TABLE 4
Purposes of Learning English

Item	Description	NA		Evaluation		U	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
11-01	to get a good grade in school	3.01	0.96	3.41	0.64	716.5	.09
11-02	to enter a good university	3.13	0.85	3.37	0.63	785.0	.28
11-03	to get a good job in the future	3.25	0.82	3.33	0.73	871.5	.76
11-04	to be acknowledged by other people	2.45	0.89	2.85	0.82	682.0	.05
11-05	to use it in real life situations	3.06	0.95	2.62	1.10	669.5	.07
11-06	to have a conversation with foreigners	2.97	0.93	2.67	1.07	748.5	.21
11-07	to travel to another country	2.88	0.95	2.70	1.10	819.0	.53
11-08	to understand songs and dramas in English	2.96	0.93	2.52	1.01	692.0	.06
11-09	because I just like English	2.33	0.83	2.30	1.03	857.0	.76
11-10	I don't know why I learn English	1.66	0.77	1.96	1.08	760.0	.30

Taken together, the HSS group was biased toward the instrumental than the integrative purpose while the ESS group rated on the two components nearly to the same extent. The HSS group's preference for the instrumental purpose may reflect their practical issues. Since these students had just taken the NCSAT, they may have focused on learning English for practical gains such as obtaining high English scores in the tests for a college. The ESS group, by contrast, mostly found the motivation of learning English in integrative purposes, such as using the language as a tool for communication, presumably because they were relatively free from the burden of exams. The gap in the response patterns between the two student groups suggests that the English curriculum needs to be designed specific to students' current needs and purposes. That is, more weight on the contents related to instrumental purposes will be desirable for students at higher grades, whereas communicative English classes will be more appropriate for lower-grade students. For example, lower grades can get more benefit when the curriculum focuses heavily on listening and speaking and provides more communicative tasks in which they can practice and use key expressions. On the other hand, higher graders can be more motivated to participate if the curriculum increases the contents of listening, reading, and grammar, as these skills are crucial for the currently implemented examinations for college entrance in Korea.

4.2. Necessity of English Education

This construct consisted of two questions that asked whether participants think English should be taught only to those who want or need it (Q12) and why they think so (Q13). In responses to Q12, a noticeable difference was found between the two groups. The ESS group did not entirely agree to the claim that English should be taught only to those who

want or need it, as indicated by the relatively low agreement ratings ($M = 2.18$, $SD = 0.82$) on a scale from 1 to 4. Among the 66 respondents who answered the open-ended question Q13, 45 (68.18%) provided generally positive reasons for the necessity of English education. Twenty-four of them (36.36%) wrote that English is necessary, important, or useful in real life, 30 (19.70%) responded that English is necessary as a global language, and 8 (12.12%) noted that English is crucial in order to enter a good university or to get a good job. The remaining 21 students (31.82%) took a negative stance toward the necessity of English education, mentioning that English is not necessary for all students.

Compared to the ESS group, the HSS group gave higher ratings for the claim that English should be taught exclusively for students who want or need it ($M = 2.70$, $SD = 0.87$). A Mann-Whitney U test revealed that the ratings of the HSS group were significantly higher than those of the ESS group ($U = 616.0$, p < .01). In the following open-ended question in Q13, 11 (50.00%) out of 22 in the HSS group responded that English should be taught only for students who need it: six answers (27.27%) concerned uselessness of learning English; three (13.64%) expressed the unnecessity of learning English; one (4.55%) responded that English is too difficult; one student (4.55%) mentioned that learning English is unnecessary with the aid of an automatic translator. The remaining 11 respondents (50%) argued for the necessity of English education for all students for the reasons that English is useful and necessary ($N = 6$, 27.27%) and should be learned as a global language ($N = 5$, 22.73%).

Overall, more of the HSS group students objected to the idea that English education is necessary for all students than the ESS group did. These results offer important implications for establishing the objectives for the English curriculum at different school levels. As the majority of Korean students map out their career plan after entering a high school, it may be necessary to allow students to choose how many lesson hours they would receive to further improve their English, according to their career plan, from 11th grade at which the mandatory English curriculum is complete and the elective English curriculum begins. Some students may consider English less important for their future career and thus find it more worthwhile spending their school time learning other subjects relevant to their career; others may think it essential to achieve a high level of English proficiency according to their career plan. For lower graders, on the other hand, whose future plans are not yet clearly established, it may be necessary to provide them opportunities to develop their English proficiency on the basic skills in a balanced way while placing more emphasis on listening and speaking (see Section 4.2). For example, elementary school teachers may organize their class contents to help students have a variety of language use experience in the domains of speaking and listening in addition to reading and writing through intriguing activities and tasks.

4.3. Ideal Time for Starting English Education

When asked about the best time for starting English education (Q14), the ESS group chose 1st grade (N = 18, 26.87%) and 3rd grade (N = 18, 26.87%) most frequently. The next preferred option was 2nd grade (N = 12, 17.91%), followed by after 6th grade (N = 8, 11.94%), 4th grade (N = 6, 8.96%), and 5th grade (N = 5, 7.46%). The HSS group also selected 3rd grade (N = 9, 33.33%) most frequently as the appropriate starting point of English education, but differed from the ESS group in their preference order of the other options: after 6th grade (N = 8, 29.63%) being the next most highly preferred choice, followed by 1st grade (N = 4, 14.81%), 2nd grade (N = 3, 11.11%), 5th grade (N = 2, 7.41%), and 4th grade (N = 1, 3.70%).

It is noteworthy that both groups selected 3rd grade as the most appropriate point to start English education. Given that this level is the actual starting point of English education under the current curriculum in Korea, this finding indicates that the current timing of starting English education generally meets students' needs. However, it should also be noted that a considerable number of the HSS respondents chose after 6th grade (29.63%) as the optimal starting point, reflecting their view that English education should start much later. In fact, six students out of 15 who answered the open-ended item Q15 asking the reason for their choice of the ideal time for English education in Q14 noted that it is Korean that should be full acquired before starting to learn English. Unlike the HSS group, a smaller proportion of students in the ESS group responded with after 6th grade (11.94%) as the best time of starting English education. This response pattern may be somewhat related to the relatively weak agreement with the necessity of English education among the students in the HSS group (see Section 4.2).

4.4. Time Allotments

This question asked how appropriate the time allotments were for the English classes currently implemented at different levels. Participants rated each item on a scale from 1 (too few) to 5 (too many) with 3 (appropriate) in the middle. The ESS group chose 4.5~5 English classes per week for 10th graders as the most appropriate (M = 3.20, SD = 0.96), followed by the choices of 3~4 English classes per week to 7th to 9th grades (M = 2.87, SD = 0.83), 3 English classes per week to 5th and 6th grades (M = 2.79, SD = 0.71), and 2 English classes per week to 3rd and 4th grades (M = 2.70, SD = 0.79). The HSS group gave the highest ratings to 4.5~5 English classes per week for 10th graders (M = 3.37, SD = 0.69), followed by 3 English classes per week for 5th and 6th graders (M = 2.85, SD = 0.60), 3~4 English classes per week for 7th to 9th graders (M = 2.81, SD = 0.62), and 2 English classes per week

for 3rd and 4th graders (M = 2.77, SD = 0.59).

The analysis of the percentage of students' responses revealed that at least half of the students in each group regarded each time allotment appropriate (see Figure 1). Furthermore, the two groups' mean ratings to all items were close to 3 and did not show any significant difference in Mann-Whitney U tests. These results indicate that both groups considered each of the time allotments as appropriate.

FIGURE 1
Time Allotments
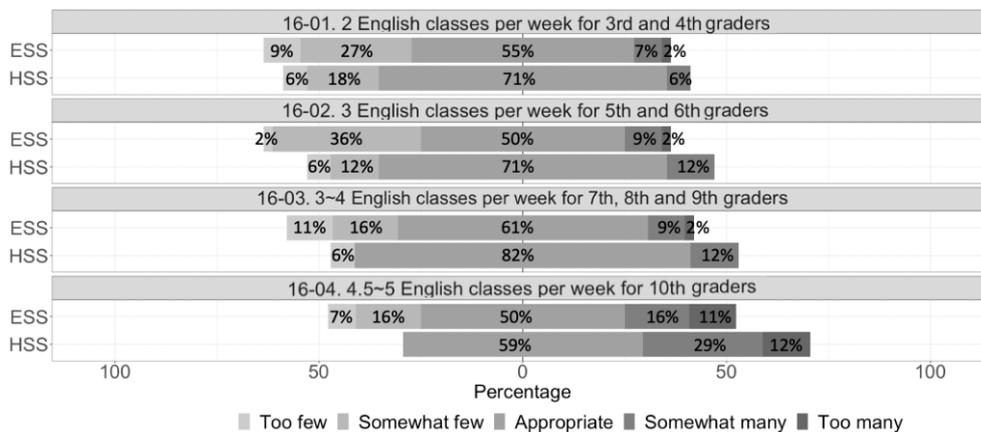
One noticeable finding is that no one in the HSS group chose "somewhat few" or "too few" for *4.5–5 classes allotted to English to 10th graders*, although 41% of the students in this group chose either "somewhat many" or "too many" for this item. This response pattern suggests that at least some students in the HSS group thought it necessary to reduce the amount of time for English classes provided to 10th grade students in the current curriculum. This tendency is consistent with the recognition in some students that English is not necessary for all students (see Section 4.2) and that English education needs to begin later than the 3rd grade (see Section 4.3). As will be discussed in Section 4.8, this response pattern is also related to this group's choice of "self-study" as the most preferred activity during a high school English class.

4.5. Difficulty Gaps Between Different School Levels

This question asked about how afraid ESS group participants are if English would get harder at different school levels (i.e., middle school after graduating the elementary school, high school after graduating the middle school) and how difficult it actually was for HSS

group participants to study English at different school levels. Participants provided the degree of their concerns on this issue on a scale from 1 (Not concerned at all) to 4 (Concerned a lot). The ESS group showed more concerns about expected difficulties of learning English in the high school ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.86$) than in the middle school ($M = 2.78$, $SD = 0.92$); the difference in this group's ratings between these two sub-items showed approaching significance ($U = 1760.0$, $p = .057$). In line with these results, the HSS group responded that they experienced greater difficulties in the high school ($M = 3.07$, $SD = 0.92$) than in the middle school ($M = 2.58$, $SD = 0.81$), also showing a marginally significant difference between the two sub-items ($U = 223.5$, $p = .057$). These results indicate that the difficulty gaps anticipated by the elementary school students resonated with the difficulties actually experienced by the high school students.

Based on these findings, future work should identify potential reasons underlying the different degrees of difficulty gaps among different school levels using a qualitative method, such as an interview. Importantly, administrators and teachers need to pay attention to the greater concerns about the difficulty gap between the middle and high schools than between the elementary and middle schools. Depending on the causes of the difficulties that high school students experience, different approaches should be taken to the curriculum design. For example, if major sources of difficulties in high school English courses stem from textbooks, it may be helpful to compare textbooks used in different school levels and adjust structural complexity and lexical diversity to minimize difficulty gaps between them.

4.6. Domain

In this question, the ESS group and the HSS group rated each domain of language function according to its necessity and its helpfulness, respectively. The ESS group indicated strong needs for all domains, with the highest rating for speaking ($M = 3.46$, $SD = 0.70$), followed by grammar ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 0.83$), listening ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 0.73$), writing ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 0.70$), and reading ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 0.73$). In contrast, the HSS group's mean rating for each domain was lower than that of the ESS group, with reading ($M = 2.70$, $SD = 0.78$) and listening ($M = 2.56$, $SD = 0.75$) rated somewhat higher than writing ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 0.98$), grammar ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 0.85$), and speaking ($M = 2.22$, $SD = 0.80$).

Mann-Whitney U tests showed significantly higher ratings in the ESS group than in the HSS group for every domain (listening: $U = 461.5$, $p < .01$; speaking: $U = 250.0$, $p < .01$; reading: $U = 593.0$, $p < .01$; writing: $U = 504.0$, $p < .01$; grammar: $U = 404.5$, $p < .01$). Unlike the ESS group who had high ratings across the domains (range: 3.21–3.46), the HSS group responded that reading and listening were more helpful than writing, grammar, and speaking. Part of the reason for the HSS group's response pattern may be found in the

importance of these language skills in preparing the NCSAT, which includes reading and listening as the two main constructs of assessment. These results also align with the HSS group's motivation to learn English for instrumental purposes (see Section 4.1). The two groups' contrasting response patterns point to the need for designing the English curriculum appropriate to the current needs and specific goals of students at different school levels.

4.7. Generalized Knowledge

The ESS group rated each piece of the generalized knowledge outlined in the English curriculum according to the perceived importance, and the HSS group evaluated how each piece of knowledge was well-acquired. The two groups' ratings on each item of this component are present in Table 5.

TABLE 5
Generalized Knowledge

Item	Description	NA		Evaluation		U	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
19-01	distinguish sounds, stress, rhythm or intonation	2.88	0.77	2.89	0.75	877.5	0.90
19-02	comprehend a word, a phrase or a sentence	2.92	0.83	3.07	0.73	819.5	0.51
19-03	comprehend the detailed information of speech or conversation	3.20	0.71	3.00	0.73	748.0	0.18
19-04	comprehend the topic of speech or conversation	3.21	0.73	3.33	0.62	828.0	0.55
19-05	comprehend the flow of the speech or conversation	2.92	0.83	3.11	0.64	798.0	0.39
19-06	repeat after the sound	3.17	0.71	3.07	0.73	828.5	0.55
19-07	say a word or a sentence	3.42	0.72	3.19	0.62	686.5	0.05
19-08	convey meaning in speech	3.24	0.84	3.22	0.58	816.0	0.48
19-09	exchange meaning in conversation	3.00	0.91	2.78	0.93	769.5	0.28
19-10	understand the relationship between sound and spelling	3.36	0.78	3.11	0.64	683.0	0.05
19-11	comprehend a word or a sentence in text	3.30	0.76	2.85	0.82	611.0	0.01
19-12	comprehend the detailed information of a text	3.32	0.77	3.15	0.72	743.0	0.21
19-13	comprehend the topic of a text	3.35	0.77	2.93	0.87	635.5	0.02
19-14	comprehend the logical relationship within a text	3.39	0.76	3.04	0.76	643.5	0.02
19-15	understand the connotative meaning of a text	2.89	0.95	3.07	0.78	800.5	0.48
19-16	write alphabet letters	3.06	0.80	3.04	0.71	853.0	0.73
19-17	write a word or a phrase	3.26	0.78	3.07	0.73	737.0	0.18
19-18	write a sentence	3.27	0.78	3.00	0.78	705.5	0.09

The ESS group gave high ratings (range: 2.88–3.42) for all pieces of the knowledge, with the three most highly rated ones of *saying a word or a sentence* ($M = 3.42$, $SD = 0.72$), *comprehending the logical relationship within a text* ($M = 3.39$, $SD = 0.76$), and *understanding the relationship between sound and spelling* ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 0.78$). This group gave the lowest ratings to *distinguishing sounds, stress, rhythm or intonation* ($M =$

2.88, $SD = 0.77$), *understanding the connotative meaning of a text* ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 0.95$), and *comprehending the flow of the speech or conversation* ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 0.83$). The HSS group responded that all pieces of the knowledge were relatively well-acquired (range: 2.78–3.33). The highest-ranked knowledge was *comprehending the topic of speech or conversation* ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 0.62$), followed by *conveying meaning in speech* ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 0.58$), and *saying a word or a sentence* ($M = 3.19$, $SD = 0.62$). In contrast, the least well-acquired knowledge was *exchanging meaning in conversation* ($M = 2.78$, $SD = 0.93$), *comprehending a word or a sentence in text* ($M = 2.85$, $SD = 0.82$), and *distinguishing sounds, stress, rhythm or intonation* ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 0.75$). Mann-Whitney U tests revealed significant differences between the needs ratings from the ESS group and the achievement ratings from the HSS group in the three items: *comprehending a word or a sentence in text* ($U = 611.0$, $p < .05$), *comprehending the topic of a text* ($U = 635.5$, $p < .05$), and *comprehending the logical relationship within a text* ($U = 643.5$, $p < .05$), all with the significantly lower ratings from the HSS group than from the ESS group. This result indicates the gap between the perceived importance of these types of knowledge and the evaluation of their achievement. Noticeably, these pieces of knowledge are strongly associated with reading, suggesting that despite the perceived importance and helpfulness of reading as indicated by the students' response patterns (see Section 4.6), the current curriculum was considered to fall short of fulfilling the needs from the students for achieving specific reading skills. The relatively low achievement ratings provided by the HSS group in this domain highlight the importance for curriculum developers to assign more contents and activities dedicated to improving students' reading skills. For example, the Korean EFL textbooks mostly contain only a single text per lesson unit. Increasing the number of reading texts in the textbook and/or offering more supplementary text materials can be an effective way to facilitate students' achievement associated with reading.

4.8. English Learning Activities

This question asked the students to rate each activity according to their usefulness on a scale from 1 (Not useful at all) to 4 (Useful a lot). Table 6 provides statistical details of each item. The ESS group rated *translation* ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 0.70$), *exam* ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 0.82$), and *rote memorization of vocabulary* ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 0.85$) as the most helpful activities. The activities that received the lowest ratings were *roleplay* ($M = 2.52$, $SD = 1.02$), *singing a chant* ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 0.96$), and *singing a song* ($M = 2.72$, $SD = 0.92$). The HSS group gave the highest ratings for *self-study* ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 0.66$), *translation* ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.75$), and *rote memorization of vocabulary* ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 0.68$) while giving the lowest ratings for *roleplay* ($M = 2.41$, $SD = 0.89$), *fill-in-the-blank activity* ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 0.89$), and *pair work* ($M = 2.54$, $SD = 0.95$).

TABLE 6

Activities

Item	Description	NA		Evaluation		U	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
20-01	pronunciation practice	3.07	0.74	2.74	0.66	664.5	0.02
20-02	rote memorization of vocabulary	3.22	0.85	3.00	0.68	710.0	0.07
20-03	rote memorization of sentences	3.01	0.84	2.67	0.92	702.5	0.07
20-04	writing after a model (alphabet letter/word/sentence)	2.90	0.92	2.74	0.86	807.5	0.38
20-05	watching a dialogue in the textbook	2.81	0.82	2.56	1.01	780.0	0.27
20-06	watching a movie clip	2.99	0.75	2.81	0.92	813.0	0.41
20-07	reading a story in the textbook	2.90	0.76	2.88	0.86	869.5	0.99
20-08	reading a story not in the textbook	3.09	0.79	2.81	1.00	767.5	0.22
20-09	writing a sentence or text	3.19	0.78	2.74	0.81	620.0	0.01
20-10	translation	3.33	0.70	3.11	0.75	754.0	0.16
20-11	fill-in-the-blank activity	3.05	0.73	2.48	0.89	575.0	0.04
20-12	correction exercise	3.10	0.74	2.67	0.83	655.5	0.02
20-13	singing a song	2.72	0.92	2.85	0.95	838.0	0.56
20-14	singing a chant	2.57	0.96	2.56	1.01	896.5	0.94
20-15	roleplay	2.52	1.02	2.41	0.89	835.5	0.55
20-16	game	2.93	0.94	2.70	0.87	762.0	0.21
20-17	self-study	2.82	0.90	3.15	0.66	739.0	0.14
20-18	pair work	2.72	0.95	2.54	0.95	774.5	0.39
20-19	group work	2.95	0.95	2.56	0.93	678.5	0.06
20-20	presentation	3.18	0.78	2.85	0.86	701.5	0.06
20-21	exam	3.24	0.82	2.70	0.99	624.0	0.01

Mann-Whitney U tests demonstrated that the ESS group gave significantly higher ratings than the HSS group for the five following activities: *pronunciation practice* (U = 664.5, $p < .05$), *writing a sentence or text* (U = 620.0, $p < .05$), *fill-in-the-blank activity* (U = 575.0, $p < .01$), *correction exercise* (U = 655.5, $p < .05$), and *exam* (U = 624.0, $p < .05$).

Analyses of needs and evaluation for the activity component showed both similarities and dissimilarities between the two groups. We focus on three interesting patterns observed. First, *self-study* was rated as the most helpful activity. This may be relevant to the fact that the high school students needed more time to study alone for the NCSAT. Since the exam requires students to read long texts and answer comprehension questions within a restricted amount of time, students need to have faster access to vocabulary by memorizing words and phrases, to grasp main ideas and specific details of a text, to become familiar with different item patterns in the exam, and to learn how to manage time efficiently, which call for concentrative and intensive training that may be effectively achieved through self-study. The high rating of *self-study* among the HSS group also indicates that the activities provided by the current English curriculum should be reconsidered in terms of their effectiveness. In this sense, curriculum developers need to pay more attention to the high schoolers' specific needs, designing activities that help them achieve their instrumental purposes (see Section 4.1).

Second, the HSS group rated pair work and group work activities considerably low. Their low ratings for these activities, which are concerned with speaking, match their perception of the speaking domain as the least helpful (see Section 4.6). Unlike this group, the ESS group gave higher ratings to these two activities, consistent with their strongest needs for speaking. The two groups' different perspectives toward the need of speaking activities require curriculum developers and teachers to take different approaches when designing a curriculum for each level. For lower-grade students, for example, the quantity and quality of activities dedicated to communication should be further improved. For instance, elementary school teachers can apply task-based language teaching (TBLT) in a speaking class where oral tasks involve meaningful communicative activities (Lee & Park, 2001) with topics that intrigue young students. Another helpful activity to facilitate speaking skills is to record students' interactions during task performance and allow them to review their performance afterward, as they can trace their own speaking and develop speaking strategies through self-monitoring (e.g., Chamot & Kupper, 1989). For older students, on the other hand, more attention should be given to other activities that help them prepare for the NCSAT, such as self-study, translation and rote memorization of vocabulary. More importantly, teachers can make use of these activities and integrate them with the other highly-rated activities, such as reading a story in the textbook (M = 2.88, SD = 0.86), presentation (M = 2.85, SD = 0.86), and singing a song (M = 2.85, SD = 0.95). For example, they can facilitate students to prepare for a presentation while making the students use new vocabulary items that they provide. This way, students can improve their general English communicative competence and also be ready for the NCSAT.

Finally, the ESS group rated translation, exam, and rote memorization of vocabulary as the most helpful while considering roleplay, singing a chant, and singing a song as the least helpful. These results are somewhat unexpected given that young learners generally prefer somewhat active activities like roleplay (e.g., Ba & Huan, 2017) and singing (e.g., Džanić & Pejić, 2016) over rote learning and memorization. While it remains less clear about this outcome, we speculate that such active activities currently implemented in elementary school classrooms fall short of motivating students. Since the success of those activities depends on several factors, such as students' confidence and contents associated with the activities (Ba & Huan, 2017), future work needs to consider these factors to find effective ways to implement those activities in EFL classrooms.

5. GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

There have been several studies that individually focused on either needs analysis or evaluation on English curriculum (Gardener & Winslow, 1983; Long, 2005; Richterich,

1983; Seedhouse, 1995; Watanabe, 2006; West, 1994), yet little research has compared students' needs with evaluation across different school levels in the EFL context. Furthermore, in the course of curriculum development and improvement, young students have often been overlooked despite their status as the major stakeholders (Long, 2005; Watanabe, 2006) and the emphasis of the learner-centered approach placed in the curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2015b). To address these gaps, this study aimed to offer productive directions for improving the current English curriculum in Korea by comparing perceived needs from elementary school students as current curriculum-takers and evaluation from high school students as curriculum-completers through needs analysis and evaluation surveys.

Our analyses of the surveys revealed similarities and differences between the students' needs for and evaluation of the English curriculum. The two student groups agreed upon the starting point of English education and the time allotment at each level in general. However, significant gaps were found between the two groups in several components of survey items, including the English learning purpose, the necessity of English education for all students, the domain of language function, generalized knowledge, and English-learning activities. Notably, the two groups' response patterns on these components reflected the difference in their specific goals of learning English: Whereas the curriculum-takers had balanced views toward learning English between instrumental purposes and integrative purposes, the curriculum-completers focused more on the former than on the latter and evaluated the curriculum based on whether it sufficiently met their current objectives.

Our findings shed light on the curriculum improvement for educational effectiveness in several aspects. First, the distinct response patterns between the groups suggest that the curriculum should be designed and adjusted to students' current goals. According to our survey results, communicative language teaching seems desirable to young students than high school students, which reflects the main objectives of the current classrooms to some degree. Elementary school teachers can thus improve the curriculum components associated with listening and speaking by devising oral tasks involving meaningful communicative activities and interesting topics. In contrast, high school teachers need to carefully design their curriculum to help students prepare the NCSAT by providing more texts to read and allowing students more time for training for the exam and improve their general English communicative competence. Such learner-oriented approaches to curriculum development may increase the effectiveness of class contents by inducing students' participation and helping them achieve their current goals.

Second, our results implicate the importance of considering students' perception and evaluation of the curriculum in the course of curriculum planning and implementation. In our surveys, many students expressed ideas that diverged from what is actually

implemented under the current English curriculum. For instance, the high school students gave low ratings on communicative activities such as roleplay and pair work, although these activities are currently administered in many high school classrooms. In addition, the students displayed a strong preference for self-study, suggesting that they saw this activity as one of the most helpful activities for achieving their present objectives. These results do not necessarily indicate that activities such as roleplay and pair work are less helpful and thus should be minimized in a classroom. Rather, it is important to diagnose potential reasons that these activities received low ratings from the students and explore diverse ways to implement them more effectively. Since learners' needs and evaluations play an important role in student engagement in classroom activities (e.g., Yim, 2016), our findings indicate that the curriculum needs to be modified and implemented in a way that motivates students to participate in classroom activities more actively. For example, while keeping the class content closely associated with the NCSAT, teachers can conduct a variety of activities that students like in class. They can design a task where students need to translate and use memorized vocabulary items while reading a story in the textbook, singing a song, and giving a presentation.

Third, the products of our study may offer a promising framework for follow-up research, providing resources for teachers and curriculum developers interested in conducting needs and evaluation analyses. Researchers may benefit from the survey items developed for this study that were validated through consultation with several education and survey development experts. Further studies using our survey items will thus allow for cross-study comparisons that involve learners from various backgrounds in diverse learning contexts, which can advance our understanding of students' perceptions of curriculum and contribute to the field of curriculum development and improvement.

Finally, we note some limitations and directions for future research. One limitation is that the two groups may not be comparable in terms of the regions where they lived: curriculum-takers were an urban Korean population in Seoul, whereas curriculum-completers were residing in Cheonan, a city located in the northeast part of South Chungcheong. While we were unable to control for these gaps by collecting data from different regions due to practical reasons, further studies should consider the regional variable of student samples to minimize its influence on the results of surveys. In addition, as anonymous reviewers pointed out, these two groups could have gone through different English learning experience by the point of participating in this study due to generational changes (e.g., more importance of English learning placed on the younger generation) and policy changes (e.g., changes made on the NCSAT). Also, we cannot exclude a possibility that the cognitive abilities and past language learning experiences in these two groups affected the results. These gaps between the groups may have had significant impacts on the current results, which requires some caution regarding the interpretation of our findings. Another limitation concerns the

relatively small number of participants. Future work should include more participants from various regions in Korea to generalize the present findings. Furthermore, future work should identify specific reasons underlying participants' responses on each survey item, using a qualitative method, such as a post-survey interview. This work would help determine what aspects of the curriculum should be improved. Along with these future directions, the current study is expected to offer insights into what aspects of the general English curriculum should be modified and how they can be improved.

REFERENCES

Alderson, J. C., & Scott, M. (1992). Insiders, outsiders and participatory evaluation. In J. C. Alderson & A. Beretta (Eds.), *Evaluating second language education* (pp. 25-57). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Ba, T. T. B., & Huan, N. B. (2017). Reading strategy instruction to Vietnamese young language learners: Teachers' practices and perceptions. *Can Tho University Journal of Science, 7*, 138-147.

Berwick, R. (1989). Needs assessment in language programming: From theory to practice. In R. K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 48-62). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Bosher, S., & Smalkoski, K. (2002). From needs analysis to curriculum development: Designing a course in health-care communication for immigrant students in the USA. *English for Specific Purposes, 21*(1), 59-79.

Brindley, G. (1989). The role of needs analysis in adult ESL programme design. In R. K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 63-77). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Broström, S. (2012). Children's participation in research. *International Journal of Early Years Education, 20*(1), 257-269.

Brown, J. D. (1989). Language program evaluation: A synthesis of existing possibilities. In K. Johnson (Ed.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 222-241). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, J. D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Butler, Y. G. (2004). What level of English proficiency do elementary school teachers need to attain to teach EFL? Case studies from Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(2), 245-278.

Cameron, R. (1998). A language-focused needs analysis for ESL-speaking nursing students in class and clinic. *Foreign Language Annals, 31*(2), 203-218.

Chamot, A. U., & Kupper, L. (1989). Learning strategies in foreign language instruction. *Foreign Language Annals, 22*(1), 13-22.

Coleman, H. (1992). Moving the goalposts: Project evaluation in practice. In J. C. Alderson & A. Beretta (Eds.), *Evaluating second language education* (pp. 222-246). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Cowling, J. D. (2007). Needs analysis: Planning a syllabus for a series of intensive workplace courses at a leading Japanese company. *English for Specific Purposes, 26*(4), 426-442.

Dillon, W. R., & Goldstein, M. (1984). *Multivariate analysis, methods and applications*. New York: Wiley.

Džanić, N. D., & Pejić, A. (2016). The effect of using songs on young learners and their motivation for learning English. *An Interdisciplinary Journal, 1*(2), 40-54.

Elder, C. (2009). Reconciling accountability and development needs in heritage language education: A communication challenge for the evaluation consultant. *Language Teaching Research, 13*(1), 15-33.

Ferris, D. (1998). Students' views of academic aural/oral skills: A comparative needs analysis. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(2), 289-318.

Gardener, P., & Winslow, J. (1983). Present and proposed methods of determining the needs of students in public sector higher education. In R. Richterich (Ed.), *Case studies in identifying language needs* (pp. 69-79). Oxford, UK: Pergamon.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Harrop, M. F. (1999). *Improving curriculum: Practices and problems that exist in local school settings* Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Massachusetts Amherst, Amherst, MA.

Howell, A. (2018). Children's participation in their education, research and society. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 39*(3), 478-485.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centered approach.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Jasso-Aguilar, R. (1999). Sources, methods and triangulation in needs analysis: A critical perspective in a case study of Waikiki hotel maids. *English for Specific Purposes, 18*(1), 27-40.

Kaewpet, C. (2009). A Framework for investigating learner needs: Needs analysis extended to curriculum development. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 6*(2), 209-220.

Kim, E., & Jeon, J. H. (2005). A comparative study of the national English curricula of Korea, China and Japan: Educational policies and practices in the teaching of English. *English Teaching, 60*(3), 27-48.

Kim, J. (2014). Continuity problems of elementary and secondary English education: Sequence analysis of English textbooks. *Language Research, 50,* 161-184.

Lee, H. W., & Park, M. R. (2001). A preliminary evaluation of the elementary school English program in Korea. *English Teaching, 56*(1), 53-79.

Lee, Y. S., & Villacorta, P. (2017). An analysis of the needs of Korean EFL learners in the collegiate level. *Journal of Arts and Humanities, 6*(6), 15-24.

Long, M. H. (2005). Methodological issues in learner needs analysis. In M. H. Long (Ed.), *Second language needs analysis* (pp. 19-76). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Mackay, R., & Bosquet, M. (1981). LSP curriculum development: From policy to practice. In R. Mackay & J. D. Palmer (Eds.), *Language for specific purposes: Program design and evaluation* (pp. 1-28). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Ministry of Education. (2015a). *The English National Curriculum*. Seoul, Korea: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education. (2015b). *The national curriculum for the primary and secondary schools*. Seoul, Korea: Ministry of Education.

Nam, J. M. (2005). Evaluation of a communicative EFL curriculum. *English Teaching, 60*(4), 375-398.

Norris, J. M. (2006). The why (and how) of student learning outcomes assessment in college FL education. *Modern Language Journal, 90*(4), 590-597.

Norris, J. M. (2009). Understanding and improving language education through program evaluation: Introduction to the special issue. *Language Teaching Research, 13*(1), 7-13.

Palmer, A. (1992). Issues in evaluating input-based language teaching programs. In J. C. Alderson & A. Berretta (Eds.), *Evaluating second language education* (pp. 144-166). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Park, M. (2015). A needs analysis for a Korean middle school EFL general English curriculum. In M. Thomas & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Contemporary task-based language teaching in Asia. Bloomsbury contemporary linguistics series* (pp. 261-278). London: Bloomsbury.

Patton, M. Q. (1997). *Utilization-focused evaluation: The new century text* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Richterich, R. (1983). *Case studies in identifying language needs*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon/Council of Europe.

Seedhouse, P. (1995). Needs analysis in the general English classroom. *ELT Journal, 49*(1), 59-65.

Snow, M. A., & Brinton, D. M. (1988). Content-based language instruction: Investigating the effectiveness of the adjunct model. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*(4), 553-574.

So-mui, F. L., & Mead, K. (2000). An analysis of English in the workplace: The communication needs of textile and clothing merchandisers. *English for Specific Purposes, 19*(4), 351-368.

Watanabe, Y. (2006). A needs analysis for Japanese high school EFL general curriculum. *Second Language Studies, 25*(1), 83-163.

West, R. (1994). Needs analysis in language teaching. *Language Teaching, 27*(1), 1-19.

Worthen, B. R., & Sanders, J. R. (1973). *Educational evaluation: Theory and practice*. Worthington, OH: Charles A. Jones.

Yim, S. (2016). EFL young learners: their imagined communities and language learning. *ELT Journal, 70*(1), 57-66.

Applicable levels: Elementary, secondary

Haerim Hwang
Graduate Student
Department of Second Language Studies
University of Hawai'i
1890 East-West Road, Moore 479
Honolulu, HI 96822, USA
Email: haerim@hawaii.ac.kr

Hyunwoo Kim
Professor
Department of English Language and Literature
Yonsei University
50 Yonsei-ro, Seodaemun-gu
Seoul 03722, Korea
Email: hyunwoo2@yonsei.ac.kr