making welcoming banners / welcome brochure, Participating in a reception |
| Operations for coast guarding or maritime safety       | Ship inspection, Providing a support to a broken or emergent ship, Providing notices or warnings about nearby military trainings to commercial ships for their safety, Forward air control   |
| Combined exercises (or operations) with foreign forces | Receiving documents, Sending documents, Participating in a preparatory conference for the exercise, Communication with other navies while conducting the exercise, Participating in a debrief conference, Taking part in a reception   |
| Korea navy's visit to other countries                  | Cooperation before arrival, Contacting/interacting with a maritime pilot, Greeting, Visiting a military command (Meeting the commander/supervisor, Touring military facilities or vessels, Having a meal together, Taking group pictures, Participating in a talk, Touring tourist attractions, Participating in a volunteer activity at social welfare facilities, Taking part in a sports game), Conducting combined military trainings  |
| Hosting an international event                         | Sending out invitations, Receiving RSVP, Cooperation before the events, Taking part in the events (Guiding the events, Having a meal together, Participating in receptions), Sending out thank-you letters   |
| Military education or training                         | Taking a class taught in English, Asking questions and getting the answers, Translating books or documents   |

2. Have ever experienced any other types of engagements with Korean naval officers besides the ones illustrated above?

3. What do you think is the least level of English proficiency required for Korean naval officers for successful cooperation with the U.S. navy. Could you choose one description which depicts the required level of English proficiency for Korean naval officers the most appropriately?

| Description of each level   | Mark |
|---|------|
| Speakers at this level are able to handle <u>a variety of communicative tasks</u> . Also, they are able to demonstrate the ability to narrate and describe in the major time frames of past, present, and future in paragraph-length discourse with some control of aspect.   |      |
| Speakers at this level are able handle <u>a substantial number of communicative tasks</u> , but they are unable to sustain performance of all of these tasks all of the time. These speakers can narrate and describe in all major time frames using connected discourse of paragraph length, but not all the time. When they are engaged in complicated tasks, their speech exhibits one or more features of breakdown, such as the failure to carry out fully the narration or description in the appropriate major time frame, an inability to maintain paragraph-length discourse, or a reduction in breadth and appropriateness of vocabulary. <u>They can generally be understood by native speakers unaccustomed to dealing with non-natives.</u>  |      |
| Speakers at this level are able to handle successfully <u>a variety of uncomplicated communicative tasks</u> . However, they tend to function reactively, for example, by responding to direct questions or requests for information. When they are engaged in complicated tasks, they provide some information but have difficulty linking ideas, manipulating time and aspect. They are able to express personal meaning by creating with the language, in part by combining and recombining known elements and conversational input to produce responses typically consisting of sentences and strings of sentences. Their speech may contain pauses, reformulations, and self-corrections as they search for adequate vocabulary and appropriate language forms to express themselves. In spite of the limitations in their vocabulary and/or pronunciation and/or grammar and/or syntax, <u>these speakers are generally understood by sympathetic interlocutors accustomed to dealing with non-natives.</u> |      |
| Speakers at this level are able to handle successfully <u>a limited number of uncomplicated communicative tasks</u> by creating with the language. These speakers are primarily reactive and struggle to answer direct questions or requests for information. They are also able to ask a few appropriate questions. They express personal meaning by combining and recombining what they know and what they hear from their interlocutors into short statements and discrete sentences. Their responses are often filled with hesitancy and inaccuracies as they search for appropriate linguistic forms and vocabulary while attempting to give form to the message. In spite of frequent misunderstandings that may require repetition or rephrasing, <u>they can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors, particularly by those accustomed to dealing with non-natives.</u>  |      |
| Speakers at this level are able to manage <u>several uncomplicated communicative tasks</u> in straightforward social situations. These speakers sometimes respond to simple, direct questions or requests for information. They are also able to ask a few formulaic questions. Their language consists primarily of short and sometimes incomplete sentences in the present, and may be hesitant or inaccurate. <u>They can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors used to non-natives.</u>  |      |
| Speakers at this level <u>communicate minimally by using a number of isolated words and memorized phrases</u> limited by the familiar situation. When responding to direct questions, they may say only two or three words at a time or give an occasional stock answer. They pause frequently as they search for simple vocabulary or attempt to recycle their own and their interlocutor's words. <u>They may be understood with difficulty even by sympathetic interlocutors accustomed to dealing with non-natives.</u>   |      |
| Speakers at this level <u>have no real functional ability</u> because of their pronunciation, may be unintelligible. Given adequate time and familiar cues, they may be able to exchange greetings, give their identity, and name a number of familiar objects from their immediate environment. However, <u>they are unable to participate in a true conversational exchange.</u>  |      |

**<Korean Naval Officers' Strengths and Weaknesses>**

4. What do you think Korean naval officers' strengths are in terms of their use of English?

5. What do you think Korean naval officers' weaknesses are in terms of their use of English?

6. What kinds of knowledge do you think is needed to Korean naval officers for successful performance of the target tasks besides linguistic knowledge such as grammar or vocabulary? In other words, what kinds of contents do you think is necessary to be taught to Korean naval officers in Military English courses?

7. Have you ever experienced any miscommunications with Korean naval officers caused by their different culture? If yes, could you describe those situations?

**APPENDIX D: TARGET SITUATIONS & TASKS FOR  
PARTICULAR BILLETS OF KOREAN NAVAL OFFICERS**

**1. Battle Watch Officer in a Multilateral Task Force against piracy**

A. Target situations and tasks

| Situation  | Task  | Means of communication   |
|--|---|--|
| Conducting military operations under the commander       | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Coordinating the subordinate military assets under the commander's command               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Assigning missions to the subordinate units</li> <li>- Controlling the subordinate units' actions</li> <li>- Gathering and assessing information from various sources</li> <li>- Coordinating military trainings of the subordinate units</li> </ul> </li> <li>➤ Synthesizing reports from the subordinate units</li> <li>➤ Reporting current situations or completed operations to the upper military units</li> <li>➤ Maintaining the records of operations and trainings</li> </ul> | <p>Satellites chatting system, satellite phone, naval message</p> <p>Satellites chatting system, satellite phone, naval message</p> <p>Satellites chatting system, satellite phone, naval message</p> <p>Naval message, document</p> |
| Visiting other vessels                                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Cooperation for a visit: setting an itinerary, informing the information about visitors to hosting vessels</li> <li>➤ Participating in talks</li> <li>➤ Interpreting for Korean naval officers</li> </ul>  | <p>Document / telephone</p> <p>Face-to-face communication</p> <p>Face-to-face communication</p>  |
| Foreign officers' visit to the commander / Korean vessel | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Cooperation before a visit: setting an itinerary, figuring out the information about visitors</li> <li>➤ Participating in a talk</li> <li>➤ Interpreting for Korean naval officers</li> </ul>  | <p>Document / telephone</p> <p>Face-to-face communication</p> <p>Face-to-face communication</p>  |
| Foreign media's visit to the commander / Korean vessel   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Guiding journalists around the vessel / the task force</li> <li>➤ Making and providing a news release</li> <li>➤ Describing current situations and explaining upcoming military exercises / operations</li> </ul>  | <p>Face-to-face communication</p> <p>Document</p> <p>Face-to-face communication</p>  |
| Administration   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Providing helps to foreign liaison officers who stay in the Korean vessel</li> </ul>   | <p>Face-to-face communication</p>  |
| Briefing   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Making PPT slides / documents</li> <li>➤ Presenting current situations and upcoming military exercises / operations</li> <li>➤ Answering questions</li> <li>➤ Assessing past operations and discussing the effectiveness of next operations</li> </ul>   | <p>PPT slides, documents</p> <p>Presentation</p> <p>Face-to-face communication</p> <p>Face-to-face communication</p>   |

## 2. PEP (Personal Exchange Program) Officer in Navy Warfare Development Command (NWDC) of the US navy

| Situation                                   | Task   | Means of communication   |
|---|--|--|
| Coordinating between U.S. navy and ROK navy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Providing requested information about the Korean Navy to U.S. Navy</li> <li>➤ Identifying requested information about U.S. Navy by the Korean Navy</li> <li>➤ Taking part in various events held by U.S. Navy as a representative of the Korean navy</li> <li>➤ Small talks with U.S. naval officers for maintaining friendship between the two navies</li> </ul> | <p>Telephone, email, face-to-face conversation</p> <p>Telephone, email, face-to-face conversation</p> <p>Face-to-face conversation</p> <p>Telephone, email, letter face-to-face conversation</p> |
| Advising the NWDC                           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Assessing and evaluating new military strategies and tactics</li> <li>➤ Providing opinions to assist in the development of naval tactics</li> <li>➤ Advise NWDC with his knowledge and skills to help solve or resolve contentious or complex warfighting issues</li> </ul>   | <p>Documents, journals, booklets</p> <p>Face-to-face conversation, document, email, telephone</p> <p>Face-to-face conversation, document, email, telephone</p>                                   |
| Participating in a conference               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Listening to presentations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Asking questions</li> </ul> </li> <li>➤ Giving a presentation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Answering questions</li> </ul> </li> <li>➤ Interpreting for other Korean participants in the conference</li> </ul>   | <p>Face-to-face conversation, real time video chatting system</p> <p>Face-to-face conversation, real time video chatting system</p> <p>Face-to-face conversation</p>                             |
| Guiding guests (from Korea)                 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Setting an itinerary for the guests</li> <li>➤ Tour guiding around the facilities of the U.S. Navy or tourist attractions in the U.S.</li> </ul>  | <p>Telephone, email, face-to-face conversation</p> <p>Face-to-face conversation</p>  |

### 3. Flagaide to Commander, U.S. Naval Forces Korea in the ROK-US Combined Command

| Situation   | Task   | Means of communication   |
|---|--|--|
| Arranging the commander's schedule                  | ➤ Checking the commander's intentions  | Face-to-face conversation, telephone, email  |
|   | ➤ Checking the details of an event such as dress code, meals transportations, participants, souvenirs and moving lines | Face-to-face conversation, telephone, document   |
| Preparing talks                                     | ➤ Making <i>Talking Points</i><br>- Collecting data for the documents  | Face-to-face conversation, telephone, email, documents<br>Internet websites<br>Documents |
|   | - Making the documents   |  |
| Setting a schedule for guests to the commander      | ➤ Setting the details of a visit such as dress code, meals, souvenirs and the place to have a talk                     | Face-to-face conversation, telephone, email  |
|   | ➤ Making the schedule for guests and sending it to them  | Document   |
| Preparing an event hosted by U.S. Navy              | ➤ Determining the invitees to an event   | Face-to-face conversation, telephone, email  |
|   | ➤ Sending out invitations to the invitees  | Document   |
|   | ➤ Receiving RSVP   | Document, telephone  |
|   | ➤ Coordinating between U.S. Navy and Korean invitees   | Face-to-face conversation, telephone, email  |
|   | ➤ Delivering the commander's intentions to the staffs  | Face-to-face conversation, telephone, email  |
|   | ➤ Explaining the contexts of Korea or Korean culture to the commander  | Face-to-face conversation  |
|   | ➤ Helping the interpreter interpret for the commander  | Face-to-face conversation  |
| Aiding the commander in combined military exercises | ➤ Setting a schedule for the commander during an exercise  | Face-to-face conversation, telephone, email  |
|   | ➤ Helping the commander understand the capability of the Korean Navy   | Face-to-face conversation  |
|   | ➤ Helping the interpreter interpret for the commander in a military conference   | Face-to-face conversation  |

#### 4. Airport / harbor control officer in an UN peacekeeping operation

| Situation  | Task  | Means of communication                            |
|--|---|---|
| Coordinating between the military forces and the upper units | ➤ Providing requested information to the upper military units or the UN headquarters  | Email, telephone, documents                       |
|  | ➤ Reporting current situations and conducted operations to the upper military units or the UN headquarters                    | Email, telephone, documents                       |
| Working in the airport                                       | ➤ Coordinating the entry and departure procedures in the airport whenever military personnel move in to or out of the country | Face-to-face conversation,<br>Documents           |
| Working in the harbor  | ➤ Coordinating customs clearance for the supplies for the peacekeeping operation forces                                       | Face-to-face conversation,<br>document, telephone |
|  | ➤ Checking the condition of the supplies in containers  | Face-to-face conversation                         |
|  | ➤ Requesting cooperation to other organizations for using the equipment for unloading the containers                          | Face-to-face conversation,<br>telephone           |
|  | ➤ Coordinating unloading procedures for the supplies  | Face-to-face conversation                         |
| Watch-keeping  | ➤ Supervising transporting the containers from the harbor to the military post  | Face-to-face conversation                         |
|  | ➤ Supervising the guarding troop to protect the military post   | Face-to-face conversation                         |
|  | ➤ Collaborating with officers from other countries  | Face-to-face conversation                         |
| Guests' visiting to the military post                        | ➤ Interacting with UN officials or natives for various kinds of issues  | Face-to-face conversation                         |
|  | ➤ Guiding guests during an event hosted by the peacekeeping operation forces  | Face-to-face conversation                         |
|  | ➤ Guiding guests around the military post   | Face-to-face conversation                         |