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Employing Constructivist Models of Culture Teaching For Enhanced Efficacy in Pre-Departure, Cross-Cultural Training

Wendy Ashby, Ph.D.

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This article presents a case for adopting a constructivist approach in the teaching of culture to federal, business and civilian personnel. In support of this argument, the author: (1) outlines the history of culture teaching as it progresses from behaviorist through cognitive to constructivist orientations; (2) argues that a constructivist paradigm is key to designing and delivering culture training that meets current U.S. security needs; and (3) illustrates how such a paradigm could be operationalized by analyzing a failed cross-cultural encounter and demonstrating how constructivist pre-departure training could have mitigated the negative outcomes.

As a recipient of a State Department fellowship, I was presented with the opportunity to live and work in Beijing for one year. Although I had experienced previous successes with living and working in other countries of my own choosing, China was a completely foreign culture to me—one that I did not seek out. I was dropped into this context with virtually no preparation for successful navigation, aside from having briefly been a tourist there the year before. Taking a cue from deploying military units, I read up on China in the *The World Factbook* published by the CIA, noted recent press articles about the People's Republic, and dutifully went through online language and culture training modules offered via both the Department of Defense and civilian channels. However, it soon became clear that knowing a lot about China from a distance was not going to prevent me from committing a series of cultural gaffes on the ground that resulted in offenses to my hosts and an eventual parting of the ways.

By way of explanation, the story goes that the Chinese boss fired me over a haircut. It makes for a funny story to tell at parties and provides a piece of surface-level truth that simplifies a narrative of what was actually a complex series of increasingly clash-ridden events. The real story involves a long process of social, historical and political conditioning on both sides which served to inform pre-negotiated, commonly constructed, yet unspoken conceptualizations of workplace boundaries, responsibility for “face” maintenance, and a host of other implicit permissions and constraints that pertained to our roles as host/guest, employer/employee, elder/younger, and so forth. These were assumed, understood and acted out differently by each party to the disbelief, chagrin and misinterpretation of the other.

In an attempt to bring to light the invisible deep structures that underlay the reasons for the surface-level conflicts experienced in China, I will first outline the progression of culture teaching in U.S. foreign language

classrooms and the role that the defense industry has played in its development. I then will discuss the government's need for more effective culture training from a safety and operational standpoint and demonstrate why it must move beyond behaviorist and even cognitivist training orientations in favor of constructivist approaches in order to be useful to deployed military and federal personnel. The analytical framework for the discussion is organizational sociologist Geerd Hofstede's work on cross-cultural value categories. This will be used to illustrate how an individualized training program for deployment/assignment to China—and by extension to a virtually unlimited number of countries—could be designed and implemented quickly and effectively by making use of existing data.

From Behaviorism to Cognitivism in the Culture Classroom

Foreign language (L2) teaching methodology has historically been aligned with developments in the field of psychology, and its trajectory lies primarily rooted in a shift from B. F. Skinner's behaviorist approaches to Benjamin Bloom's cognitivist orientations. Less visible as a major shift in language teaching, but significant nonetheless due to its significance in effective culture teaching, is Jean Piaget's notion of co-constructed learning. Prior to World War II, explicit target culture instruction (henceforth C2) was of no real concern, as the mastery of the target culture's literary canon constituted the "ultimate objective of second language instruction" (Allen, 1985, p. 138). However, World War II created the need for language speakers who could interact proficiently with natives. This shifted classroom language focus from reading to listening and speaking, heralding the audio-lingual method that was heavily influenced by the predominant psychological theory of the time—namely, behaviorism. Culture teaching remained a distinctly separate issue, existing under the purview of area studies and remaining largely focused on content knowledge of artistic/literary products.

The first widely publicized attempt to identify and classify observable, cultural behaviors as they related to language learning was made by Edward T. Hall (1959) in his book *The Silent Language*. He proposed ten "Primary Message Systems" as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. *Hall's Taxonomy of Formal Culture*

Interaction	human interaction with the environment
Association	family and other associations
Subsistence	food, shelter, clothing
Bisexuality	use of body
Territoriality	use of space
Temporality	use of time
Learning	cultural and social knowledge
Play	recreation and leisure activities
Defense	maintaining boundaries between insider/ outsider
Exploitation	work systems and resources

This effort coincided with an emerging cultural studies movement in Europe in the 1960s which heralded a focus on anthropological perspectives. The focus of culture teaching shifted from "Big C" products, such as art and literature, to "little c" practices (Steele, 1989, p. 155) found in the behaviors of daily living. In response, new curricular models designed to mesh the

teaching of language with the teaching of culture began to appear (Allen, 1985, p. 143) Other classification systems followed, such as the Kluckhohn Model of Value Orientations, which sought to analyze visible behavior based on the philosophical notion that “there are a limited number of common problems that all communities face and a limited range of possible solutions [reactions] to those problems” (Jourdain, 1998, p. 443). These behaviors were thought to provide answers to the five questions outlined in Table 2.

Table 2. *The Kluckhohn Model of Community Values and Cultural Orientations*

	What is...
Human Nature	the character of human nature?
Man-Nature	the relation of man to nature?
Time Orientation	the temporal focus of human life?
Activity Orientation	the modality of human activity?
Relational Orientation	the modality of man’s relationship to man?

Nelson Brooks (1968) subsequently observed that a general culture profile included the categories of symbolism, value, authority, order, ceremony, love, honor, humor, beauty and spirit. From this observation, he distilled the existence of five cultures, as outlined in Table 3.

Table 3. *Brooks’ Five-Tiered Definition of Culture*

Culture 1 Biological Growth
Culture 2 Personal Refinement
Culture 3 Literature and the Fine Arts
Culture 4 Patterns for Living
Culture 5 Sum Total Way of Life

While Culture 3 had traditionally dominated the American C2 teaching scene, Culture 4 came to be viewed in this model as the most important in the early phases of second language instruction. This shift from cultural products to daily behaviors lent culture teaching an “anthropological... orientation [and divided it] further into two distinct, yet overlapping and complimentary spheres termed ‘formal culture’ and ‘deep culture’” (Allen, 1985, p. 139).

This was the first culture model that used the term “deep culture” in describing life processes and acknowledged the existence and role of conceptual realities based in part on differences in socialization, shared history, political circumstances and economics. While this pointed to the cognitivist orientations that would follow, surface-level generalizations remained accepted to a large degree as the primary and accepted vehicle for teaching knowledge of C2 well into the 1960s (Nostrand, 1966).

Acknowledging Deep Structures - Emerging Cognitive Orientations

By the 1970s, behaviorist orientations in language teaching were on the wane, replaced by a series of “designer” methods based on cognitive orientations in experiential learning and a move toward adult foreign language learning principles based on child first language acquisition. Experiential language learning theories influenced C2 teaching, resulting in a genre of

attempted simulations such as: the “culture capsule” to elicit discussions (Taylor & Sorenson, 1961); the “culture assimilator” based on multiple-choice, cross-cultural interaction tests (Fiedler, Mitchell, & Triandis, 1971); language in culture (Dodge, 1972); audio-motor units based on commands that focused on a cultural theme (Elkins, Kalivoda, & Morain, 1972); the “culture cluster” grounded in dramatic simulation (Meade & Morain, 1973); case study mini-dramas based on miscommunication (Gordon, 1974); and the “cultoon” which dealt with cultural misunderstanding via cartoon strips (Morain, 1979).

At the forefront of this shift toward cognitive culture orientations were Frances and Howard Nostrand (1970), whose taxonomy went beyond description of target culture behaviors to outline student learning objectives for C2 teaching based on Bloom’s higher order thinking skills (cited in Lafayette & Schulz, 1975, p. 106) as seen in Table 4.

Table 4. *The Nostrands’ Nine Objectives for C2 Teaching*

Students should demonstrate the ability to:

- (1) react appropriately in a social situation;
 - (2) describe, or ascribe to the proper part of the population, a pattern in the culture or social behavior;
 - (3) recognize a pattern when it is illustrated;
 - (4) explain a pattern;
 - (5) predict how a pattern is likely to apply in a given situation;
 - (6) describe or manifest an attitude important to gain acceptance in the foreign society;
 - (7) evaluate the form of a statement concerning a cultural pattern;
 - (8) describe or demonstrate defensible methods of analyzing a sociocultural whole;
 - (9) identify basic human purposes that make significant the understanding of what is being taught.
-

The Nostrands’ taxonomy was modified by Seelye (1970), creating a list focused more on cognitive meta-categories rather than cognitively based behaviors, as seen in Table 5.

Table 5. *Seelye’s Modified Culture Teaching Goals*

Characteristics of C2 culture learning include:

- (1) the sense, or functionality, of culturally conditioned behavior;
 - (2) the interaction of language and social variables;
 - (3) conventional behavior in common situations;
 - (4) cultural connotations of words and phrases;
 - (5) evaluating statements about a society;
 - (6) researching another culture;
 - (7) attitudes towards other cultures.
-

In 1974, Tinsley and Woloshin piggybacked on Brooks’ 1968 notion of the manner in which underlying cultural structures inform surface-level behaviors. Their taxonomy of common, universal, deep culture orientations is outlined in Table 6.

Table 6. *Tinsley and Woloshin's Universal Deep Culture Orientations*

Individual as Part of Universal Order
Humanity as Acquired Characteristic
Primacy of Social Function Over Individual
Vertically vs. Horizontally Constructed Societies
Supremacy/Dependence of Man/Nature
Place of Man in Time
Place of Man in Space

Using this framework, the researchers engaged in comparative analyses of cultural practices using visible surface behaviors as evidence of deep culture orientations.

Shortly thereafter in 1977, Pfister and Borzilleri returned to Hall's (1959) original Primary Message System in order to create a classification system addressing the formal and informal characteristics of the deep culture. Condensing Hall's (1959) original 10 message systems into five, their classification is outlined in Table 7.

Table 7. *Pfister and Borzilleri's Formal and Informal Characteristics of Deep Culture*

Family Unit and Personal Sphere
housing, surroundings, sibling relationships, childcare, eating, shopping, defense
Social Sphere
class structure, social mobility, sports, entertainment, sexuality, social responsibility
Political Systems and Institutions
government, education
Environmental Sphere
geography, boundaries, space, subsistence
Religion and the Arts
attitudes, creative arts, literature, music

Despite the buzz of innovation generated by the designer methods of the 1970s, U.S. students' linguistic and cultural competency was regarded as lacking for both national security and economic purposes. President Jimmy Carter convened a commission to address concerns about the national dearth of students who could "do" something with languages in both the L2 and C2 sense. As the use of language was declared an important cultural product, the connection between language and culture began to emerge (Loew, 1981). This thread was picked up by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, which also publicly declared the need for improved L2/C2 practices (ACTFL, 1982). They proposed that how people behave is determined largely by group values, that students themselves are conditioned to their own environment, and that all cultural systems include both socially shared and idiosyncratic beliefs.

These statements echoed Canale and Swain's (1980) emerging "communicative competence" model of language teaching that melded L2 and C2 instruction. This was reflective of a general shift in language teaching from the focus on linguistic knowledge advocated by Chomsky's school of thought to social competency models that advocated the devel-

opment of linguistic, sociolinguistic and strategic competencies. This new focus was concerned with students' ability to perform tasks with a sure knowledge of "when to speak, when not ... what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes, 1972, p. 277).

Influenced by this fundamental shift in language teaching, Stern (1983) proposed the Multi-Dimensional Curriculum of four distinct yet interrelated syllabi: linguistic (traditional grammar and vocabulary plus a new inclusion of speech acts, discourse, notions and functions); cultural; communicative; and general education. In this model, cultural competence was equated with mastering contextualized speech acts informed by appropriate sociocultural schemata (Saville-Troike, 1983). This integrated orientation spurred another wave of approaches to L2 teaching in the later part of the decade.

Hanvey (1987) outlined a four-stage approach designed to help students expand narrow attitudes, note significant C1/C2 differences, and consider new information as a plausible framework for cultural assimilation. Krasnick (1988) defined the four dimensions of cultural competence as revolving around: (1) attitude; (2) knowledge; (3) skill; and (4) traits in both receptive and productive interaction. Attitude refers to the learner's cultural sensitivity; knowledge to his/her cultural awareness; skill to his/her ability; and traits to the learner's overall orientation in terms of tolerance and willingness to learn (Lessard-Clouston, 1992). Others such as Adaskou, Britten, & Fashi (1990) proposed that distinctions in cultural meaning involved: aesthetics (cinema and literature, etc.); sociology (social organization and nature of family, relationships, etc.); semantics (the learner's cognitive conceptualization system); and pragmatics (background knowledge, paralinguistic skills, etc.).

Discourse and Culture: Emerging Constructivist Orientations

These solidly cognitive approaches viewed culture as connected patterns of thought, actions and expressions that humans use for understanding and problem solving (Webber, 1990). Mastery of these patterns and expressions came to be termed "discourse ability" (Kramsch, 1989, p. 5) – a skill requiring "theoretical insights gained in sociology, anthropology, psychology, political science and even hermeneutics" (Kramsch, 1989, p. 8). Swaffar (1992) echoed this when she defined culture as "discovered . . . dialogic practices" (p. 238). Dialogic approaches characterize classroom language/culture instructors as anthropological ethnographers who help students "[co]-construct a story about an alien culture [and understand such stories as] subjects of critical reflection that are ideologically rooted in particular political agendas" (Peck, 1992, p. 12). This notion of co-constructed, analyzable narratives as culture teaching material represents the field's first breakthrough into the emerging orientation of constructivist teaching.

Cognitivist culture teaching, according to Kramsch (1993), makes explicit the "expressions of a people's culture, that is, its beliefs and traditions, myths and social conventions" and creates learning situations that place students a "third place" (p. 5), i.e., a space in which they are "aware of their own cultural myths and realities that ease or impede their understanding of the foreign imagination" (p. 216). To this end, Oxford (1994) encouraged teachers to recognize multiple cultures and their differences and similarities as well as to reveal their dark and light sides. Cognitivist foreign language teachers were to: provide links between culture and

language through hands-on instruction; encourage the individual's learning styles, strategies and processes in becoming culturally aware; and make use of community resources and personal stories to teach culture.

Cross-cultural awareness was a key to end-of-the-century learning and was designed to help students move beyond stereotypes and prejudice, acquire an understanding of superficial and deep culture, comprehend differences and similarities across cultures, and gain cross-cultural tolerance. In this context, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages proposed a national set of standards in 1996. The 5 Cs (Communication, Culture, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities) paradigm was designed to:

enable students to understand a culture on its own terms... develop an awareness of other people's world views, of their unique way of life and of the patterns of behavior which order their world, as well as learn about the contributions of other cultures to the world at large and the solutions they offer to the common problems of humankind" (ACTFL, 1996, p. 43).

As addressed in ACTFL's Standard 2 (Culture)-culture teaching at the close of the twentieth century came to be defined as an intersection of perspectives, products and practices, cementing Big C cultural artistic expressions, such as theater and literature, with the little c anthropological expressions of daily life.

2.1. Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the cultures studied.

2.2. Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the cultures studied.

These late 20th century views highlighted a differentiated approach to culture teaching that attributed success to various individual cognitive and emotional factors, paving the way for the emerging constructivism in culture teaching.

Constructivism and Globalization

Whereas behaviorist learning approaches focus on fact memorization and cognitive ones on understanding and application, constructivist learning is co-created and learner directed in a highly individualized, asynchronous, adaptive and non-linear manner. While rooted in the educational theories of Jean Piaget much earlier, the digital age and the flattening of the world created two-way educational contexts whereby learning was no longer effectively disseminated from teacher to student in real time. The presentation of information is no longer a linear process, as the Internet and the development of online learning modules make it possible for students to navigate hyperlinks and surf the web for information that comes in an infinite array of orders.

Culture teaching in the age of constructivism revolves around helping students navigate input and co-create cognitive networks of cultural discovery. This translates into what Jourdain (1998) terms a "student-centered curricular model" (p. 446) in which students gather C1/C2 information, communicate knowledge to peers in the L2, and think critically about and discuss values represented in the C2. Students engage in home-ethnography as a basis of comparison for C1/C2 information (Barro, Byram, Grimm, Morgan, & Roberts, 1993) and seek out native-speaker informants with

the goal of becoming “aware of their roles as cultural beings involved in cross-cultural interaction” (Robinson-Stuart & Nocon, 1996, p. 437).

With ever expanding multimedia networks, learners have access to a potentially unlimited pool of native informants as well as the totality of an unmediated, authentic product corpus representing popular to high culture (Garrett, 1998). Such authentic realia represent “artifacts of the second language’s culture [which] offer ... case studies of fundamental human relationships, needs, and social institutions such as kinship, ritual behavior, social status, governance or eating arrangements” (p. 238). This type of instruction encourages firsthand engagement in ethnographic, learner-based encounters requiring self/other-reflection, an anthropological fieldwork task that is well supported in our digital age.

Constructivism as a Beneficial Orientation for DoD Operational Needs

Post-9/11 engagement in Afghanistan and Iraq has resulted in an unprecedented level of sustained and direct interface between military personnel and local populations on the ground. This type of extended contact requires an ethnographic orientation. Yet it becomes more and more apparent that boots-on-the-ground personnel are ill-equipped for such intense interfacing. Indeed, “irregular” warfare—the type based on cultural understanding and human processes—has become the Department of Defense’s new mantra for winning the hearts and minds of the people in pursuit of its regional security goals. An important benchmark was set in 2007 when the federal government’s Interagency Language Roundtable, which sets the standard for benchmarks in language use, added cultural proficiency measures to its guidelines. Since that time, DoD leaders have increasingly stressed the need for more effective culture training with the aim of finding ways to increase personal safety, improve interface, and decrease collateral damage by/to military personnel operating overseas (McDonald, McGuire, Johnston, Selmeski, & Abbe, 2008).

In support of the emerging culture focus, a number of agencies—the U.S. Army Research Institute for Behavioral and Social Sciences in particular—have published multiple papers measuring the military’s cultural needs vis-à-vis its capacity to meet them (Abbe & Bortnick, 2010; Abbe & Halpin, 2010; McCloskey, Behymer, Ross, & Abbe, 2010; Rentsch, Mot, & Abbe, 2010; O’Connor, Roan, Cushner, & Metcalf, 2009; Abbe, 2008). A number of collaborative public and private sector projects have given rise to training models and simulation software—such as eCrossCulture, Kinecton, and ELECT BiLAT among others—all of which actively aim to build soldiers’ and leaders’ cross-cultural capacity for operations.

Despite the significant advances that have been made, one persistent and systematic weakness in academic culture teaching over the last 40 years has been its reliance on what Pfister and Borzilleri (1977) identified as a “historical, factual, or literary approach [to teaching culture] rather than [presenting it] as a way of life” (pg. 107). In terms of DoD pre-deployment materials, this rings as true today as it did back then. A survey of materials conducted in 2007 found that a sizable portion of the Army’s culture training is and remains knowledge-based (Abbe, Gulick, & Herman, 2007). In order to avoid confusing definitions, the term “knowledge-based” can be equated with “behaviorist” in the sense that it appears to provide little in terms of reflection or interaction.

Many of the available materials tend toward factual, non-interactive modules in area studies, which is an entirely different discipline distinct from culture studies. Area studies training focuses largely on history, economy, geography, society, security, religion, traditions, daily life, codes of conduct,

and urban/rural lifestyles of target countries and cultural/ethnic/linguistic groups. This type of approach provides a good bird's eye view of the terrain. However, it does little to provide boots-on-the-ground personnel with the kind of information they need for effective daily conduct within the target realm. Adequate culture training is a matter of life and death to deployed soldiers. By extension to other federal personnel and civilian expatriates, adequate culture training increases personnel success, improves interface, and potentially cushions against negative political, social, or personal consequences.

The overarching conclusion of the aforementioned literature is that military, business, federal and civilian forces need to be exposed to pre-deployment/pre-departure culture training that requires higher order cognitive skills such as application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation – as advocated by Benjamin Bloom—to speak and act in ways likely to obtain desired outcomes. Deployed personnel should be able to compare and contrast the conduct, products and practices of the target culture not only with those of their own culture, but also with any of the target culture's significant sub-cultures. Additionally, deployed personnel must be able to contextualize social and political issues addressed in area studies, thereby establishing links between culture and current events/practices within the target country, between target country and bordering countries, and/or between target country and their own country. Training methods must help users form a self-generated “thinking and doing roadmap” that outlines how to strategically navigate the target culture in support of organizational and mission goals.

Effective culture training equips the user to engage in unexpected situations and imagine multiple reasons for collective practice. It asks learners to analyze behavioral data, correctly attribute actions to the so-cial, political and historical realities of the actors, and respond from an informed place of agency rather than memory. For this reason, this paper proposes that behaviorist culture training is inadequate because it focuses on memorization and operates at the surface level of understanding. Cognitive learning is deemed a bit more useful in that it focuses on understanding and application, and is therefore rooted more deeply in the soil of the terrain. However, this paper advocates constructivist learning because it is co-created and learner-directed in a highly individualized, asynchronous, adaptive and non-linear manner. This forces learners to dig deeper in becoming “aware of their roles as cultural beings involved in cross-cultural interaction” (Robinson-Stuart & Nocon, 1996, p. 437).

Constructivist culture teaching addresses the notion of cultural competency as a set of skills that can be taught and strengthened through instruction. According to the U.S. Army Research Institute for Behavioral and Social Sciences, these teachable skills include the ability to reflect on beliefs, compare values and modify behaviors (Abbe, Gulick, & Herman, 2007).

Reflect on Beliefs

According to the Institute, people with general cultural competence are able to expand the width of organizational categories to increase the number of possibilities that exist within them. They have the ability to attribute what they perceive to more than one possible explanation. They are able to shift their frame of reference and the narrative from which they operate when presented with new pieces of information.

Compare Values

As noted by semioticians, human beings are wired to organize data into categories that, in turn, tie into shared values. Values make up a large

part of self-identity, and self-identity drives our thoughts and behaviors. As noted by the U.S. Army Research Institute, people with general cultural competence are more likely to be aware of and accept that the link between shared values and behaviors is culturally driven and that this is true of themselves as well as others. They are less likely to think of difference as good or bad; rather, they accept that it simply is. They are able to take on a world identity, even if only temporarily or situationally. Culturally competent people make a practice of understanding what both they themselves and others value. They can take an anthropological/ethnographical stance, i.e., regularly view things from others' perspectives as well as their own.

Modify Behavior

In the U.S. Army's view, culturally competent people have learned how to other-monitor as well as self-monitor. They notice and comprehend the contextual meaning of verbal and non-verbal cues. They study how natives interact and communicate both through speech and body language. They can convincingly mimic and convey culturally appropriate affect/attitudes/behaviors to the locals around them, even when not reflective of their own core beliefs or values. They exhibit patience and are able to control the emotional stress and impulsive thoughts that are caused by situational ambiguity.

Designing a Pre-Deployment, Constructivist Culture-Training Program for China

Gaining a deeper understanding of beliefs, values and behaviors is a pursuit that exists at the crossroads of the social and behavioral sciences. Anthropology and sociology, along with their sub-disciplines, converged with communication theory in the 1950s to form the discipline of culture studies. This, *not area studies*, needs to inform training in bi-culturalism. The field of Culture Studies defines culture as a "macrocode . . . consisting of the numerous codes which a group of individuals habitually use to interpret reality" (Danesi, 1994, p. 18). Culture training is operationalized when military and federal personnel are given the tools to perceive, decode, understand, and react appropriately to and within these macrocodes.

Avoiding the collateral damage of being fired in China required a correct response to the haircut situation, among several others that preceded and followed it. This called for me to understand the socially pre-negotiated Chinese meta-norms for the workplace. In that context, such macrocodes are handed down from Confucian notions of hierarchy and colored by Communist work collectives. Yet, commercially available materials for expatriate workers do not go much further than kindly informing the would-be employee to avoid placing chopsticks vertically into the rice bowl when eating with colleagues. This is offensive because it is reminiscent of incense and thus evokes thoughts of death. Such listings of dos and don'ts prove inadequate, because as Peck (1992, p. 11) points out, culture is "constituted, emergent and situational." Advice such as *always use your dean's hairdresser in China* would never appear on such a dos and don'ts list because of its idiosyncratic, situationally emergent nature.

One meta-approach for dealing with situationally emergent behaviors was proposed by Dutch organizational sociologist Geerd Hofstede (1980), who published a comprehensive, quantitative analysis of value differences in and between 56 countries for use by international executives at IBM. His large-scale data collection and analysis aimed to quantify cognitive understanding of value differences, providing a terrain map of the macrocodes

that illuminate the unspoken, agreed-upon rules that give rise to behaviors. His study demonstrated clear and persistent patterns of cultural similarity and difference that he organized around four dimensions of value orientation: power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. Work in Asian countries soon led to the inclusion of a fifth dimension of long-term orientation as an index. A constructivist culture-training curriculum for deployment/assignment to the People's Republic of China would first emphasize the mapping, examination, and comparison of gaps in these five areas, prioritizing areas in which differences are likely to be greatest.

Criticisms have been levied against Hofstede's data due to his strictly survey-based approach, reliance on subjects' self-reported values, basic premise of making inferences about collective culture based on individual input, and the age of the data set (Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & DeLuque, 2006; McSweeney, 2002). However, all methods of behavioral data collection have inherent problems, including bias in observer coding of behavior. All inferential studies extrapolate from the behavior of a subset of the target population. The usefulness of Hofstede's corpus is its size and scope. If used judiciously, his work has the inherent ability to inform a virtually limitless number of situational encounters and thus provide a ready-made, analytical basis upon which more effective pre-deployment culture training can be designed for a wide variety of operational needs.

Using Hofstede's (1980) pre-existing data, an initial cultural terrain map for the United States and China can be created by noting the relative gaps in basic values orientations illustrated in Figure 1. In this graph, the five orientations are abbreviated as PDI (power distance), INV (individuality), MAS (masculinity), UAI (ambiguity tolerance), and LTO (long term orientation).

	U.S.	China	Difference
PDI	40	80	40 Points
INV	91	20	71 Points
MAS	62	66	4 Points
UAI	46	30	16 Points
LTO	29	118	89 Points

Figure 1: *A Cultural Terrain Map of China vs. United States – Adapted from Hofstede*

As noted by this type of mapping, the largest gaps between U.S. and Chinese value orientations appear relative to the categories of long-term orientation (LTO) and individuality (INV). These categories represent relative gaps of 89 points and 71 points respectively and would therefore constitute the bulk and focus of explicit training. This would be followed by an analysis of power differential (PDI), which has a moderate gap of 40 points. Relatively small gaps in ambiguity tolerance (UAI) at 16 points and masculinity (MAS) at 4 points mean these areas would receive less priority, perhaps being dealt with in a one-on-one tutoring setting according to individual needs. Each of these orientations is explored in detail in descending order of gap size.

Long-Term Orientation Index Training

The long-term orientation (LTO) dimension measures the role of tradition and represents the largest gap between U.S. and Chinese orientations.

Hofstede added this index in the 1990s based on observations of additional dimensions operating in Asian countries. While both axes of this dimension find their genesis in Confucian thought, Hofstede found it to be applicable to and informative of all cultures to some degree. High long-term orientation cultures value tradition, social obligations, and the maintenance of “face,” whereas low long-term orientation cultures focus on progress and change, self-actualization, and participation in the making of common rules. In long-term orientation societies, parents and children tend to be more intricately linked with more intense and long-term responsibility towards each other, often at the expense of the self. Long-term orientation societies tend to give age primacy regardless of the educational or financial attainment of the younger party.

Constructivist LTO training for deployment to China would focus largely on both the concept and differing definition of face. As a foreign expert, I was among the most highly educated members of the host institute’s English teacher training department due to my doctoral degree in second language teaching. Unfortunately, I was also one of the youngest members, thereby rendering me virtually powerless in making any decisions at all, including personal ones. Among other things, my boss’ chief complaint about a random decision to get a haircut from an English speaker in the embassy district was that it had “caused her to lose face”—a notion which I initially found to be both absurd and impossible.

While loss of face is a fairly universal negative and one that nobody seems to want to experience in any culture, the use of the term “face” means drastically different things in the United States than it does in China. Constructivist culture training would make more explicit the understanding of what face is, what causes its loss, and who can impose that loss. In my observations, the U.S. concept of face is more akin to what would be conceptualized as embarrassment and is usually short-lived and self-generated. Americans are embarrassed at times by what we do or do not do. In China, face seems to have a much stronger element of a deeply and long-held collective sense of shame. This disparity is derived in part from the respective cultures’ emphases on the short term versus the long term and orientations in the future versus the past.

Although often embarrassed by their own mistakes, the Chinese have a much stronger tendency to feel shame for others’ actions as well. Thus, a personal decision such as declining a last-minute dinner invitation in favor of prior plans inflicts a great deal of shame onto the rejected person doing the inviting, causing him to “lose face.” Furthermore, this shame seems to be viewed as other-caused instead of self-generated by both the offending and offended parties, meaning that both parties tend to view one person’s loss of face as the same other person’s fault—one for having caused it and the other for having allowed it to be caused. This orientation is almost unimaginable in a culture that stresses the idea that people are responsible for their own feelings and perceptions. What in the U.S. would be a strictly personal choice with no further ramifications can easily come to be viewed, in Chinese eyes, as the intentional infliction of shame onto another. This makes the importance of considering every single move even more critical.

The stakes become further heightened when the element of longevity is added to the mix. In the United States, if someone either intentionally or unintentionally “robs” another of face and causes ill feelings, chances are there is a way around having to deal much with that person in future endeavors. American relationships tend to be shorter-lived and more diversified than those found in China, where people are much more tied to in-groups and experience more long-term encounters. In a country in which we tend to look forward rather than backward, even the worst social blunders do not cause

nearly the same amount of collateral damage as they can in China, where even the slightest of slights becomes part of a collective, permanent memory.

By understanding these differences and the nexus of responsibility for feelings from the Chinese viewpoint, the foreign teacher in China becomes better equipped to understand why it is vital to always accept last-minute invitations no matter how imposing they are. The businessperson comes to comprehend why critique sessions are death to corporate productivity and learns to avoid them while ensuring quality in other ways. Military leaders in negotiations, likewise, will learn to recognize that saying “no” is harmful to the fragile, diplomatic relationship and that, without the relationship, nothing gets done. They will also realize that saying “yes” does not mean that there is an intent to do anything but, rather, an attempt to avoid shaming another through rejection of an idea or request – one that they should not only accept and learn to work around but perhaps adopt.

Individuality Index Training

The individualism dimension (INV) measures how likely people are to be tied to a larger group. Hofstede claims that high-individualism societies prize self-reliance and independent thinking whereas low-individualism societies prize collective thinking, strong integration into groups, and loyalty to group needs. According to his study, cross-cultural conflicts between these orientations are likely to revolve around differing understandings and needs for freedom and privacy, planned versus spontaneous use of time, and lengths to which people will go in order to achieve harmony and avoid embarrassment.

To the average American, the notion and act of a haircut will be conceptualized via values orientation as a private matter—one that is primarily of importance to individual identity. In my particular case, the decision to visit a non-recommended hairdresser fell squarely on the high-INV end of the scale, as did my refusal to believe that an independent choice of hairdresser could possibly cause anybody else any type of social problem. This orientation conflicted with my Chinese dean’s concept of the guest’s haircut as a public event directly tied to the boss’ status within the community.

Constructivist training in individuality would examine the value of independence and its socio-cultural role as an identity marker of Americans. It would also ask the learner to assess his/her own personal need for individual orientation, which could then be viewed and considered relative to the gravity of the offense that non-conformity causes in China. In order to succeed in China, learners must accommodate the possibility that Americans can divorce self-worth from independence, even if they don’t believe in or value this. They must also understand that this is highly necessary for avoiding collateral damage and must be fully aware of the size of the gap between their own individual orientations and Chinese society at large.

Such a curriculum would further guide learners in a reflective self-examination of values relating to mechanisms of group cohesion. Not only would each learner explore his/her own stance toward group participation and the importance of the group relative to other concerns such as recognition or blame, but he/she would also be prepared for the inevitable observation of the predominance of groupthink in Chinese society, along with its inherent advantages and disadvantages. For example, Chinese attempts to avoid singling people out can often come across to Americans as pandering, deceptive cover-up, or outright dishonesty rather than a relative expression of values that are taken to be positive by those who embody them. Constructivist training would also assist the learner to become proficient in recognizing and emulating the verbal and non-verbal behaviors that convincingly affect an attitude of conformity

as it is understood by the Chinese. These include making oneself visually and verbally smaller, avoiding eye contact when speaking with superiors, etc.

Using these tools to widen possibilities and behavior attribution, the foreign teacher will be better equipped to accept that grades are posted in public. The businessperson will be prepared for the impossibility of singling an employee out for their actions—good or bad. The military strategist will be more aware of the need to not take all information given by informants at face value. He or she will consider instead how to get underneath the group dynamic for a clearer picture of problems and a better understanding of the importance of what remained unsaid.

Power Distance Index Training

According to Hofstede, the power distance index (PDI) refers to the existence and acceptance of unequal power distributions in a given culture. He theorized that those who are socialized in high-PDI cultures tend to know and accept their place in society whereas those who identify with low-PDI lean towards equality and social mobility. Constructivist training in the power distance index would ask learners to examine elements of hierarchy in U.S. society and compare and contrast them to Chinese social hierarchies. It would ask them to correctly place themselves in each respective hierarchy and predict the kinds of failures to which operating from improper placement of self and others would lead. This would enable learners to consciously assess the social gravity of acting from the wrong place.

Had I understood and accepted that my relative place in the Chinese work hierarchy was based not on skills and expertise but, rather, on age and foreign status, I might have been less shocked at the reactions to my choice of rejecting the dean's hairdresser and more willing to frame the perceived intrusion into my personal life as a work requirement. In all honesty, it is debatable whether I could have forced myself to accept this inequality and blurred boundary situation for a sustained period of time. Even the Army notes that some aspects of cultural competence are trait-based and therefore not responsive to skill training (Abbe, Gulick, & Herman, 2007). However, armed with this awareness, a teacher now has a framework from which to make a more informed choice, or at least be less surprised about the consequences of placing his/her education above or even equal to the age of a much lesser educated colleague. A businessperson now has a framework for deciding who should be invited to and excluded from meetings. A unit leader can better identify and liaison with the person at the proper and most strategic level of the host culture's hierarchy to get things done in a place where military authority is no longer a given.

Uncertainty Avoidance Index Training

The uncertainty-avoidance (UAI) index measures a culture's general comfort with ambiguity. According to Hofstede, high-UAI cultures sense a threat from ambiguity. These cultures' need for structure results in attitudes that lean toward the rule-based, intolerant and absolute. On the other hand, low-UAI cultures socialize members to embrace difference, novelty and relativism. This orientation has a direct effect on the number of options that people tend to have or look for in a variety of situations—a skill that was identified by the U.S. Army Research Institute for Behavioral and Social Sciences as important for being able to reflect effectively on beliefs. It also tends to determine on some level the amount of instruction people need in order

to perform tasks, the manner in which they give directions, and the presence of and reliance on emotion and extra-linguistic expression in communication.

Although UAI is an area in which Americans and Chinese showed the second smallest gap, indicating that they are relatively equally threatened by ambiguity, it is an area which can still cause conflict and misunderstanding. This seems to be due not to the existence of ambiguity, but to the manner in which ambiguity manifests itself in daily living. The paradox of many rules in conjunction with few safety precautions in China and the insistence on micro-instructive direction coupled with ceaseless chaos in the workplace require some preparation. For those who do not tolerate or read ambiguity well, the phrase “you can go to my hairdresser” taken literally means it is there as an option if you would like or need it. However, in China, it clearly meant a whole host of other things, including: “I already paid for your haircut and told my hairdresser you were coming, so you had better go do it; otherwise my social and professional status will be devalued and I will be ashamed and you will cause me to lose face, which will make me angry with you and possibly cause you to lose your job.” Even for those who do tolerate ambiguity well, it is important to understand that what is considered to be ambiguous in one culture can represent an implicit or explicit rule in another and vice versa.

Constructivist UAI training asks learners to self-assess their ambiguity tolerance and analyze it against the practices of the target culture. According to the size of the gap, learners may need to mentally prepare for living and operating within tighter or looser frameworks. Understanding ambiguity orientation helps the foreign teacher understand why Chinese students do not engage in creative writing assignments. It helps the businessperson design processes that are exhaustive in detail at every turn while factoring extra time for constant disorganization. Military personnel will find it helpful to understand the need for extremely long, patient and broken-down instructional steps when moving groups of people or directing a rescue operation.

Masculinity Index Training

Hofstede identified masculinity orientation (MAS) as the fourth of his original contrastive indexes. According to his study, high masculinity cultures are traditional in their views of work and tend to be gender-segregated whereas low masculinity cultures have more blurred roles. Obvious conflicts here will result from the manner in which men and women operate vis-à-vis the culture in which they find themselves, which from the U.S. perspective will almost always be more masculine in orientation than that to which Americans are accustomed, particularly in the case of women.

In the case of preparing U.S. learners to successfully navigate the cultural terrain in China, masculinity does not seem to pose much of an issue on the surface. In fact, the United States was found to be slightly more high masculine, i.e., gender-divided, than China, although this similarity may be misleading due to China’s sojourn through Communism. The strong presence of hierarchies in China points to a long Confucian legacy that feeds its long-term orientation and power differentials. These tend to cluster with high masculinity and strong gender division in other countries, making China’s lower-than-expected masculinity orientation an exception or surface appearance.

Cross-cultural training on gender issues is often aimed at defining rules and restrictions based on behavioral parameters related to interaction between genders. Advising men not to look at or speak to women – or telling females to stay out of the mosque—is not only behaviorist but represents incomplete training couched on the low masculinity side of the value system. Low masculinity indices assume gender interaction in the first

place. Constructivist training in terms of gender recognizes that the high/low masculinity orientation is not merely dualistic like the other categories; rather, it is quadrupled. This means that “masculine” and “feminine” must be understood on both the high masculine and low masculine side of the equation, creating four squares that need to be mapped and addressed in training—namely, appropriate inter-gender behavior as well as intra-gender behavior.

Learners need culturally informed help to come to a functioning understanding of what it means in both the home *and* the target culture to act like a man and like a woman. Effective constructivist training addresses not only how or whether to interact with the opposite gender but also how to assimilate the behavioral parameters within one’s own gender, because, particularly in high MAS cultures, that is the only place where learners will interface with natives. Constructivist training helps the learner examine the products and practices of the target culture’s concept of “manhood” and “womanhood.” It asks the learner to analyze his/her personal comfort zone on that continuum, gauge the gap between it and the host culture’s norms, and come to a personal conclusion about how to fill it for more optimal interaction.

Thus, the foreign female soldier, like the well-educated female professor, will almost invariably need assistance to pre-construct a target-culture gender identity that is likely to be much more feminine to conform to the target culture’s terms—at least outwardly—than that with which she is comfortable. This may range from using higher voice pitch to choosing less public topics of conversation to gossiping and asking for unneeded help. By the same token, it is likely that the male executive will find himself needing to figure out how to “man up” when it comes to things such as the seemingly endless drinking games of his colleagues or acting dismissively toward female colleagues. The male Foreign Area Officers might need to be prepared for the reality that their target-culture counterparts do indeed take pride in talking in exaggerated terms about their relationships with women, even if they are, in reality, prevented from actually talking to them.

These realities may necessitate learning to switch back and forth—often within a short period of time—between crass banter about women with the locals and appropriate U.S. workforce behavior in speaking about female colleagues. This type of dual approach calls to mind Peace Corps volunteer Peter Hessler, who wrote about adopting alternative identities in his memoir *River Town: Two Years on the Yangtze* (2001). He spoke of having two rooms with two desks where two different people—the American Peter and the Chinese Hé Wěi—would study, think and write, each saying different things in different ways and observed by the other.

Conclusions

Historically speaking, military training needs have contributed to large-scale, positive changes in language teaching. The United States’ involvement in World War II demanded language speakers who could interact proficiently with natives. This initiated a significant change and ushered in an era of proficiency-oriented language teaching whereby practices evolved from knowing about language to performing tasks with language. The current mandate to win the hearts and minds of the people requires a similar evolution in culture teaching that, if properly operationalized, has the potential to move the discipline forward toward more effective outcomes for all learners. This would result in better outcomes for deployed soldiers, federal personnel, business people, relief workers, students and tourists alike—all of whom have the potential to add to or subtract from our nation’s security and place on the world stage.

Notes

¹ Peck was one of the first to illuminate the co-constructed nature of culture teaching as agreed-upon stories about the “Other”. His original intent was to increase critical awareness of the social and political biases inherent in both culture teaching practices and available textbook materials in L2 classrooms.

² In 2010, Hofstede noted a sixth dimension of indulgence versus self-restraint in collaborative work with Mikel Minkov of the World Values Survey.

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Relationship between Reported Out-of-Class English Use and Proficiency Gains in English

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This study investigated the relationship between out-of-class L2 use and proficiency gains in learners of English as a second language (ESL) in an intensive English language program. In contrast to previous studies on this topic, which have found weak, non-existent or even inverse relationships between out-of-class language experience and L2 proficiency gains, this study took place over a longer period of time (31 weeks), involved a larger number of participants (61 ESL learners from 12 different language backgrounds at four proficiency levels), and found a statistically significant connection between out-of-class language use and proficiency gains. Participants took a proficiency pre-test and post-test and responded to a questionnaire designed to elicit information about out-of-class language use. In addition, six learners participated in semi-structured interviews. Data obtained from the questionnaire and interviews were compared to gains in proficiency between the pre-test and post-test. The results corroborate the “common sense” connection between L2 out-of-class use and proficiency development. They also identify the types of out-of-class language use that are most strongly connected with L2 proficiency gains.

Common sense suggests that students who devote themselves to using their second language (L2) outside of the classroom will become more proficient than those who refuse or avoid using the L2 in their daily lives. Surprisingly, however, the research-based link between out-of-class language experience and language gains is tenuous at best. Some studies have found a weak connection between the two factors (Freed, 1990; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Seliger, 1977; Yager, 1998), while others have found no connection—or even an inverse relationship in some cases, with increased out-of-class contact resulting in negative gains in proficiency (Day, 1985; Mendelson, 2004; O'Donnell, 2004; Spada, 1986). One explanation for this discrepancy and failure to find a strong connection could be the limited scope of most of the previous research, involving small participant samples (35 participants on average) and short timeframes (six to 15 weeks). We began the research reported in this article with the hope that a study examining a larger number

of participants over a lengthier period of time would provide more conclusive results. The purpose of this 31-week study involving 61 English as a Second Language (ESL) learners from various countries was thus to overcome some of the limitations of previous studies and determine more definitively the relationship between out-of-class English use and proficiency gain. If such a relationship were found, the study also aimed to discover which specific out-of-class language tasks were most beneficial to students' language proficiency gains.

Review of Literature

One of the most surprising aspects of previous studies conducted on the influence of out-of-class language use on language gain is that they continue to regularly appear, despite the fact that they almost universally have indicated no connection between out-of-class contact and proficiency (Day, 1985; Freed, 1990; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Seliger, 1977; Spada, 1986; Yager, 1998). This section will examine previous studies on this topic and their results in order to illustrate how the current study differs from previous studies in both methodology and scope (see Table 1 for a detailed chart comparing the various studies).

Table 1. *Chronological Research Design Comparison*

Researcher	Study Length	Subjects	Language Level(s)	Proficiency Test	LCP Used	LCP/Gain Relation Found
Seliger (1977)	Not Specified	6	Upper Intermediate	Cloze	Yes	Yes
Day (1985)	8 weeks	58	Intermediate to Advanced	Oral Interviews and Cloze	Yes	No
Spada (1986)	6 weeks	48	Intermediate	7 different measures	No	No
Freed (1990)	6 weeks	38	Beginner to Advanced	OPI and CEEB	Yes	Mixed
Yager (1998)	7 weeks	41	Beginner to Advanced	Oral Interviews	Yes	Mixed
Segalowitz & Freed (2004)	13 weeks	40	Not Specified	OPI and 7 other	Yes	Weak Connection
Mendelson A (2004)	4 weeks	31	Beginner to Advanced	OPI	Yes	No
Mendelson B (2004)	15 weeks	14	Beginner to Advanced	OPI	Yes	No
Hernández (2010)	15 weeks	20	Intermediate	SOPI	Yes	Yes

The first major study concerned with out-of-class language use and proficiency gain was conducted just over 30 years ago. Seliger (1977) performed a small-scale study with six upper-intermediate students of various language backgrounds who were enrolled in an intensive English language program (the length of the program was not specified in the study). One of the most important contributions of this study was that it was the first to use what has become a standard in this research field: the Language Contact Profile (LCP), a self-report survey designed to measure students' out-of-class L2 use. Due to the exploratory nature of this study (limited by both participant number and language level), Seliger's results were limited in scope. Nevertheless, based on the results of his study, Seliger suggested there are two kinds of learners: the ones who consciously work on their English and the ones who do not. Seliger concluded that there is an interaction continuum, with active learners who seek out opportunities to practice on one end and passive learners who avoid interaction in the language on the opposite end. In general, the former experienced greater proficiency gains than the latter. Thus, the first study in the field indicated a tentative positive relation between out-of-class contact and proficiency, although clearly further research was necessary.

Building on Seliger's study, Day (1985) conducted a similar study using the same survey—this time with 58 predominantly Asian adults who were enrolled in an intensive ESL program and whose proficiency ranged from intermediate to advanced. Based on the results of his study, Day disagreed with Seliger, concluding that “evidence purporting to support the claim that the level attained by ESL students is related to their use of English outside the classroom is mixed and questionable” (p. 265).

Spada (1986) conducted a study investigating the effects of type of contact and instruction on proficiency. Forty-eight intermediate adult ESL learners of various language and cultural backgrounds were included in her six-week study. Surprisingly, Spada (1986) found that “the more contact learners had with the second language, the *poorer* their scores were” on proficiency evaluations, yet “type (but not amount) of contact was positively correlated with speaking scores on both the pre- and post-tests” (p. 190). So rather than simply indicating there was no connection between out-of-class English use and proficiency, Spada's study seemed to show that the more students used English out-of-class, the worse their scores on proficiency tests became. However, other data in this study suggested that “neither amount, type, nor combined contact scores accounted for differences in learners' improvement” on proficiency (p. 191). In the end, Spada could find no link between out-of-class L2 use and proficiency gain.

Freed (1990) investigated the effect of out-of-class French use of a group of 38 students during a six-week study abroad program in France. Freed's findings corroborated the results of Day's 1985 study. As she stated, the “amount of out-of-class contact does not seem to influence measurable class progress,” although type of contact did have some effect on proficiency (Freed, 1990, pp. 472-473). According to Freed (1990), social interactions were beneficial to lower-level students who had not yet mastered this type of language. On the other hand, higher-level students profited more from interacting with language materials such as books, newspapers and movies.

Building upon these four major studies, Yager (1998) examined 30 native English students who participated in a seven-week study while learning Spanish in Mexico. Like Freed, Yager (1998) found that “greater interactive contact correlates with greater gain in beginners” whereas “greater noninteractive contact corresponds with less language gain in beginners” (p. 907). However, contrary to Freed's findings, Yager found that “greater

noninteractive contact corresponds with less language gain in advanced learners” (p. 907) as well.

Mendelson (2004) conducted a three-part study focused on two American study-abroad groups in Spain: one which lasted 15 weeks with 14 participants and one which lasted four weeks with 31 participants. Because some of her study participants ended up with her during the semester following the study, Mendelson took the opportunity to interview them further in a third, smaller study. Despite the fact that the longer study involved at least 14 of the participants, Mendelson failed to find a connection between out-of-class language use and proficiency gain.

Limitations of Earlier Studies

Why did these researchers not find a stronger, positive relationship between out-of-class language use and language proficiency gains? Several limitations to these earlier studies may explain why this is the case. First of all, most of them examined changes in language gain over a very short period of time—the longest of which was 15 weeks. Measurable proficiency gains may take longer than 15 weeks to develop. Second, the method of measuring language gain may have exacerbated this problem. Many of the studies used language measurements such as the OPI (Oral Proficiency Interview), which, though a viable method of measuring language proficiency, has only 10 levels of language proficiency. As a result, capturing subtle changes in language gain (like those most likely to occur over a short period of time) may be unlikely (e.g., Freed, 1990). Third, many of the studies had relatively few participants, most averaging around 35 students. Because of the myriad of factors affecting L2 acquisition, having few participants makes finding significant gains of one factor on language learning difficult. Any one of these issues might have had a marked impact on results.

One recent study addressed many of the limitations of earlier research. Segalowitz and Freed (2004) tried to remedy the biggest problem of all the previous studies—insufficient time between pre- and post-test. They lengthened the period between their pre-test and post-test to 13 weeks—almost double the length of most previous studies. Their participants consisted of 40 native English speakers learning Spanish in two different learning contexts—at home (AH) and in a study-abroad (SA) program. The results of this study were again mixed. On the one hand, when the participants from the AH context were compared to the participants in the SA context, the SA participants were found to have much higher oral performance gains as measured by the OPI and another oral proficiency measure. On the other hand, Segalowitz and Freed (2004) stated that the “amount of in-class and out-of-class contact appeared to have only a weak and indirect impact on oral gains” for learners in both AH and SA contexts (p. 192). They listed possible reasons for this discrepancy, including the observation that much of the contact participants had could have been formulaic (greetings or short chitchat) or that significant gains from out-of-class contact occurred only after a certain “threshold” of time was reached. They discussed the possibility that a 13-week time frame might have been too short for measurable gains in proficiency to develop from out-of-class language use.

Overall, the study by Segalowitz and Freed (2004) constituted a helpful step forward in overcoming the time-frame limitations of previous studies. It also reconfirmed good design choices, such as using the LCP to measure language use. Moreover, Segalowitz and Freed used a combination of qualitative and quantitative measures. Although the interviews they conducted with the participants were not explicitly discussed in the published version

of their study, these interviews were carried out in order to gain insights into the participants' out-of-class language use that the LCP as a self-reporting questionnaire could not provide. However, their results suggested that even a 13-week study may have provided "simply too little" time to confirm the hypothesis that out-of-class language use and proficiency gain are positively correlated (p. 193). Lengthening the time between pre-test and post-test even more and using a more sensitive instrument than the OPI to measure language gain would help in determining whether out-of-class language use does influence proficiency gains. The current study was designed to do these two things.

Current Study

The present study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between reported out-of-class English use and proficiency gain?
2. What specific language-learning activities promote language gain?

In order to arrive at more conclusive findings regarding the relationship between out-of-class L2 use and L2 proficiency gain, the study built on the strengths and weaknesses of previous research along these lines. Specifically, five areas were improved. First, the time between pre- and post-test was lengthened to allow for more distinct gains in proficiency. Second, the participant sample was non-homogenous both in terms of language level and linguistic background so that the results of this study could be applied to wider populations of L2 learners. Third, an Elicited Imitation (EI) proficiency test (discussed below) sensitive enough to measure subtle distinctions in proficiency was employed. Fourth, the Freed, Dewey, Segalowitz, & Halter (2004) version of the Language Contact Profile was used (only slightly revised to fit our research setting) so that the results of the current study could be compared to previous research on this topic. Fifth, post-survey interviews were used in addition to the LCP to avoid relying on just one measure of out-of-class use and to better examine the factors behind language use patterns—an approach later researchers have consistently chosen.

The scope of this study was purposefully limited to ESL learners involved in intensive English programs. Other researchers have focused on out-of-class L2 use and proficiency gains by learners in other settings, such as study-abroad programs (Allen & Herron, 2003; Bacon, 2002; Ball, 2000; Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsberg, 1993; Churchill & DuFon, 2006; DeKeyser, 1991; Freed, 1995; Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Ife, 2000; Magnan & Back, 2007; Meara, 1994; Wilkinson, 1998) and heritage language learners using the target language in their homes and communities (Beaudrie & Ducar, 2005; Noels, 2005; Oh & Au, 2005; Siegel, 2004; Weger-Guntharp, 2006).

Methodology

Participants

Participants in this study were enrolled in an intensive English program (IEP) at Brigham Young University. Although all the IEP students (N = 240) were invited to participate and many did initially, because of the length of the study, only 61 students completed all the portions: the pre- and post-tests as well as the LCP survey. At the end of the study, participants were at one of

four proficiency levels (with approximate equivalents based on the ACTFL Speaking Proficiency Guidelines in parentheses): level 1, Novice-High (n = 8), level 2, Intermediate-Low (n = 19), level 3, Intermediate-High (n = 23), or level 4, Advanced-Low (n = 11). Most of the students were native Spanish (n = 25) or Korean (n = 15) speakers; other native languages of the participants were Japanese (4), Chinese (3), Taiwanese (3), Mongolian (3), Portuguese (3), Russian (1), Italian (1), Armenian (1), French (1), and Haitian Creole (1).

Instruments

An Elicited Imitation (EI) pre- and post-test was used to measure participants' oral proficiency in English. At the end of the academic year, the participants also responded to the questions on the Language Contact Profile (LCP) to self-assess their use of English outside of class. In addition, six semi-structured interviews were conducted to better understand and triangulate the results of the LCP. Each of these procedures is discussed in more detail below.

Elicited Imitation: One of the noted limitations of previous studies was the inability of an OPI to detect subtle differences in language gains. Hence, researchers have recommended the use of a more sensitive measure of language proficiency (B. F. Freed, 1990; Kinginger, 2009; Milleret, Stansfield, & Kenyon, 1991; Norman Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). Administering the OPI also involves considerable expense (the current individual test fee is \$134) and requires a substantial amount of time to coordinate and carry out, since tests are given on an individual basis and have to be conducted either face-to-face or by telephone by a certified tester. In response to these concerns, an elicited imitation test was chosen to measure participants' proficiency in the current study.

In EI tests, sentences are orally presented to participants, who are then asked to accurately repeat the sentences, which are "typically designed to manipulate certain grammatical structures" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 46). EI is currently being used in research on second language acquisition (e.g., Ellis, 2005, 2006; Erlam, 2006; Jessop, Suzuki, & Tomita, 2007) for the purpose of determining which morphosyntactic features learners have acquired. Furthermore, EI is used in standardized measures of L2 proficiency (Suzuki, Ikari, & Yokokawa, 2010; van der Walt, de Wet, & Niesler, 2008) as one of multiple means of assessing proficiency. Several studies have shown EI to be a useful and highly reliable measure of L2 speaking proficiency (see Vinther, 2002 for a review). Several authors have found significant and high correlations between EI and measures of L2 speaking proficiency (Bley-Vroman & Chaudron, 1994; Chaudron, Prior, & Kozok, 2005; Graham, Lonsdale, Kennington, Johnson, & McGhee, 2008; Graham, Millard, Eckerson, & Christensen, 2009; Henning, 1983). Graham and his colleagues (Graham, et al., 2008; Graham, et al., 2009) have been successful in estimating a learner's OPI score based on EI to within one sub-level on the OPI scale (e.g., Intermediate-Mid estimate for an Intermediate-High student). Dewey and Matsushita (2010) found similarly high correlations between EI and OPI scores for learners of Japanese as a second language. In addition to correlating well with widely used measures of oral proficiency, EI is sensitive to fine changes in proficiency that might not be captured by a measures such as the OPI (Bley-Vroman & Chaudron, 1994; Day, Boggs, Tharp, Gallimore, & Speidel, 1974; Erlam, 2006; Gallimore, Day, & Tharp, 1978; Graham, 2006; Henning, 1983; Chaudron, Prior, & Kozok, 2005; Vinther 2002).

Although many have noted the usefulness of EI as an indirect measure of L2 speaking proficiency (Day, et al., 1974; Diller, Diller, & Hamm, 2003; Graham, 2006; Graham et al., 2008; Radloff, 1992; Stadler &

Bagwell, 1993), the primary criticism of EI regarding its face validity (i.e., that it does not involve interactive speaking) still remains. In spite of this, we found EI to be a practical, highly reliable and useful measure of L2 speaking proficiency.

The EI test used for the present study was constructed independently of this study. We used the version developed by Graham and his colleagues (Graham, 2006; Graham et al., 2008) that was found to be highly correlated with various measures of oral proficiency, including the OPI. This test was validated using results from extensive testing of over 150 EI prompts in order to ensure that the 60 prompts used were as effective as possible. These were tested on more than 350 learners of varying L1 backgrounds and proficiency levels (Graham, 2006, Graham et al., 2008).

Participants heard a recorded semantically plausible sentence or a question (e.g., "If she listens, she will understand."), which ranged between five and 25 syllables in length. These items were constructed to include "a range of syntactic and morphological features" (Graham, 2006). The sentences were unrelated to each other and required the participants to hear and understand each individual item without any picture prompts or context. Each item was followed by a five-second period during which the participants were instructed to repeat each sentence with accuracy. While the original test contained 60 items, one had to be eliminated due to a computer program malfunction that prevented the responses to this item from being recorded. Consequently, only 59 items were used.

Each sentence was scored on the basis of the student's correct repetition of all syllables in the sentence. Using a five-point rating rubric (Chaudron et al., 2005; Graham, 2006), a score ranging from 0 to 4 was given for each sentence. Students started with a perfect score of 4 for each item. One point was then taken off for each syllable that was missing, unintelligible or added. Participant responses that were missing more than three syllables were given a score of 0. Points were not taken off for mispronounced words unless: (1) the participant used a completely different word than the word in the prompt; or (2) the response (or a part of it) was unintelligible.

To illustrate, if a speaker produced the sentence "He should have walked away before the fight started," as "He should have walk before the fight started," the score for this rendition of the sentence would be a 1; one point was taken off from the total points of 4 for each missing, unintelligible or added syllables (in this case, the missing 'ed' and the 2 syllable word 'away'). As a second example, if a speaker produced the sentence "Joe writes poetry" as "Joe writes poetry," with all of the syllables present and intelligible and nothing added, the score would be a 4. The responses were double scored by two trained raters who evaluated all of the items independently. When the two raters disagreed, a third rater was called in. Each response was scored individually, after which an average score for each student was computed based on the scores for all his/her responses. This resulted in a score for each participant that ranged from 0 to 4, broken down into tenths of a point (i.e. 0, 0.1, 0.2, etc.) resulting in 40 score intervals. This point spread created a much more sensitive measurement than the 10-level scale of the Oral Proficiency Interviews used in previous studies. This average score was then recorded as the pre-or post-test score.

The Language Contact Profile: The Language Contact Profile (LCP) has been used by many researchers in one form or another since Seliger's 1977 study (e.g., Badstübner & Ecke, 2009; Dewey, 2008; Barbara F. Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Hernández, 2010; Isabelli-García, 2010; Magnan & Back, 2007; Martinsen, 2007; O'Donnell, 2004). Magnan and Back (2007) note that while the LCP may suffer from "its sensitivity to individuals' ability

to recall behavior accurately, “... a comparison of students’ responses on the LCP and their answers on the postprogram questionnaire suggested that the LCP had captured a reality of their experience” (p. 48). Freed (1990) found that the LCP had a high level of test-retest reliability. Building on the LCP, a number of researchers have made revisions to fit their needs (e.g., Badstübner & Ecke, 2009; Magnan & Back, 2007; Martinsen, 2007). We did the same. The version of the LCP used in our study was produced by Freed et al. (2004), but the following improvements were made to this version of the LCP in order to make it fit the IEP context better. First, the LCP by Freed et al. (2004) was made for native English speakers learning Spanish, so items had to be reworded to fit English-language learners. The second major change was that the LCP used in this study did not have separate pre- and post-test versions. The Freed et al. (2004) LCP pretest contained mostly demographic items and questions about participants’ past language-learning experiences, and these demographic questions were simply incorporated into the LCP used in this study. Third, the present LCP was shorter than the Freed et al. (2004) LCP because some questions either did not apply to the IEP context or were unimportant for the purposes of the present study. Finally, items about homework were added to each section that did not already contain them (speaking, reading and listening). In addition, small changes in instructions had to be made because the present LCP was an online survey, not a pencil and paper survey.

For level 1 students, who were not proficient enough to understand all of the questions on the LCP in English, the whole survey was translated into Korean, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese and French—the native languages spoken by the majority of these students. The translations were provided by native or near-native speakers of each language. Additionally, each translation was back-translated into English and then compared with the English original. Any inconsistencies were corrected before the translations were made available to the students.

The LCP was administered during class near the end (during the 28th and 29th weeks) of the 31-week study, with the teacher for each class present. On average, it took the students 11 minutes to respond to the online version of the LCP. All writing class teachers in levels 1-4 were asked to help their students log into the survey. Once the students logged in, they were guided through the survey by simple instructions.

One limitation of the LCP noted by Mendelson (2004) and found in our study as well is that, due to the LCP’s construction, the data it produces can grossly exaggerate the amount of contact—beyond what would be humanly possible in a 24-hour day. The reason for this problem is the way that the LCP forces participants to report the amount of their contact time in one-hour increments—making choices of less than one-hour impossible. In other words, even if a learner’s out-of-class English contact lasted only one minute, it would be recorded in the “0-1 hour” category. When contact times were tallied later, that one-minute interaction would count as one hour, and multiple, short interactions could easily push the total beyond the limits of a normal 24-hour day. Furthermore, because some of the categories may overlap a bit, time may be double counted, further inflating time estimates. This face-validity problem has kept many researchers from reporting the total number of contact hours indicated on learners’ LCPs (e.g., Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Magnan & Black, 2007).

It should be noted that our purpose for gathering information on amount of time spent in each LCP activity was not to achieve an accurate estimate of number of hours total in the language (separate individual questions asked students to estimate totals in speaking, reading, writing, and listening). Rather, our goal was to approximate the proportion or degree of time spent in

each activity (i.e., if more hours are reported in one activity than another, the assumption is that it is a more frequently occurring activity, regardless of the difference in total hours in all activities). For this reason, for our analysis of these items, we chose to focus on relative amounts of time spent rather than trying to obtain totals by adding items. Furthermore, we took an approach similar to Freed (1990), using standardized scores rather than total number of hours.

Interviews: As in previous studies (Day, 1985; Dewey, 2002; Freed, 1990; Hernández, 2010; Seliger, 1977), post-survey interviews were conducted to obtain qualitative data to triangulate the quantitative LCP data. Since these interviews could be conducted only after all other data were collected and analyzed (so that we could ensure we were interviewing both high and low English users), interview participant selection was limited to students still studying at the ELC. Of the 18 participants still studying at the ELC beyond the academic year of testing, six participants were selected based on their overall out-of-class English use values. Two participants from each level (2, 3, 4) were selected—the student with the highest out-of-class English use value and the one with the lowest. The interviews were semi-structured and ranged between 20 and 37 minutes in length.

Interview data were analyzed inductively in order to reveal unanticipated outcomes. In other words, the researchers drew generalizations and developed understanding from the students' perspectives (Borg & Gall, 1996). There were two primary objectives when making sense of the data gathered in the interviews: (1) interpreting what students think about their out-of-class use of English; and (2) verifying those perceptions against the students' responses to LCP questions. The desired outcome was to better explain how students use English during their out-of-class time. Each interview recording was transcribed. The transcription and investigator's post-interview notes were compared to the answers each interview participant reported on the LCP in order to find trends of typical out-of-class English use.

Data Analysis

The first step in our analyses was to calculate the gain scores for each of the participants. The gains for each participant were obtained by subtracting the average pre-test score on the Elicited Imitation test from the average post-test score.

We performed two analyses on the data. The first was to run correlations between the gain scores and the scores for the total out-of-class daily English use (the sum of learner estimates of total speaking, reading, writing, and listening in English). We also ran correlations on four other questions on the LCP. These four questions asked how often per week and per day each participant spent speaking, reading, listening, or writing English out of class, respectively. Thus, five measures of out-of-class English use were compared with language gain. This was done to analyze whether use of one particular language skill was more highly correlated with language gains than another.

Our second analysis examined whether participants who used English out of class more often were likely to have greater language gains than participants who used English less frequently. We did this by dividing the students into two groups: those who used English out of class frequently ("high users") and those who used it less ("low users"). Thus, we ordered the data from the participant who used English the most to the participant who used it the least. Because these scores were scalar and the data followed a normal distribution, it was impossible to determine where "high users" ended

and “low users” began. For this reason, and to ensure that the two groups were distinctly different, we instead compared those users in the top quartile (i.e., the 25% ($n = 15$) with the highest out-of-class language use) with the bottom quartile (i.e., the 25% ($n = 15$) with the lowest out-of-class language use). An independent sample t-test was used to statistically compare the gains in proficiency as measured by the EI for the high-user versus the low-user group.

To answer the second research question (What specific language-learning activities promote language gain?), a linear step-wise multiple regression analysis was applied. In the analysis, the gain scores for each participant were used as the dependent variable. The participants’ answers to how often they used English in various activities outside of class were used as predictor variables in order to determine which of the activities on the LCP were associated with larger gains on the proficiency measures.

In addition, to analyze the interview data, each interview recording was transcribed. The transcription and investigator’s post-interview notes were compared to the answers each interview participant reported on the LCP so that trends of typical out-of-class English use could be found.

Results

Research Question 1

The first research question examined the relationship between reported out-of-class English use and proficiency gains. Analyses revealed that all of these measures were correlated to a significant degree with language gains (total per day, .394**; overall speaking, .276*; overall listening, .369**; overall reading .272*, where $* = p < .05$ and $** = p < .01$) with the exception of out-of-class writing (overall writing, .194). While these findings suggest that out-of-class English use does play a significant role in language gain, we must also point out that the correlations between out-of-class English use and language gains, although significant, were still low. For this reason, we also performed a t-test comparing participants who reported high out-of-class English use with those who reported low out-of-class English use (see Table 2 for descriptive statistics for groups). This analysis revealed a significant difference between the gain scores of high users versus low users ($t(29) = 4.318, p < .0001$). These findings provide further evidence that out-of-class English use is associated with language gain.

Table 2. *Out-of-class English Use: Top versus Bottom Quartile Groups*

Study Participants	N	Average Hours a day speaking English	Average Gain Score
Top Quartile Group	15	9.20 (2.35)	.80 (.69)
Bottom Quartile Group	15	1.67 (.35)	.34 (.31)
Total Participants	30	4.81 (3.03)	.55 (.51)

* $p = 0.0001$

To further corroborate the findings of the correlation analyses, we also examined the differences between the two groups' hours-per-day averages for the individual English contact types based on skill (speaking, reading, listening, writing and overall). To do so, we ran a two-way ANOVA on the hours-per-day out-of-class English use for each of the skill areas for the high and low English users. This analysis revealed a significant effect of group ($F(1,29) = 197.149, p < .0001$), skill ($F(1,3) = 19.24, p < .0001$) and a skill x group interaction ($F(3,29) = 12.62, p < .0001$). In other words, the high-user group reported greater out-of-class language use than the low-user group for each of the four skill areas. However, the skill x group interaction suggested that the difference for the two groups was greater for some skills than others. Post-hoc Tukey tests revealed a greater difference between the two groups' use for listening and speaking than for reading and writing (see Figure 1). These findings suggest that the main difference between the high users and the low users was that the high users participated in more speaking and listening activities than the low users.

Next, we re-calculated the correlations between language gain and the five measures of language use (overall total hours per day and the four measures examining overall speaking, listening, reading and writing) for the participants in the top and bottom quartiles. This analysis revealed a similar finding to those described for the entire group above, although the correlations were stronger (total per day .433*; overall speaking .400*; overall listening .426*; overall reading .323; overall writing .398 where * = $p < .05$). One notable difference between the two correlations (overall and the high/low-user group) was that, when only the bottom and top quartile participants' scores were examined, amount of out-of-class English writing correlated significantly with language gains whereas reading did not. The opposite occurred in the correlations run on all the participants' scores—that is, reading was significantly correlated with language gain while writing was not.

Research Question 2

The second research question sought to determine which specific out-of-class English use activities listed on the LCP were the most effective predictors of language gain. This question was especially important for

pedagogical reasons because its results might suggest that specific language-learning activities may be more helpful than others for improving L2 proficiency. To examine this question, all of the 26 activities listed on the LCP (see Appendix) were included as predictor variables in a linear step-wise multiple regression analysis. We also included as a predictor variable the average of the scores of all activities on the LCP. This was done so that we could see the influence of each of these skills on the language gain scores. This analysis revealed four factors that influenced language gain the most. LCP item 5a – “Deliberately trying to use what was taught in the classroom (grammar, vocabulary, expressions) with native or fluent English speakers outside the classroom” – accounted for 20 percent of the variance in the scores. LCP item number 2a – “How much time did you spend speaking in English outside of the classroom?” – accounted for 14 percent of the variance. The average score for all tasks combined accounted for another 12 percent of the variance. Finally, LCP item number 4b – “Obtaining directions/information” – accounted for nine percent of the variance in the scores (see Table 3). These four factors accounted for approximately 54 percent of the variance. The other 24 LCP items and the other combined skill scores were not significant predictors of gain.

Table 3. Multiple Regression Analysis–Activities that Predict Language Gain

Gain predictors	R ² value	F value	Significance	Percentages
Deliberately using what was learned in speaking class	.202	8.600	.006	20%
Time spent speaking English	.330	8.144	.001	14%
Average of speaking, reading, writing, listening in English	.433	8.130	.0001	12%
Asking for directions or information in English	.546	9.307	.0001	9%

Once these gain predictors were identified, we examined how high and low users differed in their use of these four factors. We tested whether the two groups were indeed different in the amount they used these factors by running

a two-way (user group by task) ANOVA. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 3. The analysis revealed a significant effect for group ($F(1,29) = 301.262, p < .0001$), task ($F(1,3) = 85.65, p < .0001$), and task by group interaction ($F(3,29) = 39.73, p < .0001$). These results demonstrate that the high-user group reported greater out-of-class language use than the low-user group for each of the four tasks found to relate to language gain. However, the task by group interaction suggested that the difference for the two groups was greater for some skills than others. Post-hoc Tukey tests revealed a greater difference between the two groups' total use of speaking and deliberately using skills taught in class than for the other tasks (i.e., overall use of English and asking for directions and information). In other words, these two factors seemed to play the greatest role in distinguishing between the two groups.

Discussion

This study examined the connection between out-of-class L2 use and learners' L2 proficiency gains. Moreover, it sought to examine which types of out-of-class activities had the strongest relationship with language gain. The study's findings in these two categories will be discussed below. In addition to the results of the quantitative data analysis, we present further support for these findings by using interview data gathered from six participants.

Out-of-class Language Use and Proficiency Gains

The main finding of this study was that learners who used their L2 outside of class more frequently typically had larger proficiency gains than those who used their L2 outside of class less frequently. While this seems to be a validation of the obvious and is in line with a few studies showing connections between out-of-class language use and language gains (Dewey, 2008; Freed, 1990; Llanes & Muñoz, 2009; Shively & Cohen, 2007; Taguchi, 2008), this finding contrasts with the results of other studies (i.e., Day, 1985; Mendelson, 2004; O'Donnell, 2004; Spada, 1986), which found a weak or non-existent relationship between out-of-class language contact and proficiency development. Reasons for the difference between our results and studies finding no relationship between language gains and proficiency development are that our study was significantly longer, had more participants, and used a proficiency test allowing for more fine-grained measurements of language gain.

By examining correlations between the four skill areas and language gain, we found that the greatest correlations occurred with overall speaking and listening use, although overall reading use and language gain were also significantly correlated. This may not be surprising since the method of examining language gain required speaking and listening more than reading and writing. However, interview data seemed to indicate that speaking and using the language verbally were the types of activities most high users (i.e., those who used English out of class often) consciously used to help improve their language skill. Five of the six interviewees mentioned the fact that being able (or unable) to initiate a conversation was directly related to their improvement. For example, in one interview, Richard¹ (a level 1 high user whose native language is Portuguese) said, "In my job, ... all the time I speak English. All the time... only English, because I'm not crazy. I have to practice. So when a person from Brazil tries to speak Portuguese, I tell them stop." Time after time, participants stressed this fact during their interviews. They all believed speaking more English would help them improve their language skills, and

most of them expressed the desire to speak even more English than they were managing at the time.

Interestingly, when correlations were run using only the low and high users' language gains and amount of English use, amount of writing was also significantly correlated with language gain. Earlier research examining factors affecting language gain in domestic immersion and study-abroad contexts revealed that writing was the primary predictor of language gain, even for tasks unrelated to writing (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004). Freed and her colleagues attributed this to the development of automaticity (in particular of chunks of language) that occurs as a result of the deep processing involved in writing the L2. It may be that writing plays a more prominent role in L2 speaking development than expected. Additional research testing participants' writing skills and use of English outside of class would further illuminate this relationship.

Types of Activities Affecting Proficiency Gains

The second purpose of this study was to determine which specific out-of-class activities were related to proficiency-gain differences in English. The results showed that four activities on the LCP had a statistically significant relationship with proficiency gains: "deliberately trying to use what was taught in the classroom;" "overall use of English;" "overall amount of speaking English;" and "asking for information." Each of these four factors is discussed separately below.

The greatest predictor of language gain—deliberately trying to use what was taught in the classroom—seems to support previous research which has shown that increasing students' participation in class leads to significant gains in proficiency (Lim, 1992; Zhou, 1991) and that the more students become personally engaged in a class, the better the odds that their proficiency will increase (Krupa-Kwiatkowski, 1998; Tsou, 2005). Thus, the current study's finding confirm previous research, since deliberately using what was taught in class implies a certain level of personal engagement with the material. This conclusion also corroborates the findings of Seliger (1977), who concluded there were two types of learners: active (those who sought out opportunities to practice) and passive (those who avoided interaction in the target language). In general, then, it seems reasonable to conclude that language learners who actively use their target language by finding opportunities outside of the classroom to practice what was taught in class experience higher proficiency gains. In other words, the current research supports Seliger's earlier conclusion, while providing a more detailed view of the relationship.

Once again, interviews with the participants corroborated this conclusion. One discussion stood out in particular. Aaron, a native speaker of Japanese, who was classified as a low user, talked about his perceptions of learning English before he came to America. "[I thought] just staying here I can improve. Like I learn Japanese just [by] staying in Japan, I could learn English by staying here. I was wrong. I need to do something to improve." His comments contrast starkly with those of Lucy, a high user and native-speaker of Spanish who talked about how much she used English outside of class and how confident it made her feel.

In sum, as this gain predictor (deliberately trying to use what was taught in class) indicates, it is not enough to simply reside in a foreign-speaking country. To make significant gains in proficiency, learners need to deliberately apply what they are taught in class when they use their target language out of class.

The next two factors—overall use of English outside of the classroom and overall use of spoken English—similarly are supported in previous research and seem to indicate that the more the language is used interactively with other people, the greater the language gains. These findings are significant since earlier studies examining students on study abroad indicated learners actually make fewer language gains the more they speak the language (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Magnan & Black, 2007). One reason for the difference between our participants and those in study-abroad programs may be the type of language use. Segalowitz & Freed (2004), for example, suggest that negative language gains are related to more language use with the host family because students may only be using formulaic language when speaking to the host family or they may be passively listening in on such conversations rather than producing language.

One interviewee's response serves to illustrate this point. Lucy, whose proficiency gain was almost double the average (1.06 versus 0.55), said she spent seven days a week, four to five hours a day talking with her native English-speaking boyfriend. During the interview, she indicated she spent every weekend at the home of her boyfriend's sister, where none of the other people spoke Spanish (her native language). It appears that, in an intensive English language situation, the caliber of language contact may play a greater role than merely the amount of language use. Certainly, future research should investigate whether, and to what degree, specific types of speaking improve language gain.

The final factor—using English to obtain directions/information—may be related to how willing and how comfortable learners feel using English outside of class (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). Willingness to communicate (WTC)—defined as the “intention to initiate conversation” and related to anxiety, motivation and apprehension in speaking—may significantly affect not only language use but also language gain (Matsuda & Goebel, 2004; Kang, 2005). Indeed, all of the above factors may be related to WTC since those learners who are actively engaged in attempting to use the language may feel more comfortable speaking the language (Yashima, 2002). To illustrate this point, in our study, those participants claiming to frequently speak English felt more confident about their English skills. Lucy, a level 2 high user whose native language is Spanish and the participant with the highest gain of any of the interviewees (and also the highest reported out-of-class English use), repeatedly talked about how good she felt about her English, since she was able to speak it often. In fact, in each interview, high users consistently reported being more confident about their English and optimistic about their prospects for improving. In contrast, Aaron, the level 2 low user mentioned earlier whose native language is Japanese, indicated having difficulty feeling comfortable interacting with English speakers and consequently rarely using English out of the classroom. As the gain predictor indicates, it is not enough to simply reside in a foreign-speaking country as Aaron believed. Rather, to make significant gains in proficiency, learners need to become actively engaged in learning, which may either cause or be caused by a willingness to communicate. Segalowitz, Gatbonton, and Trofimovich (2009) posit similar complex relationships between L2 identity, language use and language acquisition. They suggest that a L2 learner's ethnolinguistic affiliation (language identity) can influence “the selection of communicative experiences the individual allows him or herself to engage in,” which in turn influences and is influenced by L2 use, thus molding L2 acquisition (p. 188). In short, the relationship between L2 use and language acquisition is a complex one, but the current study suggests that they are connected.

Conclusion

This study examined the relationship between out-of-class L2 use and L2 proficiency gains. The main finding was that those ESL learners who engaged in out-of-class English use were more likely to demonstrate proficiency gains. This finding is not necessarily surprising; it accords with “common sense.” Nevertheless, it contrasts with the results of several shorter studies (i.e., Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Day, 1985). This study also found that speaking tasks in general—as well as the activities of asking for directions/information and deliberately trying to use what was taught in the classroom with native or fluent English speakers outside of the classroom—were the strongest predictors of proficiency gain. A closer examination of these factors in future studies may help researchers and teachers alike improve our understanding of how languages are best taught and learned.

While it is unclear whether the relationship between L2 use and L2 proficiency development is a simple causal one, it is clear that there is some connection between the two. Additional research, focusing not only on L2 use and proficiency development but also on Willingness to Communicate, L2 identity, and other similar factors, would help illuminate the nature of the relationship between use and proficiency.

Notes

- ¹ All interviewee names listed are pseudonyms.

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Appendix A

Language Contact Profile

The responses that you give in this questionnaire will be kept confidential. The information that you provide will help us to better understand learning experiences of ELC students. Your honest and detailed responses will be greatly appreciated. Thank you.

Part 1. Background Information

1. What is your 9 digit BYU ID?
2. What is your email address?
3. What is your gender?
4. How old are you?
5. What level at the ELC are you this semester?
6. What country are you from?
7. What is your native language?
8. How many other languages do you speak (for the purposes of this study it doesn't matter how well you speak them)? Do not include your native language and English.

I don't speak any other languages besides my native language and English.

I speak one other language besides my native language and English.

I speak two other languages besides my native language and English.

I speak three other languages besides my native language and English.

9. How long have you been in United States?

less than 4 months 5-8 months 9-12 months 1-2 years more than 2 years

10. If you have ever lived in another English-speaking country, how long have you lived there?

less than 4 months 5-8 months 9-12 months 1-2 years more than 2 years

- 11a. This semester, how often have you participated in the ELC Choir?

always often sometime rarely never

- 11b. This semester, how often have you participated in ELC activities (dances, cultural and sport events, etc.)?

always often sometime rarely never

12. Which situation best describes your living situation while studying at the ELC?

I live with only native English-speaking roommates.

I live with some native English-speaking roommates.

I live with no native English-speaking roommates.

I live with my own family and we mostly speak in my native language.

I live with a native English-speaking family (host family).

I live alone.

13. Have you studied English in school in the past at each of the levels listed below? Click NO if you have not studied English at the specific level or if you have studied at that level, specify for how long?

	No	Yes, less than 1 year	Yes, 1–2 years	Yes, more than 2 years
Elementary school				
Junior high (middle) school				
Senior high school				
University/college				

Part 2. Language Contact Profile

1. For the following items, please specify

(i) how many **days per week** you typically used English in the situation indicated, and

(ii) on average how many **hours per day** you did so.

Click on the appropriate numbers.

2a. On average, how much time did you spend speaking, **in English**, outside of class with native or fluent English speakers during this semester?

2b. doing speaking homework assignments in English **outside of class**

3. This semester, outside of class, I tried to speak **English to:**

3a. my teacher(s)

3b. friends (acquaintances, study buddy, etc.) who are native or fluent English speakers

- 3c. classmate(s)
- 3d. a host family, English-speaking roommate or other English speakers in my apartment complex
- 3e. Who else do you speak English with? Specify:
- 4. How often did you use **English** outside the classroom for each of the following purposes?
 - 4a. to clarify classroom related work (homework)
 - 4b. to obtain directions/information (e.g., "where is the post office"; "what time is it"; "how much are stamps")
 - 4c. for superficial or brief exchanges (e.g., greetings, "please pass the salt"; "I'm leaving", ordering in a restaurant, etc.) with my host family, English-speaking roommate, or friends in my apartment complex
 - 4d. for extended conversations with my host family, English-speaking roommate, friends, or acquaintances in my apartment complex, native speakers of my native language with whom I speak English
- 5a. How often did you try deliberately to use things you were taught in the classroom (grammar, vocabulary, expressions) with native or fluent English speakers outside the classroom?
- 5b. How often did you take things you learned outside of the classroom (grammar, vocabulary, expressions) back to class for question or discussion?
- 6. How much time did you spend doing each of the following activities **outside of class**?
 - 6a. Overall, in reading in English **outside of class**
 - 6b. reading English newspapers **outside of class**
 - 6c. reading novels in English **outside of class**
 - 6d. reading magazines in English **outside of class**
 - 6e. reading e-mail and/or internet web pages in English **outside of class**

- 6f. reading homework assignments in English **outside of class**
- 6g. Overall, in listening to English **outside of class**
- 6h. listening TV/radio, movies (at theatre and at home) in English **outside of class**
- 6i. listening to songs in English **outside of class**
- 6j. trying to catch other people's conversations in English **outside of class**
- 6k. doing listening homework assignments in English **outside of class**
- 6l. Overall, in writing in English **outside of class**
- 6m. writing personal notes, letters, email or chat in English **outside of class**
- 6n. writing homework assignments in English **outside of class**

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The Relationships between Grammatical Sensitivity, Noticing of Recasts and Learning of Korean Object Relative Clauses through Conversational Interaction

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Within the input and interaction research paradigm, how learners' individual differences play a role in using learning opportunities during interaction has become one of the main areas of investigation. Recasts have also received much attention in interaction research. This paper explores the extent to which individual differences in grammatical sensitivity (GS) are associated with noticing of recasts and learning through task-based interaction. Twenty-two English-speaking learners of Korean at the beginning and intermediate university level participated in a series of communicative tasks in native speaker (NS)-non-native speaker (NNS) dyads. This experimental study employed a pretest, immediate-posttest and delayed-posttest design. The target structure was Korean object relative clauses; the NS interlocutor provided the NNS participant with recasts on relative clause errors during the treatments. Immediate retrospective verbal reports were administered during the treatments to qualitatively capture noticing. The learners' GS capacities were measured by the Modern Language Aptitude Test subtest, "Words in Sentences." The results suggest that GS may have a positive relationship to noticing of recasts and that GS and learning may be related. Specifically, regarding the relationship between GS and learning outcomes, learners with higher GS had a larger gain from the pretest to the delayed posttest than those with lower GS.

Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis claimed that learners benefit in second language acquisition (SLA) from interacting with other speakers. Thus, the facilitative role of conversational interaction in SLA has been supported by abundant empirical evidence, and the components of the interactional process, such as input, interaction, feedback, noticing and output, have received a significant amount of attention. In recent years, the main research interest within the input and interaction approach has shifted from whether interaction promotes learning toward how interaction leads to learning. To address this issue, it is crucial to explore how and why learners' individual differences play a role in the relationship between interaction and learning (Mackey & Gass, 2006). However, there have been few empirical studies on this topic, and more research is needed to understand the interaction and learning mechanisms. To this end, the present study investigates how second language (L2) learners' individual differences, such as grammatical sensitivity (GS), are related to noticing of recasts and subsequent learning of Korean morphosyntax.

Literature Review

Recasts and Learning

Much attention has been drawn to the role of recast – defined as “the teacher’s correct restatement of a learner’s incorrectly formed utterance” (Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001, p. 720) – amongst many different types of interactional feedback. This may be because research indicated that recasts are the most common type of interactional feedback (Long, 2006) and provide both positive (input) and negative (feedback) evidence (Gass, 2003). In general, the positive effect of recasts has been empirically demonstrated by a number of researchers (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Han, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998). However, a few researchers have reported the opposite results regarding the positive effect of recasts (Lyster 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Long (1996) argued the benefits of recasts in that the informational content included in recasts is contextualized and the speakers are likely to be aware of the intended meaning in contexts. Long (2006) further argued that recasts are the ideal interactional feedback because they are unobtrusive; thus, speakers can attend to errors without breaking the flow of communication. In contrast, Lyster took the stance that recasts may not be facilitative in learning. Recasts may be interpreted by learners as responses to the content rather than the form, or alternatives of addressing the identical statement. He claimed that the ambiguity of recasts, which contain both positive and negative evidence, reduces their corrective nature and makes them less noticeable. Long (2006) also regarded recasts as implicit negative feedback, which can be less salient to learners and may lessen noticing. Despite the opposing views on the role and the efficacy of recasts, it is generally agreed that recasts are the most common type of interactional feedback in language classrooms (Braid, 2002; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Moreover, recasts generally prove to be effective in promoting L2 learning. Considering the controversy regarding the nature of recasts described above, recasts are worthy of further exploration.

To recap, although sufficient empirical evidence showing that interaction facilitates learning has been demonstrated, the question of why and how this facilitation occurs should be answered. Gass and Mackey (2007) indicated that attention is one of the crucial mechanisms that mediates between input and learning. As such, in order to enhance our understanding of interaction and learning, attention as a way of creating new knowledge and modifying learners’ interlanguage needs further exploration.

Noticing

According to Schmidt’s (1990, 1994) Noticing Hypothesis, noticing is essential to learning, and no learning occurs without attention. However, this strong version of noticing was criticized due to the evidence of unattentional learning (Gass, 1997; Schachter, Rounds, Wright, & Smith, 1998). Afterwards, Schmidt (1998, 2001) modified his strong version of noticing, indicating that learning without conscious awareness may occur, but it may not significantly contribute to L2 development in general.

Generally, selective attention and the beneficial effects of attention appear to be widely accepted in SLA. Through interaction with other speakers, learners’ attention is drawn to a specific part of the language, particularly to mismatches between their own non-target-like forms and their interlocutors’ target-like forms. Once these mismatches are noticed, learners restructure their interlanguage, and their more target-like forms are stored in their memory

system which eventually is likely to lead to learning (Doughty, 2001; Gass, 2003). In spite of the significance that noticing may contribute to learning and the considerable debate on the effects of recasts due to their ambiguous nature that might reduce learners' noticeability, there has been little work that directly examines the role of noticing in interactional feedback (Mackey, Philp, Egi, Fujii, & Tatsumi, 2002; Philp, 2003). While the literature suggests that noticing plays a mediating role between interaction and SLA, the potential mediating role of learners' cognitive individual differences has not been sufficiently investigated.

Individual Differences and Interaction

In L2 aptitude research, it is suggested that working memory (WM) may influence learners' L2 grammar, vocabulary and reading skills (Harrington & Sawyer, 1992) as well as speaking and listening skills (Geva & Ryan, 1993). Several studies also supported the association between analytical ability, equivalent to GS, and L2 morphosyntactic development (Dekeyser, 2000; Harley & Hart, 1997; Ranta, 2002). As with these aptitude research findings, it is reasonable to think that cognitive individual differences may play a role in the context of conversational interaction as well as L2 learning.

As has been previously stated, there have been few empirical studies on individual differences in learners' cognitive abilities and interactional feedback in spite of calls to pursue this line of research in recent years. In direct relation to the present research, three studies conducted in different experimental settings are noteworthy. Mackey et al. (2002) undertook research into complex learner cognitive constructs in interaction research. They found a possible link among phonological WM, noticing of recasts and subsequent development of English as a second language (ESL) question forms during face-to-face conversational interaction. This pioneering research brought more attention to these topics in interaction research. Trofimovich, Ammar, & Gathbonton (2007) subsequently used digital audio recording software to investigate the extent to which ESL learners notice and benefit from recasts on morphosyntactic and lexical features. They reported that large phonological memory, efficient attention control and strong analytical ability seem to be associated with accurate production in L2 morphosyntactic development but not with noticing. Sheen (2007) employed a quasi-experimental design in the classroom to examine how cognitive (language aptitude) and affective (learner attitudes towards error correction) factors influence the effects of implicit (recasts) and explicit (metalinguistic correction) corrective feedback on the acquisition of English articles. She found that while benefits from metalinguistic correction were associated with both aptitude and attitudes toward error correction, recasts were not. Her research reported that recasts did not have significantly positive effects on the acquisition of English articles and neither of the two individual learner factors impacted the effects of recasts. It may be that articles lack salience, and thus recasts on these target structures were not sufficiently salient enough to be noticed. Despite the conflicting results between the last two studies, it is reasonable to suppose that learners who possess higher GS capacities may have greater learning outcomes in L2 morphosyntactic learning through task-based conversational interaction.

Grammatical Sensitivity

The literature suggests that there are individual differences in learners' cognitive capacities affecting the extent to which learners benefit from interactional feedback (Skehan, 2002). There are many cognitive factors that form a learners' capacity to learn a foreign language. One of them

includes foreign language aptitude, which is defined as “a cognitive ability that is possibly predictive of certain kinds of future learning success” (Carroll, 1993, p.16). GS is part of the aptitude model developed by Carroll and Sapon (1959) and refers to “the individual’s ability to demonstrate his awareness of the syntactical patterning of sentences in a language and of the grammatical functions of individual elements in a sentence” (Carroll, 1973, p. 7). Based on these arguments, learners’ GS is assumed to be a good predictor of success in L2 morphosyntactic development in conversational interaction as well as in L2 learning in general.

In the present study, the selection of GS as a cognitive factor in relation to the noticing of interactional feedback was motivated by the following theoretical claims. Skehan (2002) proposed in his SLA processing stages that GS as well as WM have a possible link to noticing in the initial information processing stages. Skehan (1998) and Robinson (1996) also maintained that GS, WM, field independence and socio-psychological factors impact noticing. Therefore, from the theoretical perspective, GS is assumed to be related to the initial stages of SLA, such as noticing.

Research Questions

Although numerous studies on conversational interaction investigated L2 morphosyntactic acquisition, few studies have systematically investigated how learners’ GS influences the degree to which such acquisition takes place. In order to probe into the interaction-driven acquisition mechanism in L2 morphosyntax, this particular study investigates whether learners’ cognitive abilities play a role in interaction and learning of L2 morphosyntax. The potential links among GS, noticing and learning of Korean object relative clauses are explored. The study seeks answers to the following two research questions:

1. Is there any relationship between learners’ GS capacities and their noticing of recasts?
2. Is there any relationship between learners’ GS capacities and their learning outcomes?

Methods

Operationalizations

This study adopted Nicholas et al.’s (2001) operationalization of recasts, as addressed earlier. Noticing of recasts was operationalized as learners’ immediate retrospective verbal reports indicating learners had noticed or had paid attention to the recasts on Korean relative clauses during interaction. Following Carroll’s language aptitude model (Carroll & Sapon, 1959), GS was operationalized as an ability to analyze the language input. Learning (the effect of treatments) was operationalized as a change in the mean accuracy rates of the learners’ oral production of Korean object relative clauses between the pretest and the immediate posttest (short-term gains) and between the pretest and the delayed posttest (long-term gains) [see Appendix A].

Participants

A total of 22 learners of Korean as a foreign language participated in this study. Nineteen participants were recruited from high-beginning to intermediate level Korean language classes at a large public university in

North America. Three additional participants, who had learned Korean in informal contexts, were recruited outside the Korean classes on campus. Their pretest scores on accuracy in producing Korean object relative clauses were comparable to the average pretest scores in the study. Thus, they were deemed to possess a similar proficiency distribution to the rest of the participants and so were included in the study. All learners scored lower than 70% on the pretest of Korean object relative clauses; hence, possible ceiling effects were not observed. Only English native speakers (NSs) were included in this study to reduce the potential impacts of different first language (L1) background on the L2 development; of these, 17 were non-heritage speakers of Korean, and five were heritage speakers. The 12 males and 10 females ranged in age from 18 to 28 with an average of 21. The researcher served as a Korean NS interlocutor in interactions and elicited learners' introspective comments.

Target Structure

Since Korean is a subject-object-verb (SOV) language, which differs from English, lower-level English-speaking learners of Korean, in particular, have difficulties acquiring the structure of relative clauses. Direct object relative clauses were chosen as target structures because they are known to be more difficult for learners than subject relative clauses (Jeon, 2004; O'Grady, Lee, & Choo, 2003). As demonstrated in examples (1) to (3) below, Jeon indicated the characteristics of Korean relative clauses as follows: "1) there are no relative pronouns, such as who, whose, whom, which, or that; 2) the noun-modifying clause precedes the modified noun; 3) relative clauses are connected to their head nominals by the relativizer suffix *-(u)n* for past tense, *-nun* for present tense, and *-(u)l* for future tense."

1. John-i ilk-un chayk-i caymiiss-ta
John-SUB read-REL.PAST book-sub be interesting-DEC.
'The book that John read is interesting.'
 2. John-i ilk-nun chayk-i caymiiss-ta
John-SUB read-REL.PRE book-SUB be interesting-DEC.
'The book that John is reading is interesting.'
 3. John-i ilk-ul chayk-i caymiiss-ta
John-SUB read-REL.FUT book-SUB be interesting-DEC.
'The book that John will read is interesting.'
- (p. 87)

Instruments

Grammatical Sensitivity Test

Participants were administered the subtest "Words in Sentences" of the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) to measure their GS abilities (Carroll & Sapon, 1959). GS measures an awareness of grammatical relationships without requiring grammatical terminology (Dekeyser, 2000; Dörnyei, 2005). "Words in Sentences" is a pen-and-paper test consisting of 45 questions. Participants were asked to complete this subtest in 15 minutes. They were allowed to guess answers, and there was no penalty for incorrect answers. The motivation behind the selection of the MLAT as a GS measurement battery in this study is that the MLAT focuses on the grammatical analysis of a linguistic system and, as such, has been considered "the best overall instrument for predicting language-learning success" (Parry & Child, 1990, p. 52).

Pretest, Immediate-Posttest, and Delayed-Posttest Tasks and Materials

The present study adopted the testing materials used in previous studies (Jeon, 2004, 2007; Jeon & Kim, 2007) to elicit relative clause production (see Appendix B). Each test was composed of a one-way picture description task. There were three different versions of this task. The NS interlocutor and the non-native speaker (NNS) participant were given comparable pictures. The NS interlocutor had a picture without circles drawn on it, whereas the NNS participant had a picture with circles drawn on it. In the task, the NS first described a certain part of the picture and asked the NNS the location of the circle. The NNS was anticipated to produce sentences containing relative clauses in Korean, and the NS drew circles on the picture based on the NNS's description. Each version of the task was designed to elicit three types of relative clauses. Because the focus of this study was on object relative clauses, subject and oblique relative clauses served as distractors.

Treatment Tasks and Materials

The task materials were also adopted from previous research (Jeon, 2004, 2007; Jeon & Kim, 2007) and designed to elicit relative clauses (see Appendix B). There were two different kinds of tasks (one-way task and two-way task), and each task had three variations. The one-way task was the same as the picture description task used in the testing materials except different versions of a picture were used. In the two-way task, comparable to a spot-the-difference task, the NS and NNS each had similar pictures with circles drawn around different objects and people. They described the pictures to each other to find out where the circles were located in their respective pictures. As with the testing materials, each version of the tasks was designed to elicit three sorts of relative clauses. Subject and oblique relative clauses served as distractors.

Introspective Tasks and Measures

In interaction research, verbal reports have been widely used because "the clearest evidence that something has exceeded the subjective threshold and been consciously perceived or noticed is concurrent verbal report" (Schmidt, 2001, p. 20). In order to elicit learners' introspective comments and measure their noticing of recasts, immediate retrospective verbal reports as a qualitative measure of noticing (see Egi, 2004, and Ericsson & Simon, 1993, for details) were employed (see Appendix A). In Egi's study, during conversational interaction between the NS interlocutor and NNS participant, the interlocutor would make two knocking sounds in order to prompt the participant to immediately recall what he/she was thinking during the last 10 to 15 seconds of the conversational turn. Then, the NNS participant was expected to verbalize the thoughts in English. Once a recall session was completed, the conversation was continued until the next recall session or the end of the task occurred. Participants were encouraged to talk as if they were talking by themselves, not speaking with the NS interlocutor, so that communication between the NS and NNS during recall could be curtailed. Not only were prompts given during language episodes in which recasts followed the NNS's errors on relative clauses during interaction, but prompts were also given as a distractor during those episodes without the NS's recasts. Overall, recall was prompted after 10-20 % of recast and non-recast turns, which were carried out in random order.

Immediate verbal reports were the chosen measure of noticing for the following reasons. It has been argued that double exposure to the same input during stimulated recall (see Gass & Mackey, 2000, for details) may strengthen noticing and memory and may influence task performance on the delayed posttest (Egi, 2007b). In contrast to stimulated recall, Egi (2004) found that immediate verbal reports during treatments did not influence learners' performance on the posttests. Therefore, as the delayed posttest was administered in the present study, immediate verbal report technique was selected in order to prevent the issues that stimulated recall is likely to raise. In addition, when compared with cued immediate recall (see Philp, 2003, for details) as a measure of noticing, it was anticipated that immediate verbal reports could reduce other potential factors that may constrain noticing rate, such as learner proficiency and WM. In the cued immediate recall treatments described by Philp, the NS interlocutor would make two knocking sounds immediately following production of recasts. The knocking sounds prompted the NNS participant to repeat the last thing (recasts) he/she recalled hearing. Noticing was measured by the degree of accuracy with which participants recalled the recasts and was categorized as "correct," "modified" or "no recall." Nonetheless, accurate recall was constrained by the developmental level of the learner, which is similar to learner proficiency, as well as the length of recast and degree of difference between the recast and the learner's initial utterance, which are likely to be associated with the learner's WM capacities. In order to curtail the limitations associated with stimulated recall and cued immediate recall, immediate verbal reports were administered in this study.

Design and Procedures

The research design for this study is shown in Table 1 below. The experiment was conducted in NS-NNS dyads. For each task, written instructions in English were provided for participants. The GS test was administered individually. Participants performed the pretest (one-way picture description task), which lasted 10-20 minutes. There were two treatment sessions: treatment 1 (one-way picture description task) and treatment 2 (two-way spot-the-difference task). Each treatment session was limited to 25 minutes in order for all participants to have the same treatment duration regardless of the number of activities a participant could finish during each session. The one-way and two-way tasks each involved one to three activities, depending on the participant's rate of performance in the allotted time. The order of the two treatment sessions was counterbalanced, whereas the order of activities within each treatment was randomized to control for any ordering effect. During the treatment sessions, the NS interlocutor provided the NNS participant with recasts following any errors involving relative clauses. Feedback was not given to other linguistic items that were not the focus of this study. The immediate posttest (one-way picture description task) followed and lasted about 10-20 minutes. Two weeks after the immediate posttest, the 10-20 minute delayed posttest (one-way picture description task) was administered. The entire pretest, treatment and posttest sessions were audio-recorded for later transcription.

Table 1. *Research Design*

Week	Day	Procedures	Tasks
1	1	Pretest (10-20 min)	One-way oral picture description task
		Treatment 1 (25 min): Immediate retrospective verbal reports	One-way oral picture description task
		Grammatical sensitivity test (15 min)	
1	2	Treatment 2 (25 min): Immediate retrospective verbal reports	Two-way oral spot-the-difference task
		Immediate posttest (10-20 min)	One-way oral picture description task
		Working memory test (15 min)*	
3	3	Delayed posttest (10-20 min): Two weeks later	One-way oral picture description task

Note. * The working memory test was not included for the data analysis in the present study

Coding and Scoring

GS was scored based on the number of correct answers learners obtained. Possible scores ranged from 0 to 45 points. Guidelines for coding and scoring object relative clauses were adopted from target-like use constructions for scoring used in the literature (Jeon, 2004, 2007; Jeon & Kim, 2007). The relative clause data were coded and scored by the accuracy rate of object relative clauses in the learners' oral production. For example, all instances of object relative clauses in the learners' oral production were identified and counted. Then, the accuracy rate for the learners' use of object relative clauses was computed based on the correct number of object relative clauses that learners produced. Next, learners' scores on the pretest and the posttests were compared on the basis of the accuracy rate of object relative clauses. If the learner produced more than one relative clause in one exchange, all the relative clauses produced were coded. If the learner self-corrected or repeated a relative clause construction, the final utterance was counted. Since learners' vocabulary use was not the focus of the study, lexical errors were excluded.

The following guidelines show how accuracy rate was calculated on the basis of important morphosyntactic features of Korean object relative clauses – i.e., the accuracy of nominative subject, subject particle, relative marker, tense and verbal inflection. No point was provided for entirely non-target-like production of object relative clauses. A half point was awarded for near target-like forms, whereas one point was given to the accurate production of object relative clauses. Examples (1) – (5) show responses for which no point was awarded.

1. Fragmented ungrammatical utterance

*Yeca chayk ilk- *u-nun chayk*

Woman book read- *REL.PRES book

2. Use of English

The circle is around the dog that the woman is holding.

3. A wrong word order and misplaced head noun

**Yeca-ka bus ketali-nun iss-eyo.*

*Woman-NOM bus-ACC wait-REL.PRES exist-SE.

4. Deletion of subject marker and error in relative markers

*Namca- *Ø ssu- *e-nun phyenci-ey iss-eyo.*

Man- *Ø (NOM) write- *REL.PRES letter-LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the letter the man is writing.”

5. Omission of subject and error in relative markers

**Ø *tul-ko-nun sangca-ey iss-eyo.*

*Ø (NOM) hold-*REL.PROGRESSIVE box-LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the box which (the man) is holding.”

Examples (6) – (9) show responses for which a half point was awarded for partially correct formation of object relative clauses.

6. Deletion of subject marker

*Yeca-*Ø mek-nun sakwa-ey iss-eyo.*

Woman-*Ø (NOM) eat-REL.PRES apple-LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the apple the woman is eating.”

7. Omission of subject

**Ø ttay-li-nun kay-ey iss-eyo.*

*Ø (NOM) beat-REL.PRES dog-LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the dog which (the woman) is beating.”

8. Error in the use of relative markers, possibly with a verb inflectional error

*Yeca-ka mil-*u-nun cart-ey iss-eyo.*

Woman-NOM push-*REL.PRES cart-LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the go-cart the woman is pushing.”

9. Use of wrong tense in relative markers, without any inflectional error

*Namca-ka mek-*un ice cream-ey iss-eyo.*

Man-NOM eat-*REL.PAST ice cream-LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the ice cream that the man is eating.”

Finally, one point was awarded for correct formation of object relative clauses as in (10) – (12).

10. Accurate construction of object relative clauses

Yeca-ka wuncenha-nun catongcha-ey iss-eyo.

Woman-NOM drive-REL.PRES car-LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the car the woman is driving.”

11. Accurate construction of object relative clause with lexical errors

*Namca-ka dulko iss-nun *sajang-ey iss-eyo.*

Man-NOM hold-REL.PROGRESSIVE box-*LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the box the man is holding.”

12. Accurate construction of object relative clause with a minor lexical error (error with verb stem, not with the inflection, error with head noun and etc). However, the verbal inflection has to be accurate.

*Namca-ka yeca-hanthey *cwo-nun senmwul-ey iss-eyo.*

Man-NOM woman-ACC give-*REL.PRES present-LOC exist-SE.

“(The circle) is around the present the man is giving to the woman.”

Although much effort was made to afford learners equal distributions of opportunities for reporting noticing, the opportunities for noticing provided to each learner differed. Thus, the noticing rate was calculated as the number of noticed occasions per number of opportunities provided to learners. Following Mackey et al. (2002), immediate verbal reports were coded as noticing, and one point was awarded for either or both of the following categories: 1) learners' reported comments on the relevant morphosyntactic and metalinguistic features of a Korean relative clause; 2) learners' acknowledgement of their non-target-like production and/or target-like form of recasts with regard to Korean relative clauses irrespective of the presence of metalinguistic comments. Learners' verbalization of features concerning the Korean language in general and other comments irrelevant to Korean relative clauses, such as meaning of vocabulary and non-language-related episodes, were not coded as noticing, and no point was awarded. Examples (13) – (14) show instances coded as noticing.

13. “Umm, you put ‘-iss-nun’ in the ‘-nun.’ I keep getting that wrong.”

14. “Yeah, I thought you would put an object marker between the adjective and coffee. You didn’t.”

In contrast, the following (15)-(16) demonstrates the examples of not noticed instances.

15. “I was trying to figure out why this guy is standing scratching his head. It’s kind of strange.”

16. “I was thinking what’s next and what I should do.”

A Korean NS served as a second rater. The second rater as well as the researcher scored the object relative clauses and noticing data in order to assess the consistency of scoring. Twenty-five % of the data were coded by the second rater. There was a 95.1 % agreement rate for identifying object relative clauses in the data, a 96.6 % agreement rate for coding the accuracy rate of object relative clauses in learner production, and an 83.3 % agreement rate for coding learners' noticing rates.

Analyses

All learners were divided into two groups based on their GS scores: high GS group and low GS group. Eleven learners whose GS scores were above the mean score ($M = 20.8$) comprised the high GS group, and eleven

learners whose GS scores were below the mean score comprised the low GS group. The independent variables included the test with three levels (pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest) and the GS group with two levels (high GS group and low GS group), and the dependent variable was the accuracy rates of object relative clauses.

Results

To provide an overview of the raw data, Table 2 below presents a summary of descriptive statistics for the GS scores and noticing rates all learners received. Table 3 also illustrates descriptive statistics for the accuracy rates of object relative clauses all learners obtained across tests.

Table 2 . *Descriptive statistics for grammatical sensitivity (GS) scores and noticing rates*

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
GS	11	34	20.8	5.9
Noticing rates	0.0%	91.7%	43.4%	22.9

Table 3 . *Descriptive statistics for accuracy rates of object relative clauses across tests*

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Pretest	0.0%	68.2%	9.8%	19.7
Immediate posttest	10.7%	95.5%	64.1%	29.1
Delayed posttest	7.7%	100.0%	58.4%	32.8

Table 4 presents descriptive statistics for the GS scores of each GS group. Table 5 displays the range of recasts and the mean number of recasts that each group received during the two treatment sessions. The learners with higher GS tended to learn more easily and rapidly than those with lower GS during treatments. As the treatments progressed, the number of errors and recasts of the high GS group decreased at a faster rate than those of the low GS group. Overall, the learners with higher GS made fewer errors, and thus received fewer recasts from the NS interlocutor than their counterparts during the treatment sessions as shown in Table 5. This indicates that, if the learners with higher GS make a greater development through treatments, it is not because they receive more recasts. Rather, it is likely that their greater GS capacities facilitate a faster rate of learning, which results in fewer numbers of recasts than those with lower GS.

Table 4 . *Descriptive Statistics for Grammatical Sensitivity (GS) Scores of GS Groups*

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
High GS group	21	34	25.7	3.3
Low GS group	11	20	15.8	2.9

Table 5 . *Range and mean number of recasts grammatical sensitivity (GS) groups received*

	Range of recasts received	Mean number of recasts received
High GS group	8-51	32.5
Low GS group	8-64	45.7

Figure 1 graphically illustrates the two GS groups and their corresponding noticing rates, clearly showing that the high GS group reported higher rates of noticing, whereas the low GS group reported lower rates of noticing. The results of the independent-samples *t*-test confirmed that the difference of noticing rates between the learners with higher GS and the learners with lower GS was statistically significant, $t(20) = 2.296, p = .033$. Therefore, the learners with higher GS tended to report more noticing than those with lower GS.

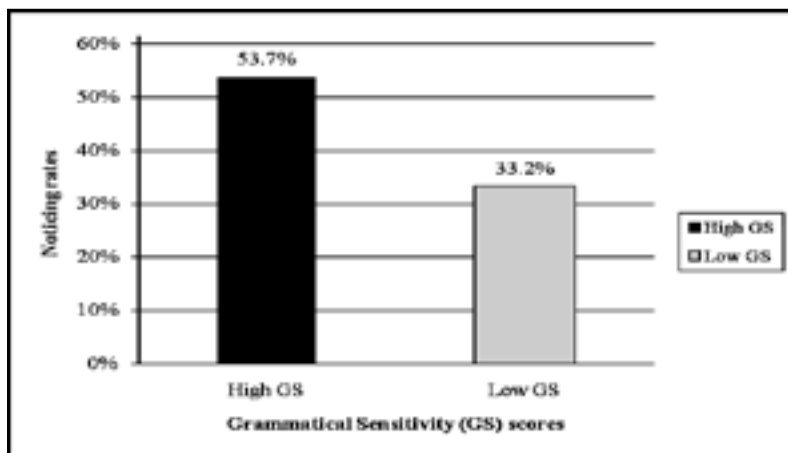


Figure 1. *Graphic Representation for Grammatical Sensitivity (GS) Groups and Noticing Rates*

The independent-samples *t*-test revealed that the difference in accuracy rates between the two GS groups on the pretest was not statistically significant, $t(20) = .063$, $p = .950$, which indicates that both groups performed similarly on the pretest. Figure 2 shown below represents the accuracy rates of the two GS groups for the object relative clauses across tests. Although both groups of learners made an improvement from the pretest to the posttests, the accuracy rate gains appeared to differ across the groups on the posttests. While the high GS group outperformed the low GS group on both posttests, the difference between the two groups was larger on the delayed posttest than on the immediate posttest. To validate the relationship between GS and learning outcomes, mixed design two-way repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted.

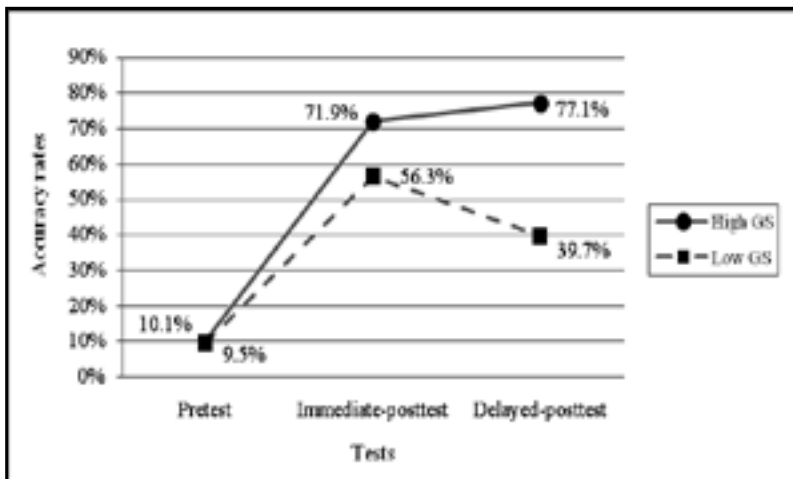


Figure 2. *Graphic Representation for Grammatical Sensitivity (GS) Groups and Accuracy Rate across Tests*

As shown in Table 6 below, a main effect for GS groups approached a statistical significance ($p = .055$). Also, a main effect for test ($p = .000$) as well as an interaction effect between test and GS group ($p = .009$) were statistically significant. These results supported the prior speculation that, while there was a significant increase from the pretest to the posttests for both GS groups, the degree of increase for each GS group differed across tests.

Table 6 . *Mixed Design Repeated-Measures ANOVA for Grammatical Sensitivity (GS) and Accuracy Rate across Tests*

	Source	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between subjects	GS group	1	4.152	.055
Within subjects	Test	2	55.410	.000
	Test*GS group	2	5.303	.009

In order to determine whether the difference between the two groups was statistically significant on each posttest, independent-samples *t*-tests were performed. While the difference between the high GS group and the low GS group on the immediate posttest was not statistically significant, $t(20) = 1.299$, $p = .209$, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups on the delayed posttest, $t(20) = 3.201$, $p = .004$. These results corroborated other results – namely, that the two GS groups statistically differed on the delayed posttest but not on the immediate posttest.

In summary, the learners with higher GS reported more noticing than those with lower GS. While both groups of learners showed an increase in accuracy rates from the pretest to the posttests, the high GS group improved at a higher rate than the low GS group.

Discussion

The first research question asked whether learners' GS capacities are associated with their noticing of recasts. The results show that GS appears to constrain learners' reports of noticing. In terms of the two groups studied, learners' recall comment data indicate that learners with higher GS appear capable of identifying structural functions and extracting patterns from complex language input and interaction. They also seem to compare their own erroneous oral production with their interlocutor's target-like production, notice the gap, and thus benefit from interactional feedback.

This study supports Skehan's (2002) proposal that learners' GS capacities may affect the initial stages of the SLA process, such as noticing and pattern identification. Learners who possess higher GS capacities may be able to process the initial input they receive more effectively than learners with lower GS. The findings also support Skehan's (1998) and Robinson's (1996) arguments that GS, WM, field independence and socio-psychological factors impact noticing. As Mackey et al. (2002) found a possible link between WM and noticing of recasts, the findings in the present study suggest that GS as well as WM may play a role in learners' noticing of interactional feedback.

Nonetheless, it is crucial to note that the present study utilized introspective verbal protocols as a measure of noticing. Thus, caution should be used in interpreting the data. According to Egi (2007b), it is possible for learners to notice recasts yet fail to report this noticing during recall. Learners' personality traits may play a role in verbalizing thoughts. A large standard deviation for learners' reporting noticing rates in the present study could support this possibility. In addition, the researcher's inference was used to interpret the learner's thoughts and comments on some occasions because the researcher did not communicate with the learner for clarification during recall. Since noticing was elicited during only a small part of the treatments in order to minimize the possible interference during treatments, measuring noticing of every language episode was not possible. Accordingly, due to the limited nature of the data in the present study, the results should be interpreted with caution.

The results of this study contradict the findings of the previous research. As noted earlier, Trofimovich et al. (2007) did not find a significant association between learners' analytical ability and noticing of recasts. One possible explanation for this discrepancy could be that the two studies were conducted in different contexts (face-to-face conversational interaction versus computer-mediated interaction). Another possible explanation could be that the two studies employed different methodologies for measuring noticing. In the online-based interaction study, learners were asked to indicate if they noticed any gap between their own original description and the description played

back to them by simply saying “yes” or “no.” Recasts were also provided for both target-like and erroneous utterances that learners produced. Therefore, the noticing rates might have been enhanced by the additional repetitions, although only recasts given to erroneous utterances were analyzed. As Trofimovich et al. acknowledged, the task to measure noticing in their study might not have utilized the learners’ processing resources sufficiently and thus did not detect the influence of language analytical ability on noticing of recasts. Again, although methodological difficulties for measuring noticing are discussed in the literature (Egi, 2004; Philp, 2003), more robust measures for noticing are strongly encouraged in order to verify and further generalize the relationship between GS and noticing of recasts.

The second research question concerned the relationship between learners’ GS and subsequent learning. The results reveal that GS was strongly associated with L2 learning. This suggests that GS may be a contributing factor that constrains interlanguage development through interaction.

These results are consistent with the following theoretical bases and empirical evidence in L2 language aptitude research. Carroll and Sapon (1959) included GS as part of language aptitude, and Carroll (1981) argued that language aptitude is related to foreign language learning rate. Also, researchers found links between analytical ability and L2 morphosyntactic development (Dekeyser, 2000; Harley & Hart, 1997; Ranta, 2002). As with these aptitude research findings, the present study provides additional evidence indicating that learners who possess higher GS capacities may have greater learning outcomes through task-based conversational interaction than learners with lower capacities.

In terms of how learners make use of feedback received, these results suggest that learners with higher GS capacities are more likely to benefit from interactional treatment, not immediately after the treatment but after a time interval. As many researchers argued that delayed development may be one effect of interaction (Mackey, 1999), it may be that learners’ GS is associated with learning. Another explanation could be that learners’ GS may more strongly impact interaction when positive or negative evidence is unavailable in recasts or other processing resources are no longer present (Trofimovich et al., 2007).

The results of the present study are in line with Trofimovich et al. (2007) in that GS may play a role in the degree to which learners benefit from recasts in L2 morphosyntax. Both studies reveal that higher GS capacities significantly increased accurate production of L2 morphosyntax on the longer-term gains (delayed posttest). However, whereas the interval between the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest was two weeks in this particular study, there was a much shorter interval (2-12 minutes) in their study.

On the other hand, Sheen (2007) found that language analytic ability was not related to learning for learners who received recasts, whereas the present study found a statistically significant, positive association. An explanation for the disparity between the two studies could be that targeted linguistic features largely influence the degree to which learners notice the corrected feature in recasts (Egi, 2007a; Philp, 2003). Because English articles in Sheen’s study lack salience, recasts provided after article errors may not have been salient enough to draw learners’ attention to them. This may have resulted in learners’ failure to make use of recasts successfully for the acquisition of English articles. In contrast, many features of Korean relative clauses, such as word order and verb conjugations, were sufficiently salient and noticeable to draw learners’ attention to form. Incorrect choice of word order in relative clauses could produce communication breakdowns. To restate, GS may not be the only factor that relates to learning of L2 morphosyntax. It is likely that learners’

GS capacities are linked to learning in combination with other factors, such as salience and communicative value of the linguistic target.

Conclusion

This study examines the relationships between GS, noticing of recasts and learning of Korean object relative clauses. The results show a potential correlation between learners' GS capacities and their reports of noticing. There was a trend that the learners with higher GS reported more noticing of recasts, whereas the learners who had lower GS reported less noticing of feedback. Also, it was found that learners' GS and their subsequent learning appear to be associated. The learners who had higher GS demonstrated a greater improvement than those with lower GS.

The study has several limitations. The number of participants was rather small, and there was a certain degree of heterogeneity among them. External validity might therefore be limited. As addressed in the preceding section, using sufficiently robust alternative measures for noticing is encouraged. Learner uptake and self-repair as well as immediate verbal reports can be employed for data triangulation of noticing in future research. Additionally, the study results were based on the accuracy rate of object relative clauses, but the number of occurrences of object relative clauses was not included in the analyses. In order to better understand the learning of object relative clauses, future research should include both occurrence and accuracy of relative clauses.

More thorough investigation is needed to understand the complex relationships between interaction and learning. Future research should include noticing of various types of feedback, such as elicitation, and explore various individual difference factors, such as WM, motivation, learning strategies, learning styles and cognitive styles, which may connect input, interaction, noticing and learning. Little is known with regard to how learners' cognitive abilities mediate between interaction and learning. It is a question that requires further empirical exploration.

Appendix A

Sample of conversational interaction and verbal reports during immediate recall (the NNS's error addressed in the recast, the NS's recast, and the NNS's modified output are in bold.)

NS: *Ceki-ey namca-ka honca se iss-eyo. Po-yeyo?*
 there-LOC man-NOM alone stand exist-SE see-SE
 "There is a man standing alone. Do you see it?"

NNS: *Ney.*
 yes
 "Yes."

NS: *Tongkulami-ka eti-ey iss-eyo?*
 circle-NOM where-LOC exist-SE
 "Where is the circle?"

NNS: *Namca-ka **ilk-*u-nun** sinmwun-ey iss-eyo.* ➔ Error
 Man-NOM read-*Rel newspaper-LOC exist-SE
 "(The circle) is around the newspaper the man is reading."

NS: *Namca-ka **ilkkoiss-nun** sinmwun-ey iss-eyo?*
 ➔ Recast
 Man-NOM read-REL.PROGRESSIVE newspaper-LOC exist-SE
 "Is (the circle) around the newspaper the man is reading?"

NNS: *Ney, namca-ka **ilkkoiss-nun** sinmwun-ey iss-eyo.*
 ➔ Modified output
 yes Man-NOM read-REL.PROGRESSIVE newspaper-LOC exist-SE
 "Yes, (the circle) is around the newspaper the man is reading."

(Knocking sounds) ➔ Immediate recall prompt

NNS: Just that. "*ilkkoiss-nun*" instead of "*ilk-u-nun*." I was thinking how to put "*ilkta*" to "*ilkkoiss-nun*," like you said. ➔ Verbal reports

Appendix B

Sample of Picture Materials



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L2 Reading Research and Pedagogical Considerations in the Teaching of French and Francophone Theater

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Little research on improving second language (L2) reading comprehension of French and francophone theater has been conducted. This study provides insight into enhancing L2 comprehension of drama by combining L2 research with examples from L'accent grave by Jacques Prévert, Ton beau capitaine by Simone Schwarz-Bart (1987), Un Touareg s'est marié à une Pygmée by Werewere Liking (1992) and Les filles du 5-10-15¢ by Abba Farhoud (1994). It is shown that consideration of pedagogical aspects of L2 theater beyond dialogue may improve L2 reading comprehension and performance of L2 theatrical works and facilitate deeper L2 competency.

Second language (L2) reading is an important skill that can facilitate overall L2 competency among L2 students across educational contexts. Therefore, most beginning, intermediate and advanced L2 textbooks have some reading component. Many of these books include reading strategies such as brainstorming, skimming the text and planning before reading. The skillful use of such strategies for effective reading and the use of reading as a crucial source of input for L2 development can enable students to become more empowered and competent in their L2 learning (Krashen, 1989; Taylor, Stevens & Asher, 2006).

Yet how do L2 learners improve their reading comprehension of L2 theater? In L2 reading research, there are top-down (Carrell, 1984a; 1984b; Carrell and Eisterhold, 1988) and bottom-up (e.g., Eskey, 1988) ways of enhancing reading. Top-down approaches focus on activities such as activating background knowledge and planning and thinking about how one approaches or interacts with an L2 text. Bottom-up approaches focus on linguistic knowledge of a text. Research generally confirms the necessity of addressing linguistic competency – the bottom-up considerations – before employing more top-down techniques (e.g., Alderson, 1984; Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995). L1 glosses are indispensable for beginning-level textbooks because they often improve reading comprehension. Indeed, some researchers suggest that there is a reading threshold, meaning that top-down strategies such as activating background knowledge become much less effective if the linguistic knowledge of the students is not sufficient (Laufer & Sim, 1985; Laufer, 1996).

There is arguably a recommended fit between the text and the level of the student (Taylor, 2002; Taylor 2006 et al.; Taylor, 2010). Therefore, it is essential that the linguistic knowledge of the learner be determined. The linguistic threshold of the L2 reader has been identified as the minimum number of words needed for reading most L2 texts. The linguistic threshold most readers

need in their L2 lexicon has been measured at roughly 3,000 words (Laufer, 1996). This is the level at which a student easily understands an essay (Laufer, 1996). Liberal glossing of lexical items would be most necessary and helpful should a student have less than the threshold. For the more advanced learner, if the text is too easy, aids such as glossing become less effective and may even pose a distraction (Joyce, 1997; Taylor, 2002; Taylor, 2006; Taylor, 2010).

Studies have also been conducted to investigate whether the conscious use of reading strategies can enhance L2 reading comprehension (Taylor et al., 2006). For example, Carrell, Pharis and Liberto (1989) found that readers provided with training in the use of semantic mapping, a metacognitive strategy, performed significantly better than those without such training. Pappa, Zafropoulou, and Metallidou (2003) obtained similar results. Although studies have shown that strategy training can be effective in L2 reading comprehension, other variables, such as type of training and age of the L2 readers, may moderate the study outcomes.

L2 Theater and L2 Reading Research

L2 theater provides an effective vehicle for L2 intake (Lee & VanPatten, 1995; 2003) because it can be visualized or performed physically, which in turn can be helpful for intermediate and even beginning-level students to learn more of the L2. Similarly, Total Physical Response or TPR (Kunihira & Asher, 1965), arguably a very basic form of theater, has been shown to be an effective way of introducing language to beginning learners. Pedagogical methods such as TPR do not need to be accompanied by more difficult texts that sometimes are found in French and francophone theater. The planning and perhaps even the execution of acting out a short theater piece is, in itself, a kind of reading strategy that we could term “metacognitive,” because the student is actually planning and thinking about how the interaction with the language will occur. Indeed, we calculated an effect size of 1.77 ($p < .001$) for a recent study (Gorjian, Moossavinia, & Jabripour, 2010) that compared the content knowledge of students who actually performed the plays during a semester versus those who only talked about them. If we transfer this to a percentage scale, an effect size of 1.77 means that approximately 91 percent of the learners who performed the plays did better than those who did not. This represents an enormous difference between experimental and control groups. The physical and emotional actions of acting can foster deeper L2 learning.

According to Sandra Savignon (1987), “As occasions for language use, role playing and the many related activities that constitute theatre arts are likewise a natural component of second-language learning. They allow learners to experiment with the roles they play or will play in real life” (p. 239-240). Savignon seems to suggest that studying L2 theater in some form provides examples of L2 input that reflect real interactions in daily life in the target culture. Such structured input may be more easily assimilated into the L2 learner’s developing system as intake because L2 theater is quite often aesthetically pleasing or emotionally engaging, thus increasing the likelihood that the affective filter of the L2 learner is lowered and the L2 input can in turn become intake (Krashen, 1982; Lee & VanPatten, 1995). Gorjian, Moossavinia, and Jabripour (2010) note:

Psychologically, active involvement in drama performance gave learners a good opportunity to use language in realistic, if not real, situations as drama performance seems to satisfy the needs of drama comprehension and learning. The satisfaction is achieved through techniques that are engaging and interesting,

and this stimulates literature learners to read more literary texts. Engagement in drama performance acts as reinforcement in the learning process since it increases the possibility of re-reading and eventually re-learning (p. 9).

Ultimately, the L2 learner should perform the play or sketch that is read in class in order for deeper understanding to occur. The goal of performing requires that the learner read the text repetitively and ascertain what is going on in the lines. Acting in a foreign language thus can provide learning of what is being read. Acting also can provide a reason to learn – that is, to learn one's part so as to avoid embarrassment on stage. Because mastery of the dialogue is necessary, learned formulaic speech in plays, especially at lower levels, can be very helpful towards speaking and listening in the L2. Furthermore, the emotion of theater pieces, whether basic or more esoteric, lowers students' inhibitions and enables them to become more proficient in the L2. Reading and/or acting out a play both require some sort of interaction – whether between the learner and the text or between learners. Initially, in the preliminary stage of simply experiencing an L2 theater piece, certain strategies based on L2 reading theory are required to prepare the L2 learner to be able to perform the play. In interacting with L2 theater texts, whether for beginner or advanced students in the L2 classroom, reading strategies can be effective.

An Example from Beginning-Level French Theater

One example of how theater at even a beginning level can be salient and real to the L2 learner can be found in activities based on a short sketch/poem titled "L'accent grave" by Jacques Prévert, which is used in the beginning-level French textbook *Mais oui!* (Thompson & Philips, 2009). The book asks learners to predict what can be expected from a text with a title such as "L'accent grave." This could be considered a more top-down approach because the L2 learner is asked to bring prior knowledge to the reading. The students are also asked to use bottom-up strategies, like focusing on words such as "l'élève" (pupil, student), which are key toward understanding the text. Eventually, the beginning L2 learners are asked to read the text and answer comprehension questions. Of course, as this is a theatrical work, it not only can be read by learners but also actually acted out in class with some preparation and pronunciation practice. At the outset, simply reading this text with emotion can often lead to more expanded, memorized renditions.

Using drama to combine emotion and action with language can have powerful benefits. It can assist learners with the intake of linguistic items, because these may be considered meaning-bearing and comprehensible (Lee & VanPatten, 1995; 2003). L2 drama also often reflects more realistic L2 conversation (Savignon, 1987).

In addition to the emotional aspect of drama in the French L2 classroom, many cultural and practical aspects can be identified and applied by learners as they travel to different parts of the world. L2 learning, after all, is not strictly a language issue. A large component of getting along with the target population involves understanding what is important to them and how to cultivate a relationship. Therefore, American military personnel who are well-versed in francophone culture can more easily adapt and interact with French speakers on the ground, especially in Africa where the cultures are quite different from Western Europe. Whether integrating with friends or fighting enemies, knowledge about other cultures is essential toward being more effective internationally in various capacities. For example, former U.S. Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara stated that the United States was less

effective in fighting the North Vietnamese because of a lack of knowledge about them and why they were fighting (Esposito & Mogahed, 2007). In teaching L2 theater, attention to non-spoken elements such as the title, the list of characters, the stage directions, and linguistic aspects leads to more highly supportable interpretations and hypotheses of the text. Conversely, the absence of in-depth treatment of such elements in the classroom can have a negative effect on students' comprehension of francophone theater. As suggested by Scott (2001), the proposed theories in applied linguistics research can influence the instruction of French literature.

Examples from Francophone Theater

The remainder of this paper will discuss three francophone theater pieces: *Ton beau capitaine* by Simone Schwarz-Bart; *Un Touareg s'est marié à une Pygmée* by Werewere Liking; and *Les filles du 5-10-15¢* by Abia Farhoud (1994). Our purpose is to discuss L2 reading research and how it informs pedagogical direction for L2 readers.

Generally speaking, L2 readers must, in some way, identify with the cultural background of a play in order to understand its structure, since the latter is sometimes based in folklore. Moreover, the oral aspect inherent in some francophone theater plays a prominent role in the composition of the works. *Ton beau capitaine* presents itself in sets. *Un Touareg s'est marié à une Pygmée*, described under the title "an epic m'vet," is separated into a prelude and subparts. *Les filles du 5-10-15¢* is divided into nine scenes. Such structure does not represent the conventional organization of traditional French plays – namely, the division of acts into scenes. The learner thus needs some background knowledge explaining culture in order to understand the scope of the play. L2 reading research confirms that activating background knowledge can facilitate L2 reading comprehension. (e.g., Carrell, 1984a; Taylor, Stevens & Asher, 2006).

Pedagogical Considerations

Research investigating how L2 reading of francophone theater can be enhanced is sparse. This is likely one of the first papers that examines the relationship between L2 reading research and its implications for teaching francophone theater. However, there are a few principles in the teaching of literature that are applicable to the teaching and reading of francophone theater. In addition to a detailed reading of the dialogue, whether it be a play or a novel, some fundamental factors include: (a) a careful consideration of all parts of the play; (b) orienting the student with regard to the play; (c) linguistic knowledge of the student; and (d) consideration of the non-dialogue (content, structure of the plot, the history behind the story, etc.) of the play. In order to introduce our pedagogical considerations, each of these principles will be examined.

Looking at All Parts of the Play

Careful consideration of certain parts of a play encourages the learner to better formulate his or her thoughts. Similarly, the elements which comprise the structure of the play and the text itself can be important and add a more global perspective than simply a careful reading of the dialogue alone. Of course, it is possible to see the stage directions and the title as part of the text itself. Nevertheless, it is often helpful to examine the dialogue apart from the stage directions, the narration, the title and other non-speaking aspects. Further, it can be helpful to study the stage directions apart from the dialogue and

the other elements of the play. The key is to consider each element as it is used to convey meaning. In effect, paying detailed attention to the non-speaking aspects, which form the cohesiveness of the play, has the effect of bringing a more profound understanding of the work as a whole. Some of the ideas raised by the student can be easily confirmed by calling attention to the structure of the play as well as to the costumes and various other theatrical components.

Prior Conceptual Knowledge

L2 reading research suggests the significance of identifying prior knowledge a learner may have and linking it to textual content. As Carrell (1984a) notes, "Much of the meaning understood from a text is really not actually the text, *per se*, but in the reader, in the background or schematic knowledge of the reader" (p. 333). If the content of the text is not easy to understand (see Abu-Rabia, 1996a), then it is important for the French teacher to find ways to establish a relationship between the L2 reader's culture and the one in the text. According to Abu-Rabia, "Cultural background, which in part can be considered prior knowledge, plays an important role in students' reading comprehension" (p.87). Thus, the more one can identify with the L2 context, the more precise L2 comprehension will be. The attitude of the reader comes into play as well. There is extensive research on the relationship between reader attitude and textual understanding (Abu-Rabia, 1995; 1996a, 1996b, 1998).

The research on the role of prior knowledge in relation to reading is illustrated in the treatment of rhetorical structure seen in the text of the plays in French theater. Carrel and Eisterhold (1988) propose that the text of the story's structure – the organization of the themes and ideas – affects the comprehension of the content in the L2. To support their arguments, they describe Carrell's experience:

Two groups of university-bound, intermediate-level ESL subjects each read a different type of simple story – one type well structured according to a simple story schema structure and the other type deliberately violating the story schema structure. Results showed that when stories violating the story schemata are processed by second language learners, both the quantity of recall and the temporal sequences of recall are affected. In other words, when the content is kept constant but the rhetorical structure is varied, second language reading comprehension is affected (pp. 80-81).

Learner expectation is thus important for comprehension. If the reader is not familiar with how meaning is presented, this in turn can affect how well he or she understands the piece. Consequently, the teacher should be aware of these issues and of the students' background. The teacher can then provide context, discussion, guidance and lexical assistance to students to improve their comprehension.

Linguistic Knowledge

Unlike some conceptual approaches, prior knowledge includes linguistic components. More precisely, comprehension also depends on the input that the reader understands in the first reading. Such input can activate some prior knowledge, but if the story structure of the text is not understood by the reader, L2 reading comprehension becomes difficult (Eskey, 1988; Jacobs,

1994). Glosses in the first language (L1) may be a good tool, because they can act as a kind of linguistic safety net so as to provide a better meaning of the text in case of comprehension breakdown (Jacobs, 1994; Taylor, 2002; Taylor, 2006). However, this is not always the case and depends largely on the learner level (e.g., Joyce, 1997; Taylor, 2002; Taylor, 2010).

The existence of a “threshold” level of understanding of the linguistic data in the text before understanding of the content is the foundation for preparing students to read a French play. Pedagogically, it underscores the importance of constructing activities or at least providing a general perspective on the text before the first reading of a French theatrical play. This, in turn, will assist the classroom discussion in becoming as coherent as possible. It shows the need to provide the vocabulary and grammar necessary for comprehension.

In general, the comprehension of the reader depends more on linguistic knowledge than on the recall of prior conceptual knowledge (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; for a discussion, see Eskey, 1998). Regarding the choice of francophone plays, it is also necessary to know the level of the students before starting the semester course in francophone theater. It should be considered that French is not the only L2, but can be a type of Creole, and there exist African and Arabic linguistic varieties as well. Such a multitude of languages should not become a handicap for the learner, but to the contrary, they can assist with the stage directions included in the structure of the work. Thus, the dialogue does not always constitute the most important element in the comprehension of the play; sometimes it is secondary.

Considering the Non-Dialogue

The following are a few of the techniques that can be used in the preparation for the reading and study of the French play: (a) analysis of non-speaking parts; (b) attentive consideration of the first and last scene; (c) examination of the integration of different costumes and disguises; and (d) contemplation of the title of the play. The detailed deliberation of the non-speaking elements of a play can prepare the reader for a better understanding of the dialogue. The preparation could be done, of course, in different learning contexts. For example, the teacher can introduce the play with information on the structure and the historical setting of the playwrights and plot. Such pedagogical considerations greatly enhance the background knowledge of the student before the actual reading of the dialogue. Another aspect fairly distinct from the dialogue is the way the play is set up. Knowledge of the structure of the play enhances comprehension because it provides context for the characters and text. A study of the play’s structure is utilized not only for more information but also so that the L2 reader can approach the play in a manner as close as possible to that of the viewer.

Title, Structure and Context: the Case of the Plays Ton beau Capitaine, Un Touareg s’est marié à une Pygmée, and Les Filles du 5-10-15

In order to apply theory to practice, a few pedagogical examples are provided with the goal of assisting in the instruction of francophone theater. It is suggested that most of the methods mentioned below should be used by the course teacher before having the students read the text.

In the preliminary study of the plays, it is often useful for the teacher to discuss the title. *Ton beau Capitaine* (1987), for instance, is a direct reference to the sea and to the character of Wilnor, an exiled Haitian who corresponds with his spouse by using a tape recorder. The importance of the title stems from West Indies culture, the sea, and the boat in particular, all of which evoke

the painful memory of slavery and subjugation as a result of colonization. The title also serves as a sort of mantra repeated by the main character five times at the end of the play. It invites the reader to discern the intimate relationship between the two characters through the use of the familiar possessive “your” (ton). In a way, the familiar form also speaks to the reader, since the author could have used the formal “votre” instead of “ton.”

Un Touareg s'est marié à Une Pygmée (1992) likewise provides information since the title brings together two remote African cultures that are rarely associated – North Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa – thereby suggesting the mixture of cultures and tribes of the play. The subtitle “epic” of the play is pertinent in the literary register since it indicates the how the learner can categorize the play.

Finally, in *Les Filles du 5-10-15¢* (1994), the role of the “filles” or “girls” in Lebanese culture can be examined. Looking at the choice of the word “girls” in the title, one can brainstorm some predictions as to the content of the play. Indeed, the usage of “5-10-15¢” along with “girls” suggests that the girls and their labor are, in a way, cheap. As portrayed in the play, the women are socially oppressed. Because they must care for their father’s shop, Amira and Kaokab belong to the world of “5-10-15¢” or “five and dime.” This title may even be taken to suggest an oppressive world in which the girls live and work. Before starting the reading, discussing these ideas can activate background knowledge for the reader to better interact with the text.

The analysis of the title is important because it opens another perspective on the work. Such a study stimulates the students’ prior knowledge, better preparing them to watch the play and to learn from it. Reflection on the title also draws on the reader’s cultural knowledge or background to better understand that of the culture in the play. Once background knowledge has been activated, the teacher can help the learner with the structure and linguistic elements of the play.

Structure and the Linguistic Elements of the Play

Ton beau Capitaine (1987) is a one-act play with four scenes. The stage calls for a modest Creole décor. The description is of a place that is a traditional kind of housing found in the exiles of the Caribbean. The stage directions, which include gestures made by the actors, play a prominent role because they provide extra meaning to the speech in the French theater. The gestures can drive not only the emotional atmosphere in the play, but they may depict the sentiments of the characters. In an excerpt from *Ton beau Capitaine* (Schwarz-Bart, 1987):

The man suddenly stops the tape. Silence. Taking a few steps forward, staggering, announces: enough, enough of the gods! Then while staggering dances (little jumps to the side as in the Lérosee), his arms moving raises to the side [...] The man now dances with his eyes closed (pp. 30-31).

The action of staggering gives the impression that the man is reacting to an event with fatigue. These stage directions allow the reader to identify with him and develop feelings for his plight. Such emotional attachment can increase recall and understanding of language.

Un Touareg s'est marié à une Pygmée uses gestures and song extensively. The list of characters is so immense that dance provides cohesion to the play by uniting the characters in an almost mystical atmosphere. The African dialect songs performed by the choir reinforce the ambiguity

of the show and root it in a complete theatrical performance. It is at this point that the student may realize that this form of French theater does not resemble the classic French theater with which he or she may be familiar. Only the theater of Ariane Mnouchkine is apparent. The story is never clearly defined, and a multitude of symbols are used. From the prelude, Hina Ini, one of the main characters, undergoes a metamorphosis, the significance of which remains unclear. As the play continues, the parts of the play represent deeper levels of understanding. The titles mix different forms of art and expression, including classical ballet, which are rather difficult to comprehend cohesively and are better understood by more advanced learners of the L2. Given all of these layers, the long stage directions are essential to understanding the work.

We will now look in depth at *Les Filles du 5-10-15*. At the outset, the teacher should point out the use of nine scenes, not acts, which suggests that the play occurs in one familiar place. Along with this structure, there are many long stage directions. In class, questions such as “Why do you think the stage directions are as long as this?” and “Why are there so many questions?” can be asked. Focusing on the stage directions allows students to establish context and formulate general and perhaps specific ideas about the action that occurs in the play. The stage directions are inserted between the dialogue of the play almost as if part of the spoken verses. The teacher could mention that this is a technique that is not common in most other plays. This could lead to a discussion of other examples of different plays. Students should be encouraged to compare and contrast a selection of theatrical works.

The following is an excerpt of how the stage directions depict a significant change in the character of Amira:

Kaobab collapses like a rag. Amira watches intently. Amira gradually changes in attitude during the long silence, as if she is becoming stronger, more determined (Farhoud, 1994, p.41).

Students reading the play should reflect on the change occurring in Amira and search the stage directions for clues suggesting the circumstances that prompted the change.

After looking at the structure and composition of the play, the teacher has several additional options: (a) to direct the students’ attention to the style used; or (b) to examine the specific context of the play as a historical or socio-political event. In the play *Les filles du 5-10-15*, it is also important to consider the context in which the plot occurs. The essential information for the comprehension of the play is evident. Supporting information is given in lines such as these:

Time passes without a true change in the state of boredom, routine, confirming the inexplicable reality: this situation could continue for awhile, a very long while, eternally... (Farhoud, 1994, p. 4).

Already, the teacher can identify the usage of time and tedious continuity rendered by keywords such as “boredom” or “routine” to depict the girls’ daily uneventful lives.

The narration further describes the physical appearance and behavior of the girls. Indeed, we can see the effects of the abuse in their lives and why they want to escape. Thus, the stage directions and narration not only give us an indication of the theatrical events taking place but also a viewpoint that elicits empathy.

Les filles du 5-10-15 demonstrate that ideas expressed beyond the text of a play – such as the ideas of the author as they occur, viewed through the lens of the main characters – are perhaps as important as the dialogue. For example, the description of the costumes provides a sense of the evolution of Amira and Kaokab:

Their general appearance is, however, very different. Amira's clothes are impeccable, her hair is well groomed, and she wears little makeup. Kaokab on the other hand is somewhat dishevelled: clothing unbuttoned or with buttons missing, hair in a mess, no makeup... At the beginning of scene nine, her clothes suddenly appear more neglected (Farhoud, 1994, p. 4).

Because Amira is wearing a neglected outfit after scene eight, we can surmise that the play is taking a new direction. Perhaps this is an indication of a change in the plot. Perhaps this is an outward manifestation of a psychological condition. It is also possible that Amira changes clothes because of a precise reason; she is affected by something or a condition in the play. Kaokab will go on to play the role of the more rebellious and, in some ways, more influential character. In the end, Kaokab convinces Amira to burn the store in which they work and where they feel trapped. Pedagogically, the teacher can emphasize the description of Amira, which, in turn, may activate background knowledge of the students and perhaps create expectations for future meaning in the plot. Thus, even if some words are not understood, their gist will be more easily determinable given the activation of background knowledge by the teacher. Conversely, if the teacher does not help students analyze the elements outside of dialogue, then important meaning could be missed.

With respect to the perspective of the author, the teacher can link the disheveled appearance of Amira with the plot, in which she is beginning to break and come to her sister's point of view, which is to reject paternal dominance. To convey this, the teacher can ask the following questions: "Why does the author emphasize this idea of a continual world that is perpetual in the play?" and "Why does the uniform of one character become neglected?" Such questions can be asked before and after reading the play.

It is important to mention that the L2 instructor should be using the reading strategies noted in the above examples with the goal of eventually performing the plays or at least part of the plays. At the very least, reading with emotion can be beneficial toward providing more L2 input for the learners' developing system (see Lee & VanPatten, 1995; 2003; Savignon, 1987). In short, acting can truly provide invaluable L2 input to the learner.

Conclusion

A thorough analysis of theatrical elements beyond dialogue can be as important to L2 learners as the dialogue itself. With regard to francophone plays, a discussion of stage directions and contextual information can be effective in improving comprehension. Additional information about the author could provide further context for the work. Moreover, we suggest that future studies should be conducted to investigate the effect of glosses on the comprehension of francophone theater. For more advanced levels, where L1 glossing is not always recommended, the advantages and disadvantages that comprise the study of non-dialogue elements should be examined.

Can the L2 learner become more competent by studying L2 theater? Indeed, L2 theater can greatly expand interest and culture in the L2 classroom. If L2 learners read plays more effectively, they will, in turn, likely want to

actively perform the plays – or at least acts within them. We the authors of this article have, on various occasions, used parts of French or francophone theater to help students with their pronunciation (as in the Prévert piece) or general vocabulary and reading comprehension skills.

Francophone texts and/or drama should be considered an attractive and interactive medium for improving language skills. As one of the authors of this article discovered while teaching this genre at the U.S. Air Force Academy's French section, students truly enjoy the linguistic and cultural aspects of Francophone theater. African dialects can be introduced simultaneously, especially for officers ready to deploy to Francophone Africa. It is worth noting that the new command of AFRICOM shows a lack of people with useful prior cultural knowledge about the area. It may be useful for DLI instructors to incorporate theater texts into their lesson plans as well, given the large number of future foreign officers and attachés that train there.

Most importantly, using L2 theater should lead to deeper L2 learning (Gorjian & Moossavinia, 2010) because the interaction will be highly contextualized. As in real-life situations, theater provides context to language. Moreover, L2 theater requires that students consciously use specific language-learning strategies. Being able to do so successfully may give L2 learners more confidence to interact meaningfully with the next L2 text they encounter, whatever the form.

Once the L2 teacher grasps the importance of elements outside of explicit dialogue, he or she can become more effective at teaching and training learners to eventually perform plays. Pedagogical techniques such as careful study of the narration, stage directions, historical context of the play, and author background can enhance L2 students' comprehension because they enable the students to interact more meaningfully with the text, actually perform the play with more accuracy, and ultimately better interact with the target culture as a result. For first or second-year learners, more bottom-up activities should be emphasized, alongside some top-down activities as well. For third or fourth-year university learners of French theater, it must be underscored that the teacher can largely influence their attitudes about francophone theater. The teacher may similarly have a major effect on the motivation of the learners, which, in turn, can improve L2 reading comprehension (Abu-Rabia, 1996a; 1996b; 1998).

Limitations and Future Research

This paper is one of the first, to our knowledge, to address whether L2 reading research can assist the L2 French and francophone teacher. Little research has been done on the effects of certain treatments on the comprehension of L2 theater. Future research should be conducted on the influence of reading strategies on comprehension. Such study reports would also provide valuable insight into the needs and reading habits of more intermediate and advanced level L2 readers. Most L2 reading comprehension experiments have been limited in scope by only using participants at the first or second year of university study. Quantitative and qualitative research on L2 theater would demonstrate which reading strategies and linguistic aids would be helpful toward comprehension at other levels as well.

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Notes

- ¹ Antonin Artaud minimizes the part of the dialogue vis-à-vis other elements. On this subject, read *The Theatre and Its Double*, Paris, Gallimard, 1964 and also Carole Edwards *Cruauté, Créolité, Conscience féminine*, Paris, L'Harmattan, 2008.
- ² Edouard Glissant speaks extensively throughout the *Caribbean Discourse*, Paris, Seuil, 1981.
- ³ To learn more about body language in the Francophone literature, read the first chapter in Carole Edwards: *Edwards Cruauté, Créolité, Conscience féminine*, Paris, L'Harmattan, 2008.
- ⁴ Ariane Mnouchkine and the Théâtre du Soleil have implemented the "total theater" by decentralizing the stage.

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A Comment on “The Limited Effect of Explicit Instruction on Phrasal Verbs” by Julina A. Magnusson and C. Ray Graham

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In previous reviews of studies comparing explicit and implicit instruction (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1999, 2003), I argued that explicit instruction will show a positive effect only when the following conditions for the use of the conscious Monitor are met: (1) the acquirer consciously knows the rule or the meaning of the item – that is, has studied it; (2) the acquirer is thinking about correctness or focused on form; (3) the acquirer has time to apply the consciously learned knowledge. I also concluded that, even when these conditions are met, the impact of explicit instruction is, at best, modest and that the implicit condition consists of what can only be described as impoverished comprehensible input.

These conclusions hold for a comparison of explicit and implicit instruction done by Magnusson and Graham (2012). Subjects in their study were adult (mean age 25) students of English as a foreign language, taking classes in an English program at an American university. The researchers did not collect data on their subjects’ previous exposure to English, but it is safe to assume that subjects had studied English in their own countries and were well-educated, which means that they were experienced language students and were used to explicit instruction.

In the explicit condition, the conditions for the use of the Monitor were met on the post-test.

- (1) Subjects had received intensive instruction on 37 phrasal verbs in class over a period of three and a half weeks.
- (2) The tests clearly focused the subjects on form (e.g., one component of the test was a multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blank section in which subjects were asked to select which of five phrasal verbs fit into the context). Also, subjects took the test soon after the explicit treatment, which was obviously directed at learning phrasal verbs.
- (3) There was no time pressure on the test. All components were written.

The researchers did not provide raw scores, only percent gains for each treatment from pre- to post-tests. Table 1 reproduces data from Magnusson and Graham’s table 1 and adds the number of items gained from pre- to post-test.

Table 1. Mean Percent Gained and Increase in Correct Items

group	mean % gain	items gained
explicit	15.89%	3.81 (.1589 * 24)
implicit	2.99%	0.72 (.083 * 24)

The Size of the Effect of Explicit Instruction

Subjects in the explicit condition made a 16 percent gain from pre- to post-test. This means about a four-item gain on the 24-item test. If the average pretest score was 10 out of 24, this means a post-test score of about 14. This is a small gain considering subjects had three and half weeks of study of only 37 phrasal verbs – a gain with which neither teachers nor students should be satisfied. In my view, these results confirm that explicit instruction has only modest effects, even when the conditions for the use of consciously learned knowledge are met. In addition, gains were only demonstrated on the test given soon after treatment. How would subjects do on another test given several months later?

The Implicit (“Exposure”) Treatment

Subjects in the implicit condition (termed “exposure” by the researchers) did not receive optimal comprehensible input containing the target structure.

It has been repeatedly demonstrated that there is a predictable order of acquisition for components of language (Krashen, 1981, 1982). This means that for an aspect of language to be eligible for acquisition, it must be at the acquirer’s $i+1$ – that is, the acquirer must be developmentally ready to acquire it.

Phrasal verbs may seem to be uncomplicated to teachers but might also be subject to the “natural order.” There are no studies I know of that examine when phrasal verbs are acquired. It is very likely that many of them are late-acquired, well after students have finished course work in EFL. This hypothesis is consistent with results reported by Smith (in press), who found that intermediate EFL students in Taiwan (average age = 16) showed no progress in mastery of phrasal verbs after one year of intensive reading instruction. When the intensive instruction was supplemented with sustained silent reading, some improvement in phrasal verbs was observed, but the improvement was small.

The comprehension hypothesis maintains that, in order for input to be useful for acquisition, acquirers need to pay attention to it, and the easiest way to ensure that this happens is to try to make the message interesting. The input the subjects received in the implicit (exposure) condition may have been comprehensible, but it is doubtful that it was interesting, not to mention compelling (Krashen, 2011). Passages containing phrasal verbs were not selected by the students nor was any analysis made of how interesting the subjects found them. The passages, rather, were part of “reading comprehension practice” with “accompanying reading skills questions” (p. 37) – e.g., “what is the main idea of this passage,” followed by several options (p. 56).

Also, the vocabulary measures used by Magnusson and Graham did not probe the development of partial knowledge of the phrasal verbs. Vocabulary acquisition, it has been proposed, does not happen all at once; instead, meaning is acquired gradually (e.g., Nagy and Herman 1987). Thus, gains in both the implicit and exposure conditions might be underestimated.

Conclusion

Magnusson and Graham’s results are of interest. They are consistent with the view that explicit instruction is limited, producing an effect only when severe conditions are met, and that this effect is modest.

They are also consistent with the hypothesis that language acquisition requires that input be interesting and contain items that the acquirer is ready to acquire.

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Review

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The English language plays a major part in our global society, and one increasingly important aspect of English is its pivotal role in academia. In order for the English-speaking academic environment to be accessible to non-native students of English, universities need to provide specialized instruction targeting the expectations of specific academic disciplines. In his book, "Theory and Concepts of English for Academic Purposes," Ian Bruce outlines the theory and practice of instituting specially designed English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses to help non-native, English-speaking university students succeed in becoming a part of their larger academic and discipline-specific communities. Bruce further addresses the complexity inherent in theorizing and designing EAP courses and delineates EAP courses from other types of English language instruction, such as generic English language instruction and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). In doing so, Bruce provides a convincing argument that EAP courses require extremely sophisticated planning that takes into account various factors, including student goals, advanced knowledge of specific academic fields, genre and discourse analysis skills, and training beyond standard English as a Second/Foreign Language teacher education.

Bruce divides the book into three major categories: theory, design and implementation of EAP courses. The first category discussing the theoretical basis for EAP is broken into three key components divided between chapters one, two and three, respectively: an introduction to the key issues and concepts in EAP; an investigation of the academic world; and, lastly, EAP students' needs.

In Bruce's description of the key issues and concepts related to EAP, he follows Widdowson's (1983) approach which distinguishes between competence, the "speaker's knowledge of the language system," and capacity, the "ability to create meanings." Within this larger framework of competence and capacity, Bruce defines EAP as English instruction located in a university setting with the specific goals of preparing non-native English students for the varying expectations of their intended academic fields. In addition, Bruce discusses the importance for EAP course developers to be evaluative with regard to the needs of specific EAP learners and the time period in which a specific EAP course takes place, i.e. whether the EAP course takes place before students begin their coursework or in conjunction with students' other courses. The major application of Bruce's definition and introduction to EAP courses is that there is no set EAP framework. Rather, each course needs to be designed and implemented with the uniqueness of its participants and purpose in mind.

In order to emphasize this point, Bruce continues by describing the academic world in which EAP courses take place. Within the academic world, Bruce denotes three types of communities in which English language learners (ELLs) must function: speech communities, discourse communities and communities of practice. Within each type of community, discipline-specific practices take place that ELLs, wishing to become a part of a particular discipline's community, are responsible for learning. In saying this, Bruce places

the responsibility of bridging the gap between ELLs and their target-discipline communities on EAP courses and instructors. Bruce emphasizes this point by then discussing the ways in which EAP instructors can gain knowledge of discipline-specific practices via a number of different genre- and corpus-based approaches, such as interviews with instructors from other disciplines. Bruce builds upon this topic of investigatory EAP course planning by including research about students' needs along with research about different academic disciplines and communities. What can be concluded from the first portion of Bruce's book is that, before EAP course design begins, extensive research into a myriad of disciplines, as well as into the members of an incoming EAP class, is required.

The second section of Bruce's book covers the actual design of EAP courses in chapters four, five and six. In chapter four, Bruce introduces a general overview of EAP syllabus-design approaches and models. From Bruce's perspective, EAP course syllabi need to: a) focus on the learning of procedural and declarative knowledge; b) take a holistic approach to framing objectives which focus on overall development rather than highly specific foci; c) balance top-down processing against the more traditional bottom-up approach found in second language instruction; and d) analyze larger units of text which can be deconstructed and reconstructed by students.

Chapters five and six discuss the actual content to be included in an EAP syllabus, which Bruce divides into two categories – subject discipline knowledge and language knowledge. With regard to subject discipline knowledge, Bruce does not refer to any one area because of his underlying idea that EAP courses must be uniquely created by the instructor. For this reason, he does not actually discuss what content should be but, instead, provides the reader with ideas about how to gain insight into the expectations of specific disciplines. These ideas include co-operation, collaboration and team-teaching with subject discipline instructors. It is then the instructor's responsibility to employ subject discipline appropriate context, epistemological viewpoints, writer perspective, staging of content and cognitive genres. Next, Bruce turns to the language instruction of EAP courses. As with subject specific content, he cannot lay out a specific plan, but he does outline three areas of language knowledge that must be investigated and then included in EAP course syllabi: textual grammar (e.g., analyzing specific grammar points that arise from the course's texts); metadiscourse (e.g., analyzing the way the author leads the reader); and vocabulary (e.g., learning vocabulary that is discipline specific). As with the issue of content, the actual manifestations of each of these three language areas will differ from one discipline to the next. But Bruce argues that the analysis of these three areas in general will provide learners with a holistic approach to language acquisition – something he favors for EAP courses.

The final section of the book encompasses the actual implementation of EAP courses and is divided between chapters seven through twelve. Within this section, there are three major components – specifically, EAP teacher competency (chapter seven), teaching communicative skills in the EAP classroom (chapters eight to eleven), and EAP assessment (chapter twelve).

Chapter seven discusses the importance of teacher competency in EAP course implementation. In this chapter, Bruce contends that EAP teachers need training beyond standard ESL/EFL training in four major areas: academic practice, EAP student evaluation, curriculum development, and program implementation. Bruce relies heavily on EAP teacher training model presented by the British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes (BALEAP) to substantiate his claim for special instruction, as well as to highlight the importance of EAP teachers' engagement with the EAP discourse community.

Chapters eight through eleven are broken down by communicative sub-skills in EAP classrooms: writing, reading, listening and speaking. In addition, the sub-skill of speaking includes the incorporation of critical thinking. Each sub-skill is reviewed as part of a larger discipline-specific discourse community. While Bruce stresses that each EAP instructor needs to incorporate discipline-appropriate uses of these sub-skills, he also notes that, in the EAP environment, a large emphasis is placed on writing. While Bruce does not deny the significance of other skills, it is evident that he shares the EAP discourse community view that writing must take a focal position within the EAP classroom.

In the final chapter, Bruce gives a brief introduction into the role of assessment in EAP writing. While Bruce does mention some key topics, such as validity and reliability, as well as give some examples of specific skills to be tested and insights as to how such assessments could be conducted, the overall chapter is a tangential speculation on the topic of EAP assessment.

In sum, Bruce provides a theoretically detailed outline of the process of EAP course development and implementation which emphasizes the unique nature of EAP courses and the distinct differences between standard English instruction and English for Academic Purposes. Bruce also provides important methodological advice and possible resources for anyone seeking to design such a course.

Some limitations of this book are that it is heavily focused on the role of the instructor whereas the role of the EAP student is not clearly defined. Additionally, because of the book's theoretical focus and the uniqueness of EAP courses, teachers looking for practical answers to questions about EAP courses may not be able to readily employ the suggestions in this book.

Despite these limitations, Bruce provides a thought-provoking view into the unique nature and increasingly important role of EAP courses. This book is an excellent resource for anyone seeking to ground their EAP course in solid theoretical foundations, as well as an important tool for universities seeking to implement EAP courses and train EAP instructors.

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General Information

Calendar of Events

2013

American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), 3–6 January, Boston, MA. Contact: Elizabeth Durst, Executive Director, AATSEEL, University of Southern California, 3501 Trousdale Parkway, THH 255L, Los Angeles, CA 90089-4353; (213) 740-2734, Fax (213) 740-8550; Email: aatseel@usc.edu Web: www.aatseel.org

Linguistic Society of America (LSA), 3–6 January, Boston, MA. Contact: LSA, 1325 18th St., NW, # 211, Washington, DC 20036-6501; (202) 835-1714, Fax (202) 835-1717; Email: lsa@lsadc.org Web: www.lsadc.org

Modern Language Association (MLA), 3–6 January, Boston, MA. Contact: MLA, 26 Broadway, 3rd floor, New York, NY 10004-1789; (646) 576-5000, Fax (646) 458-0030; Web: www.mla.org

Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL), 14–16 March, Columbus, OH. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, CSCTFL, PO Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650; Email: CSCTFL@aol.com Web: www.csctfl.org

American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), 16–19 March, Dallas, TX. Contact: AAAL, PMB 321, 2900 Delk Road, Suite 700, Marietta, GA 30067; (678) 229-2892, Fax (678) 229-2777; Email: info@aaal.org Web: www.aaal.org

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International, 20–23 March, Dallas, TX. Contact: TESOL, 1925 Ballenger Avenue, Suite 550, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864; Email: info@tesol.org Web: www.tesol.org

American Educational Research Association (AERA), 11–15 April, Atlanta, GA. Contact: AERA, 1430 K Street, NW, Washington, DC 20005; (202) 238-3200, Fax (202) 238-3250; Web: www.aera.net

NAFSA: Association of International Educators, 26–31 May, St. Louis, MO. Contact: NAFSA, 1307 New York Avenue, NW, 8th Floor, Washington, DC 20005-4701; (202) 737-3699, Fax (202) 737-3657; Web: www.nafsa.org

9th Annual Symposium on Bilingualism, 18–21 June, Singapore. Contact: Web: linguistics.hss.ntu.edu.sg/ISB9/main.html

Linguistic Society of America 2013 Institute, 22 June – 20 July, Ann Arbor, MI. Contact: Email: lsa2013@umich.edu Web: ww.umich.edu/~aals/lsa2013/Home.html

British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL), 5–7 September, Edinburgh, UK. Contact: Web: www.baal.org.uk

African Studies Association (ASA), 21–24 November, Baltimore, MD. Contact: ASA, Rutgers University, 54 Joyce Kilmer Avenue, Piscataway, NJ 08854; (732) 445-8173, Fax (732) 445-1366; Email: annualmeeting@africanstudies.org Web: www.africanstudies.org

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398; Email: headquarters@aatg.org Web: www.aatg.org

American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: Salvatore Bancheri, Department of Language Studies, University of Toronto-Mississauga, Mississauga, Ontario, L5L 1C6, Canada; (905) 858-5997; Email: aati@utoronto.ca Web: www.aati-online.org/

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: ACTFL, 1001 N. Fairfax St., Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2900, Fax (703) 894-2905; Email: headquarters@actfl.org Web: www.actfl.org

Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: CLTA, Yea-Fen Chen, Executive Director, Curtin 892, 3243 N. Downer Ave., University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI 53211; (414) 229-2492, Email: yeafen.uwm@gmail.com Web: clta-us.org

National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: NNELL, PO Box 7266, B 201 Tribune Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu Web: www.nnell.org

2014

Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL), 20–22 March, St. Louis, MO. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, CSCTFL, PO Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650; Email: CSCTFL@aol.com Web: www.csctfl.org

American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), 22–25 March, Portland, OR. Contact: AAAL, PMN 321, 2900 Delk Road, Suite 700, Marietta, GA 30067; (678) 229-2892, Fax: (678) 229-2777; Email: info@aaal.org Web: www.aaal.org

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International, 26–29 March, Portland, OR. Contact: TESOL, 1925 Ballenger Avenue, Suite 550, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864; Email: info@tesol.org Web: www.tesol.org

NAFSA: Association of International Educators, 25–30 May, San Diego, CA. Contact: NAFSA, 1307 New York Avenue, NW, 8th Floor, Washington, DC 20005-4701; (202) 737-3699, Fax (202) 737-3657; Web: www.nafsa.org

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398; Email: headquarters@aatg.org Web: www.aatg.org

American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: Salvatore Bancheri, Department of Language Studies, University of Toronto-Mississauga, Mississauga, Ontario, L5L 1C6, Canada: (905) 858-5997; E-mail: aati@utoronto.ca Web: www.aati-online.org/

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: ACTFL, 1001 N. Fairfax St., Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2900, Fax (703) 894-2905; Email: headquarters@actfl.org Web: www.actfl.org

Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: CLTA, Yea-Fen Chen, Executive Director, Curtin 892, 3243 N. Downer Ave., University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI 53211; (414) 229-2492, Email: yeafen.uwm@gmail.com Web: clta-us.org

National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: NNELL, PO Box 7266, B 201 Tribble Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu Web: www.nnell.org

Information for Contributors

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of *Applied Language Learning* (ALL) is to increase and promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program and academic communities on adult language learning for functional purposes.

Submission of Manuscripts

The Editor encourages the submission of research and review manuscripts from such disciplines as: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, and social sciences; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Research Article

Divide your manuscript into the following sections:

- Abstract
 - Introduction
 - Method
 - Results
 - Discussion
 - Conclusion
 - Appendices
 - Notes
 - References
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Abstract

Identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings in an abstract of not more than 200 words.

Introduction

In a few paragraphs, state the purpose of the study and relate it to the hypothesis and the experimental design. Point out the theoretical implications of the study and relate them to previous work in the area.

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Describe how you conducted the study. Give a brief synopsis of the method. Next develop the subsections pertaining to the *participants*, the *materials*, and the *procedure*.

Participants. Identify the number and type of participants. Specify how they were selected and how many participated in each experiment. Provide major demographic characteristics such as age, sex, geographic location, and institutional affiliation. Identify the number of experiment dropouts and the reasons they did not continue.

Materials. Describe briefly the materials used and their function in the experiment.

Procedure. Describe each step in the conduct of the research. Include the instructions to the participants, the formation of the groups, and the specific experimental manipulations.

Results

First state the results. Next describe them in sufficient detail to justify the findings. Mention all relevant results, including those that run counter to the hypothesis.

Discussion

Express your support or nonsupport for the original hypothesis. Next examine, interpret, and qualify the results and draw inferences from them. Do not repeat old statements: Create new statements that further contribute to your position and to readers understanding of it.

Conclusion

Succinctly describe the contribution of the study to the field. State how it has helped to resolve the original problem. Identify conclusions and theoretical implications that can be drawn from your study.

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Place detailed information (for example, a table, lists of words, or a sample of a questionnaire) that would be distracting to read in the main body of the article in the appendices.

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- Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

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Acknowledgments

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