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Transformative Learning Experiences of Military Students in an Intensive Foreign Language Program

Dissertation Abstract

Olga Barabanova

Statement of the Problem

Facing the challenges of new language proficiency goals, the leadership of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) has developed an action plan for achieving higher levels (2+/2+ and beyond), focusing on teaching and learning practices that support the "transition from transactional to transformational instruction" (Colonel Phillip Deppert, DLIFLC Commandant, personal communication, January 9, 2017).[1] The concept of transformational or transformative learning was introduced by Mezirow (1978). Though his theory became "the focus of prolific research and writing" (King, 2005, p. 14), there was little research addressing transformative learning experiences of adult foreign language learners. More specifically, there was a lack of research focusing on transformative learning experiences of military students in intensive foreign language programs. This shortfall encouraged the researcher to explore the phenomenon in depth to help DLIFLC educators understand and facilitate the transformative learning experiences of their students.

Theoretical Framework

The current study explored the phenomenon of military students' transformative learning experiences through the lens of transformative learning theory. This theory views adult learning as an ongoing process of reshaping and reconstructing the learner's frame of mind through challenging individual assumptions and worldviews in the course of communication (King, 2005; Mezirow, 1995; Taylor, 2000). Certain educational, non-educational, and personal support factors, which adults encounter in learning, may initiate the change of opinions, frame of mind, or perspectives, resulting in perspective transformation (King, 1996). According to Finger and Asun (2001), transformative learning theory is "the most elaborate and intellectually the most solid conceptualization of adult learning" (p. 54).

Research Questions

This sequential explanatory mixed-methods study explored the transformative learning experiences of military students through the lens of transformative learning theory in an attempt to enhance DLIFLC teaching and learning practices so that students attain higher levels of language proficiency and cross-cultural competency. The research questions (RQ) were the following:

1. What percentage of DLIFLC students experience perspective transformation while enrolled in the intensive Russian language program?
2. Are there significant differences in reading and listening proficiency of DLIFLC Russian language students from different PT-Index groups (levels of perspective transformation)?
3. How do DLIFLC students experience transformative learning in an intensive Russian language program?

Method

A mixed-methods research design was used to address the research questions. The study examined educational and non-educational variables contributing to transformative learning. Educational variables were associated with students' learning experiences during their study at DLIFLC. The Learning Activities Survey (LAS), developed by King (1996), was used for data collection. SPSS-22 and NVivo-11 software was used for data analysis.

Participants

All students in the third semester of the Russian Basic course were invited to participate in the research. All participants, male and female, were over 18 years old, representing different branches of the U.S. military. The LAS was administered to 85 participants to collect the quantitative data. The qualitative data on students' transformative learning experiences was gathered through the LAS follow-up interview. A sample of 11 participants who experienced transformative learning and indicated the desire to participate in a follow-up interview were selected, based on their listening and reading language proficiency levels. Students (11 individuals) with the highest levels of language proficiency in reading and listening, as measured by the Defense Language Proficiency Test 5 (DLPT 5), were invited to participate in the follow-up interview.

Findings

The findings for RQ 1 indicated that 51.9% of participants reported experiencing perspective transformation and 48.1% did not have transformative learning experiences while enrolled in DLIFLC. The result of Chi-Square tests and Spearman correlations revealed that it would be more probable to experience perspective transformation for older participants, for those with more years of

military service, and for those with college degrees.

To address RQ2, an independent samples t-test was performed to compare the language proficiency of the participants from PT-Index1 and PT-Index 3/3*(levels of perspective transformation). The results revealed significant differences in reading and listening proficiency of DLIFLC Russian language students in different PT-Index groups. Those who experienced perspective transformation, associated with educational factors (PT-Index 3) as well as those in the PT-Index 3* group showed the highest Level, 3, in reading and listening language proficiency.

In addition, a strong positive correlation was identified between the occurrence of transformative learning, language proficiency, and PT-Index. An independent samples t-test revealed a statistically significant difference in the usage of learning activities by participants from various PT-Index groups. Those from PT-Index 3 /3* reported discussions, personal reflection, and critical thinking as part of their learning experiences, whereas those from PT-Index 1 did not associate these processes with their learning experiences.

For RQ3 both quantitative and qualitative findings were employed. The findings of the quantitative phase revealed the pattern for classroom activities reported by participants in relation to their learning experiences. They disclosed that discussions, critical thinking, and self-reflection played a part in their perspective transformation. The findings of the qualitative phase confirmed the results and revealed that cultural exposure and educational environment contributed to transformative learning experiences in an intensive foreign language program.

Conclusion

There was a strong positive correlation between the occurrence of perspective transformation and language proficiency as measured by the DLPT 5. Transformative learning occurred when students were able to use self-reflection, rational discourse, and critical thinking. These learning activities influenced self-awareness (reflection), openness to other viewpoints (rational discourse and critical thinking), and the emotional ability to change (new frame of reference). Transformative learning experiences seemed to challenge participants to reach their full potential and achieve higher levels of language proficiency.

This study demonstrated that military servicemen enrolled in an intensive foreign language program experienced transformative learning in varied ways. Though the process of perspective transformation was unique for each student, the participants who reported transformative learning experiences achieved higher levels of language proficiency. It is important for all stakeholders to be aware that military students may experience transformative learning as a result of exposure to foreign culture, certain classroom activities, and instructors' support. The cultivation of a transformative learning environment within DLIFLC may very well lead to increased levels of foreign language proficiency.

Note

1. A complete list of references is available in the full text of the dissertation.

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Managerial Sensemaking and Sensegiving: Understanding Middle Managers' Perspectives at a Government Institute

Dissertation Abstract

Masako Boureston

Overview of the Study

The roles of middle managers in modern organizations have been elevated beyond management of routine operations and administrative work. They play critical roles in facilitating organizational changes (Balogun & Johnson, 2004; Rouleau, 2005), mediating knowledge gaps in organizations (Burgess & Currie, 2013), and promoting strategic renewal (Wooldridge, Schmid & Floyd, 2008). As local leaders, they make sense of their experiences and give signals to the employees to construct shared meaning in the given context (Kezar, 2013). Despite their vital roles and significant contributions, little is known about the perceptions and lived experiences of middle managers in government organizations (Chen, Berman &Wang, 2017; Pick & Teo, 2017; Currie, 2000). The purpose of this study was to investigate how Deans and Directors as middle managers at a highly-structured government training institute make sense of their positions between senior leaders and faculty members.

The researcher used the framework of Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) to explore how middle managers make sense of their positions through their lived experiences. IPA is an approach that emphasizes both phenomenological and hermeneutic insights with idiographic sensibility (Smith, 2017; Smith, Flowers & Larkin, 2009). This study was guisssded by the central question: *How do Deans and Directors at a highly-structured, educational, government institute make sense of their positions as middle managers between senior leaders and faculty members?* The researcher conducted face-to-face semi-structured interviews with six middle managers at the research site.

The study employed Weick's sensemaking theory (Weick, 1995) as its theoretical framework. Sensemaking is a social process that allows the organizational members to collectively identify a direction in which to move forward through actions and interpretations (Weick, 1995, 2005). It has significant implications for day-to-day managerial discourse in which middle managers navigate complex organizational contexts (Rouleau & Balogun, 2011; Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2015). Weick (1995) provided seven properties of sense making: (a)

grounded in identity construction, (b) retrospective, (c) enactive of sensible environments, (d) social, (e) on-going, (f) focused on and by extracted cues, and (g) driven by plausibility rather than accuracy. These properties were embedded in the interview questions.

Summary of Key Themes

Through in-depth analysis and interpretation of interview data, the researcher identified four emerging themes about how the participants orient themselves between senior leadership and faculty members.
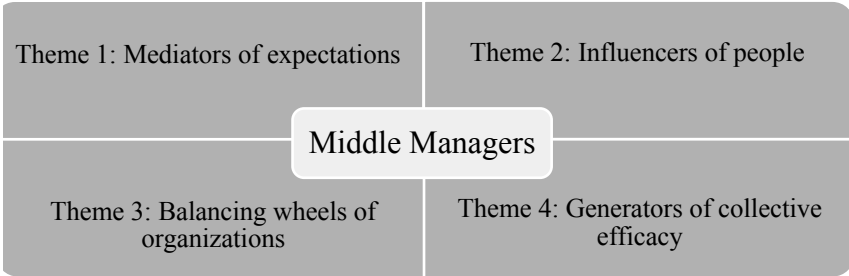
Figure 1
Summary of Key Themes

Theme 1: Middle Managers as Mediators of Expectations

Middle managers continuously fill the gaps between senior leadership and faculty members. They serve as organizational mediators and send carefully-tailored signals to both sides to facilitate understanding. In addition to filtering information between the two layers, middle managers identify their roles in stabilizing the local units by monitoring the needs of the people and providing emotional support or guidance as leaders. They view themselves as facilitators in organizational vertical communication. While recognizing the need for understanding the political and strategic aspects of organizational management, middle managers demonstrate a high level of awareness of the need for communication skills and people skills.

Theme 2: Middle Managers as Influencers of People

Being positioned in the middle of the organizational hierarchy, middle managers work as influencers of the people above and below. Navigating a hierarchical organization entails not only technical knowledge as academic leaders or local managers, but also awareness of external environments that affect

the local community. The data also illustrated that as middle managers, the participants value the ability to connect various requirements from the stakeholders or the senior leaders to the local capability, which involves identifying the right people for the right positions. Beside the knowledge of organizational requirements and the skillsets of people in the local community, interview comments confirmed middle managers' awareness of the limitations of their own influence. Middle managers navigate organizational hierarchy by constantly re-defining their boundaries as local leaders. The interview data support that successful upward management or influencing senior-level leaders requires building trust through positive downward management.

Theme 3: Middle Managers as Balancing Wheels of Organizations

Middle managers perceive themselves as being part of the balancing mechanism of an organization. When external requirements bring sudden changes into the community, middle managers are the ones who are expected to monitor the well-being of the local unit. Moreover, middle managers in government organizations experience a continuous dilemma searching for the optimal balance in the continuum of effectiveness and efficiency. Being the balancing wheels of organizations, middle managers adjust the focus between organizational tasks and relationships with and among people, determining what is important at the time of need.

Theme 4: Middle Managers as Generators of Collective Efficacy

Middle managers seek collective efficacy of the local units in achieving their organizational goals. In social cognitive theory, perceived collective efficacy is defined as "a group's shared belief in its conjoint capability to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainment" (Bandura, 1997, p. 477). Middle managers are aware that they play key roles in cheerleading the collective energy in the local community. They have a high level of self-efficacy and strong self-concepts as role models in the local divisions. Experienced middle managers in a hierarchical organization recognize the complexity of their environment as well as the limitation of their positions. They understand their positions from various perspectives as managers, leaders, team members, and followers while undergoing a continuous process of forming and reforming their self-concepts.

Conclusion

Middle management is a social phenomenon deeply embedded in organizational contexts. Middle managers serve as the balancing pole in the organizational polarity and make significant contributions in supporting organic

working structures and processes. Whereas the traditional notion of organizational structures comes from the functional boundaries, middle managers in a hierarchical organization may generate working structures based on people's needs and interests in the local community. They identify the wiggle room and flexibility by supporting contextually-situated practices within the scope of their authority through sensible relational practices from the middle. With their extensive organizational knowledge, middle managers can lower organizational boundaries. They continuously strive to make sense of their positions and managerial activities mostly within a vertical framework. This indicates that their lived experiences are not necessarily connected, as senior leadership would like to see, as collaborative efforts in a large government organization, which could potentially create challenges for cross-functional collaboration.

Van Manen (1990) stated that people's lived experiences consist of intricate meaning associated with thoughts, emotions, values, and assumptions and cannot be rationalized by scientific approaches. This study highlighted middle managers' unique perspectives of their realities as human phenomena from relational perspectives. The findings confirmed that middle managers' meaning construction is in fact a responsive process to other elements, such as organizational reality, expectations of people above and below, and their retrospective experiences. Their sense of self and relationships with others provided rich insight into how government middle managers interpret organizational reality and their positions between senior leaders and faculty at a hierarchical government institute. The recommendations from this study would allow government organizations to view current organizational phenomena from fresh perspectives. Each of the four themes emerged from this study would make a good starting point to further explore the lived experiences of middle managers.

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Intercultural Communicative Competence in Chinese Language Programs: Curriculum Design and Instructional Strategies

Dissertation Abstract

Li Cao

Introduction

The curricula of current language courses and programs do not always emphasize intercultural communicative competence (ICC), especially at the introductory level, and scant research for effective strategies for doing so is available. Instructors have little or no knowledge about it (Hadley, 2001)[1] and students' ICC at the lower level has been neglected. Empirical evidence of the characteristics of language learners with high ICC at the novice level is nonexistent. Knowing the characteristics of language learners with high ICC at the novice level could help instructors to guide students in developing it.

Literature Review

The intercultural communicative competence (ICC) model cultivates language learners' ability to communicate appropriately in content knowledge, language, and culture, verbally and non-verbally. The ICC melds communicative competence and intercultural competence (Arevalo-Guerrero, 2009). Byram (1997) defines ICC as the ability "to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language" (p. 71). Neuliep (2009) refers to ICC as "the degree to which you effectively adapt your verbal and nonverbal messages to the appropriate cultural context" (p. 393). For Bennett (1993), intercultural sensitivity is "the construction of reality as increasingly capable of accommodating cultural difference that constitutes development (p. 24)."

The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) is a self-assessment questionnaire of 50 items with six levels of Likert-type answers (Kelly & Meyers, 1995). The CCAI includes the Emotional Resilience Scale, the Flexibility/Openness Scale, the Perceptual Acuity Scale, and the Personal Autonomy Scale. The major elements included in the Emotional Resilience Scale are emotional resilience, emotional balance, and positive attitude. The Flexibility/Openness Scale studies cognitive flexibility, interpersonal competence, and the third culture perspective. The Perceptual Acuity Scale includes verbal cues, non-verbal cues, and empathy. The Personal Autonomy Scale studies personal value system and sense of identity.

Method

The researcher studied Chinese curricular models of teaching culture in two language programs (at the Peach Institution and the Orange Institution), examined strategies in teaching intercultural communication, and administered the CCAI self-assessment to research participants. The researcher conducted two case studies to discover the differences between the programs through interviews and questionnaires.

Data Collection

Four faculty members who had taught elementary Chinese language classes participated in the one-hour interview, focusing on intercultural communicative instruction, curricular models practiced, and strategies employed in teaching to increase learners' ICC. At each institution, five intermediate level students, who had different language teachers and had taken elementary Chinese language classes, participated in the study by completing the CCAI self-assessment and a one-hour interview that addressed their learning experiences of acquiring ICC.

Data Analysis

The Peach Institution, following the guidelines of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), added 100 Chinese radicals to the novice-level Chinese curriculum. It also hosted a wide variety of extracurricular cultural events and activities, all of which were open to the public, such as Chinese Table, Confucius Week, Immersion Week, Chinese holiday celebrations, performances and lectures, and local community functions.

At the Orange Institution, the director of the Chinese program established the learning goals for different years of college-level Chinese. It provided learning opportunities for students, such as tutor on campus, Chinese House, lunch or dinner with Chinese, and Chinese cooking. These were open to students only.

Participants reported that the most effective instructional strategies were the online forum, the immersion program, spontaneous discussions, comparisons of now and then, field trips, and videos before class. Three out of four teachers did not emphasize ICC in the elementary Chinese language classes, but all teachers believed that student engagement was important.

Students of the two institutions recognized that videos (videos complementing textbooks and random videos) had best results in increasing their ICC. Other helpful instructional strategies were formal and informal use of the language, sharing ideas, trivia questions, warm-up chitchat in Chinese, teaching nuances of language and culture, and performing. Eight of the 10 students attempted to gain intercultural competence through means such as attending intercultural events on campus, meeting people from different cultural

backgrounds, sampling different foods, watching foreign movies and dramas, learning foreign languages, taking classes related to culture, and reading books about varied cultures.

The two students who achieved the highest CCAI scores shared the following characteristics: they enjoyed learning foreign languages and cultures, meeting new people and making new friends, attending events and celebrations, and appreciating new food and travel to different places. By not succumbing to a fear of making mistakes while learning a new language and culture, they recognized, controlled, and found ways to overcome negative emotions. Moreover, they planned to work or study in China. They developed a sensitivity to different nonverbal cues, empathy and respect for different cultural products, practices, and perspectives, and high intercultural and interpersonal tolerance differences.

The CCAI scores from the two institutions were compared. The means were 225.8 for the Peach Institution and 244.6 for the Orange Institution. One variable was extracurricular events and activities. Students from the Orange Institution had more opportunities to participate in Chinese cultural events and activities.

Conclusion

Even though the two institutions did not formally include ICC in their curricula, learning goals, teaching objectives, and instructional strategies, increasing students' ICC was an essential concept that teachers and students practiced in Chinese language classrooms, including at the introductory level. The findings suggest that language educators should encourage students to respect other cultures, bring an open mind to new cultural products, practices, and perspectives, have a positive attitude toward language and cultural differences, and be aware of non-verbal cues in communication, while stressing students' autonomy in their belief and ideology.

Notes

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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Online Formative Assessments as Valid Correlates of Foreign Language Proficiency Levels as Measured by ILR/DLPT5 Summative Tests

Dissertation Abstract

Alma S. Castro Peet

This study explored a technological contribution to education made by the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) in the formative assessment field. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to identify the relationship between online formative (Online Diagnostic Assessment; ODA) and summative (Defense Language Proficiency Test 5; DLPT5) assessments in foreign language instruction in Spanish, Korean, Chinese Mandarin, and Modern Standard Arabic to determine their relationship to student success in a basic course program for adult students at the DLIFLC.

Literature showed that the U.S. government has played a key role in developing standards for second language acquisition in the United States. Since September 11, 2001, the Department of Defense (DoD) has been the government's main supplier of foreign language resources to respond to changing world situations that have fueled an increasing demand for language capabilities. In this context, this study explored a technological contribution to education made by DLIFLC in the formative assessment field through the ODA. The studies on online diagnostic assessments of second language acquisition are primarily based on the European DIALANG (Clark, Green, Miller, Vatz, Tare, Bonilla, Prado, & Jones 2014; Taghizadeh, Alavi, & Rezaee, 2014),[1] an online diagnostic test based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) used by over 12,000 students (Lancaster University) mostly in Europe (Alderson & Huhta, 2011). Although researchers have noted that DIALANG is a true foreign language diagnostic test (Alderson, 2005; Alderson & Huhta, 2005, 2011; Huhta, 2008), the test provides relatively limited diagnostic value because it was designed based on traditional concepts of language use rather than on a theory of foreign language acquisition and use (Alderson & Huhta, 2011). By contrast, the ODA employs the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) criteria and the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) standards, and over 35,000 users take it every year. Whereas researchers know about the aptitude test—Defense Language Aptitude Battery (DLAB) and the summative DLPT5 through published research studies, little is known about the properties of the ODA as a formative diagnostic test through published correlation or validation studies.

Literature indicated a disconnect between theory and practice when examining formative and summative assessments in a more integrated manner, and limited research addressed the correlation between formative and summative assessments (Crooks, 2011; Croteau, 2014; Knight, 2000; Taras, 2005). The current study contributes to the research literature by (a) integrating the ODA to the body of research on online diagnostic assessments of second language acquisition, (b) assessing the correlation of the formative ODA to the summative DLPT5 to assess test validity, and (c) incorporating the ODA to the body of research associated with the correlation of formative and summative tests.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between the Spanish, Korean, Chinese Mandarin, and Modern Standard Arabic ODA formative test results administered at the end of the course and students' final summative DLPT5 scores?
2. What is the relationship between the ODA and the ILR levels for Spanish, Korean, Chinese Mandarin, and Modern Standard Arabic as measured by the DLPT5?
3. Are the relationships found between ODA and DLPT5 for Spanish, Korean, Chinese Mandarin, and Modern Standard Arabic consistent across the levels or is there variance in the relationship depending on the level?

Methods

The nonexperimental study included a standard regression model to determine the relationships between two variables: 1) end-of-course ODA scores and 2) DLPT5 final scores. The study used a multiple regression analysis to identify correlations between ODA and DLPT5 scores. The data collected for this study consisted of archived data from eight formative ODA and eight summative DLPT5 assessments, including 1) archival scores for listening and reading from students who took the formative ODA at the end of the 36-week course in Spanish and archival scores of the same students who took the DLPT5 at the end of the Basic Course program; and 2) archival scores for listening and reading from students who participated in a formative ODA at the end of the 64-week course in Korean, Chinese Mandarin, and Modern Standard Arabic and archival scores of the same students who took the summative DLPT5 at the end of the Basic Course program.

Each calendar year, approximately 3,500 students attend the Basic Course programs at the DLIFLC for 17 languages (DLIFLC, 2015c). For the languages studied, the total population in 2015 and 2016 in the Basic Course programs consisted of 342 students in Spanish, 426 in Korean, 571 in Chinese Mandarin, and 912 in Modern Standard Arabic. A sample of 269 archived listening scores and 270 reading scores from 276 students in these four languages, representing 7.7% of the entire student population, was analyzed. The scores represented 35% of the Spanish school population, 8% of the l Korean school

population, 12% of the Chinese Mandarin school population, and 6% of the Modern Standard Arabic school population in 2015 and 2016.

Findings

Findings were as follows: (a) Korean, Chinese Mandarin, and Modern Standard Arabic (Category IV languages) showed higher discrimination across levels than did Spanish (a Category I language); (b) the ODA had a closer relationship to the DLPT5 for reading than for listening; (c) listening scores consistently fell one to two levels lower than those on DLPT5 at ILR Levels 3 and 2+; and (d) both reading and listening had a consistent moderate relationship between the ODA and the DLPT5 at ILR Level 2.

Conclusion

Because the literature review revealed a disconnect between theory and practice when examining formative and summative assessments, and because research results showed that at least one ODA assessment demonstrated a higher degree of correlation with DLPT5 at one ILR level (and score differentiation across ILR levels), the conclusion was that it is possible to devise assessments of language acquisition with dissimilar design constructs—formative and summative. With common ILR requirements, if both forms of assessment were designed appropriately, they would lead to comparable ILR results. Therefore, the results of this study encourage DLIFLC to devise similar research on the ODA–DLPT5 correlations. For future research, ODA developers and research experts may study reasons for variance in correlation at upper ILR levels for listening as well as the differences between Category I and Category IV languages while considering (a) open-ended responses written in the English language, (b) the ODA semi-adaptive features, (c) testing times, (d) differences between formative and summative assessments constructs, and (e) unique idiosyncrasies for assessing listening.

Note

1.   Refer to the dissertation for a complete list of references.

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What Does Multicultural Teaching Look like When U.S. Professors Teach Classes Mainly Composed of East Asian Students?

Dissertation Abstract

Cheng-Wei Chen

Statement of the Problem

Professors in the United States have many opportunities to teach a cohort of students whose cultural experiences, native languages, and ideologies of teaching and learning are distinct from theirs. Given the globalization trends within higher education, U.S. professors of English as a Second Language (ESL) programs and those teaching in the satellite campuses of U.S. colleges in Asia may find themselves as the only English native speaker and the only representative of American culture in the classroom (Stromquist, 2007).[1] In these programs, students complete their prior studies in Confucian education nations (i.e., Japan, Korea, China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan) with limited experience of overseas studies (Marginson, 2011). However, the Confucian concept of education that most East Asian students possess is unfamiliar to professors who teach in the U.S. educational system (Stromquist, 2007). What can U.S. professors do to improve the learning experience of East Asian students? Understanding the essential components of multicultural competencies is critical for teaching practitioners and policy makers in educational programs.

Purpose of the Study

This study explores one overarching research question: How, and in what ways, are U.S. professors' facilitation of student learning influenced by the extent to which they are multiculturally competent? More specifically, the study focuses on (1) how Western professors and East Asian students interact in the classroom; and (2) how cultural identities, native languages, pedagogy, and curriculum unfold in the context of cultural and linguistic differences. The overarching research question consists of two sub-questions:

1. What do U.S. professors of East Asian students believe they must know and be able to do to support and facilitate students' learning?
2. What does teaching look like in a classroom where the professor is culturally and linguistically different from the East Asian students?

The study was conducted in the context of U.S. professors teaching East Asian students of limited English proficiency and American cultural knowledge, to achieve academic gains in an American classroom. The study focused on the instructional journey of two experienced ESL professors and their interpretations of successful teaching practices. Through examining the professors' perceptions of teaching East Asian students and evaluating the quality of instruction, the study identified challenges encountered by the professors and proposed solutions for teaching practitioners and policy makers in educational programs. The dissertation drew from the field literature in: (1) learning in higher education, (2) cultural diversity and student perceptions of learning, and (3) teaching excellence in higher education. The literature review guided a conceptual framework for the data-collection and data analysis.

The Conceptual Framework

The cross-case analysis demonstrated (1) the level of instructor engagement in critical reflection; (2) belief in the learning capabilities of East Asian students; and (3) the pedagogical choices that determined the instructor's multicultural competence. Instructors' multicultural competences constituted the ways in which they conduct cross-cultural communication and interaction, accumulate knowledge about students' native culture and about multicultural teaching, express cultural caring, build the classroom climate, and make classroom decisions that best match student needs. Figure 1 delineates what may be expected of a multiculturally competent instructor in a classroom:
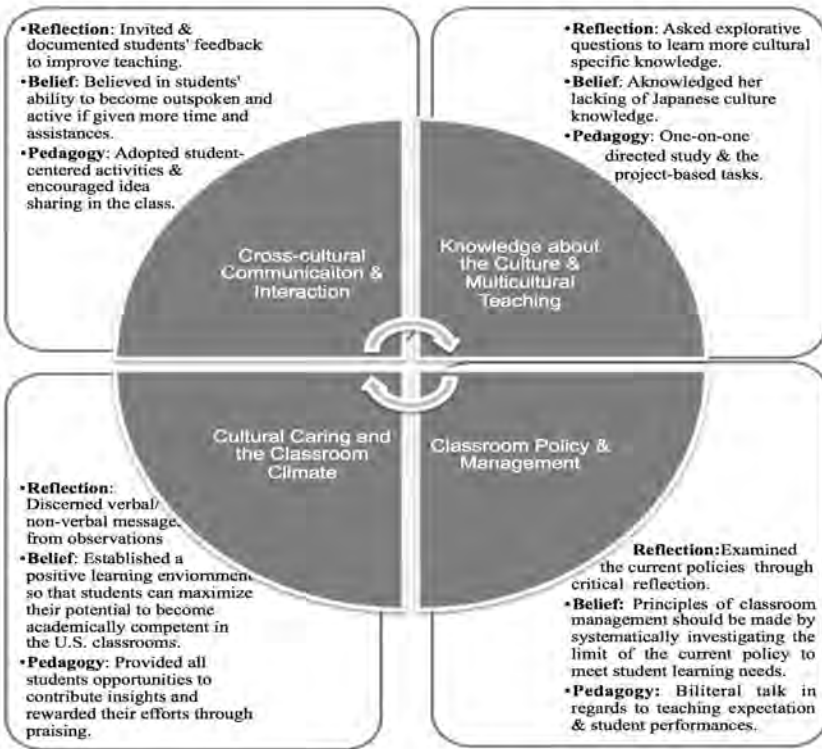
Figure 1
Multicultural Competence in Classroom Practice

Figure 1 shows that a multiculturally competent instructor has *good cross-cultural communication skills*, demonstrated by the ability to invite and document student feedback as evidence of instructional reflection, have faith in students' potential for active engagement and academic achievement, adopt student-centered activities, and encourage opinion sharing among students.

A competent instructor also *accumulates knowledge about the student's native culture and about multicultural teaching* by asking explorative questions about culturally specific knowledge, acknowledging that he or she may have knowledge limitations about students' native culture, and offering students opportunities to share their culturally specific insights.

Moreover, a competent instructor *knows how to express cultural caring and establish a positive learning environment*. A culturally sensitive instructor can discern verbal and non-verbal messages from students that are inflected by their cultural diversity. The instructor believes that culturally diverse students may maximize achievements in an amicable learning environment where the instructor provides every student with opportunities for maximal academic achievement and gives timely rewards to those who make positive efforts to learn.

Furthermore, a competent instructor should *be capable of making comprehensive classroom management policy through systematical investigation and critical reflection.* The instructor constantly examines the pros and cons of policies and practices, and seek better ones. The instructor makes a comprehensive educational policy through communication with the students by addressing the gap between teaching expectations and student performance. Based on the results of communication, a tacit agreement on classroom operations is reached. The classroom policies, when formulated through discussion and consensus, become meaningful to the students.

Findings

The research findings suggest that the teaching quality is determined by an instructor's engagement in reflection/critical reflection, faith in the learning abilities of East Asian students, respect for student learning traits, and adoption of effective teaching methods. Instructors may enhance multicultural competence by improving skills in critical reflection, accommodating East Asian students' learning traits, and adopting the most effective teaching approaches. Critical reflection is crucial for multicultural educators. Jeffrey (2007) claims that by following the three phrases of critical reflection, instructors may develop professionally. In the initial phase, the instructor systematically investigates and documents student feedback via verbal inquiries and written surveys. Students' thoughts and feelings help the instructor adjust interactions with them to achieve better results. In the second phase, the instructor utilizes the documentation of student feedback to thoroughly examine the effectiveness of classroom management and instructional philosophy. This process allows the instructor to gauge the discrepancy between students' needs and wants to tailor the instruction. In the third phrase, the instructor interrogates the perceptual stereotypes toward culturally/linguistically diverse students in tandem with ethical/moral reflection.

Note

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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Foreign Language Student Anxiety and Expected Testing Method: Face-to-Face Versus Computer Mediated Testing

Dissertation Abstract

Cynthia L. Dohl

The evidence is overwhelming; affective factors, in particular anxiety, influence students learning a second or foreign language. Foreign language anxiety affects students' achievement and desire to continue the studies. As instructors want students to succeed, finding ways to reduce anxiety has become a key factor.

Studies indicate that attitudes towards, and beliefs in, language learning and testing may increase student anxiety. For example, oral proficiency is usually part of the curriculum. Many professors explore different ways to help students reduce test anxiety, because doing so may achieve better results.

This study gathered data on the anxiety levels of students who were told that they would be undergoing oral proficiency testing using either face-to-face or computer-mediated methods. A comparison of the responses of the two groups intended to answer two research questions:

1. Will there be a significant difference in the anxiety scores between university students who believe that they will be tested for oral proficiency using synchronous (SCMC) and asynchronous (ACMC) computer-mediated communication and those who believe they will be tested using traditional face-to-face interviews and classroom oral discourse?
2. Will there be any difference in anxiety between beginning and advance class levels?

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to determine if university students in foreign language courses who believed they would be tested for oral proficiency using synchronous (SCMC) and asynchronous (ACMC) computer-mediated communication generated lower anxiety scores than those who believed they would be tested using traditional face-to-face interviews and oral discourse. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was the principle-measuring instrument, followed by the administration of a background

questionnaire used to compare purposes between beginning and advanced students (*N*=172).

Results

Research Question 1

The result for the main effect, method of testing, was insignificant. This means that whether students perceived that they would be tested using the traditional methods or using technology, neither had a significant effect on anxiety levels. The results of several previous studies that used technology in the classroom indicated that the use of CMC methods in the classroom produced lower anxiety levels (Beauvois, 1994, 1999; Beauvois & Elledge, 1996; Kivela, 1996; Lee, 2004; Meunier, 1998; Skinner & Austin, 1999; Warschauer, 1996).[1] However, these studies did not focus on oral proficiency testing.

One student wrote the following comment on the questionnaire "When I heard I would have a choice b/w computer or professor. I'd prefer professor since they would be more understanding." Interestingly, this participant, an advanced student, had an anxiety mean of 3.09, a medium level score. The thought of using technology may have intensified this student's anxiety level.

Research Question 2

The 2x2 ANOVA that measured the effects of testing methods and student levels and the interactions of the effects revealed no significant effect for testing methods or for interaction. However, the effect for student levels showed a significant difference. The significance level was .004 with a medium effect size. The descriptive statistics indicated that beginning level students had a significantly higher level of anxiety (*M* = 2.81) than that of advanced students (*M* = 2.51). The findings coincided with the conclusions of Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977, 1979), Desrochers and Gardner (1981), and Chapelle and Roberts (1986), which indicated that beginning students had higher anxiety levels. If the goal is to retain students at advanced levels, measures need to be taken to reduce anxiety for beginning level students.

The FLCAS Questionnaire

The results of the FLCAS questionnaire revealed that the mean for the 172 participants was 2.66, which is in the low-anxiety range. However, more than 50% of the students experienced some anxiety and 10% at a high level. Because several studies show that anxiety may have an effect on achievement (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Aida, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999), finding methods to reduce anxiety needs to be addressed.

Implications

The findings confirmed that anxiety existed in the language classroom. Even though the mean for anxiety in this study was at a lower level, compared with some of the previous studies—Horwitz et al.,1986 (2.86), Aida,1994 (2.93), Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003 (2.72), and Zhang, 2010 (2.98), 53% of the students had some foreign language anxiety. Instructors should be aware of the activities and situations that create anxiety in students. For example, situations involving native speakers and pressuring students to speak on the spot and perform oral tasks when they are not comfortable doing so may cause anxiety. Instructors in beginning level courses should, in particular, create a low anxiety classroom so that more students are retained to continue their studies in the upper levels.

Limitations

Because this experiment did not conduct oral proficiency tests, the results only showed student perceptions of the different testing methods, not their test performance using traditional methods or technology. Therefore, a true comparison of the effect of testing methods on student performance was not obtained.

Another factor that might have affected the results was the timing of the study. It took place at the end of the fall semester when students were told that the oral proficiency testing was to be administered during the last week of classes. This announcement was met with many sighs and general dissatisfaction. One student wrote the following: "This added test is very inconvenient; we already have two exams to prepare for! The time spent doing this test should be spent studying." If many participants thought this way, this could have skewed their responses on the questionnaire. They may have been more concerned about test taking than the different methods that they were going to be tested with. This could also explain the mean for test anxiety being similar to those for communication apprehension and social anxiety.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings and limitations of this study, the following suggestions are in order:

1. Conduct a follow-up experimental study that includes actual testing. One class uses technology and the other traditional methods. The researcher may give a pretest and a posttest, using the FLCAS questionnaire to determine differences between classes. Examining the achievement levels of the classes would reveal measurable differences.
2. The academic reason for taking the language course should be explored. Even though this study did not analyze means for statistical differences, there appeared to be a substantial difference between the means for

    language majors and minors and those students taking the course for different reasons.

3. Another question to investigate is the effect of self-esteem on language anxiety. Taking into consideration Brown's (2000) description of self-esteem, one may ask if low self-esteem is a cause of language anxiety or does low self-esteem result in high anxiety?

4. Gregersen and Horwitz's 2002 study investigated perfectionism as a cause of anxiety. Although their research was limited to a small group of students (*n*=8), examination of the phenomenon may be warranted.

    In conclusion, communication is the goal of students and professors; the communicative approach is used in many classrooms. Testing for oral communication skills remains a challenge. Anxiety can negatively affect the language learning in numerous ways. Reducing anxiety seems to increase language acquisition, retention, and learner motivation (Von Wörde, 2003). Therefore, reducing foreign language anxiety should be a goal in all language classes in order to motivate continued study.

    There is a Czech proverb which asserts that *You live a new life for every new language you speak. If you know only one language, you live but once.*

Note

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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Acquiring Higher Levels of Proficiency in Less Commonly Taught Foreign Languages:
Qualitative Study of the Impact of Teacher Perceptions of Cognitive Theories for Instructional Design

Dissertation Abstract

Medhat Fam

Acquiring high levels of proficiency in less commonly taught foreign languages such as Arabic, Chinese, and Korean is an extraordinarily stressful process that contributes to the cognitive demand imposed on both students and teachers. The cognitive demand is defined as the degree of concentration required to solve problems or complete a task in a given time. The purpose of this qualitative single case study is to investigate the impact of teacher perceptions of cognitive load theories for instruction and instructional design, particularly the development and use of interactive multimedia curricula in language instruction at the Defense Language Institute (DLI). The conceptual framework for this study is based on the ways to reduce cognitive load. Three types of cognitive load are recognized: extraneous, intrinsic, and germane. If any type of cognitive load does not leave enough space in the working memory, learners must invest extra effort in the learning process. The consideration of cognitive load theories impacts the outcome of both the learning and the instructional processes. This study concentrated on teachers' perceptions. The research questions were: (1) How do DLI instructors perceive and describe the ways that can be used to reduce cognitive load and its associated stress for learners of less commonly taught foreign languages and help them to manage their levels of cognitive load? and (2) How do DLI instructors perceive and describe the best instructional design that can be used to reduce cognitive load and its associated stress for the learners of less commonly taught foreign languages?

Fifteen DLI teachers volunteered to participate in the study. They were from the Arabic, Chinese, and Korean departments, composing three groups. The teachers, who were native speakers and had used multimedia technology, taught adult students at the intermediate and the advanced levels. Every day they prepared authentic and up-to-date learning materials.

In-depth face-to-face interviews were conducted with each participant. During the interviews, the teachers discussed their perceptions of the concept of cognitive load in the development of multimedia curricula—e.g., whether they were familiar with cognitive load as a theoretical concept or whether they knew

cognitive load through personal experience. They discussed how the multimedia curricula that they developed had an impact on the cognitive load of their students—e.g., whether their students responded either more or less positively to multimedia than they did to other techniques, and if the teachers considered the concept and impact of cognitive load when they designed the curriculum and differentiated instructions.

The data collected from the interviews were studied to identify common themes of the participants' perceptions about the concept and impact of cognitive load. The interview data were digitally recorded, transcribed, coded, and analyzed using NVivo12 qualitative software, which helped to organize the themes that emerged. Methods of data analysis included the emergence of specific themes, concepts, repeated words or ideas, interpretation, and presentation of the findings.

The results showed that the participants had general background knowledge of the Cognitive Load Theory (CLT). However, when it came to practice, they experienced challenges to alleviate students' stress level. This finding suggests that in future teacher training, the process of applying theory to practice should be included, which may help teachers improve classroom practice. The findings also have implications for developing the most appropriate instructional practice and curriculum design for less-commonly taught foreign language learners. Prior research stressed an adult learner's ability to perform analysis and synthesis as the two most important end-result characteristics that might affect their ability to master a foreign language. Brain-based research also showed that adults might have a significant barrier to learning a new language because of the context in which they learn (Schleppegrell, 2011).[1] This study has discovered the characteristics of an effective multimedia instructional design in the DLI environment and various ways to lower cognitive load, which would alleviate students' stress level and allow a more efficient attainment of higher-level language proficiency.

This study, conducted at DLI, focused on adult students who were in the U.S. military. Some of the findings may not be generalizable to language students at other institutions with different educational settings. Moreover, the issue of personal bias was not fully addressed because the instructors were sampled by convenience and were known to the researcher. Nevertheless, the study contributed to our understanding of instructional design of less commonly taught foreign languages.

Note

1.   A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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Motivation and Achievement of English Speakers Learning Korean at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

Dissertation Abstract

YongHwa Gallagher

Purpose

The purpose of the study was (a) to examine the relationship between student motivation and academic achievement in determining how motivation affects academic achievement; (b) to explore how motivation varies by semesters; and (c) to investigate how academic achievement varies by semesters. The research was conducted at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC); participants were students learning Korean as a target language in the Korean Basic Course (KBC) in 2016. The study was designed to measure students' motivation, based on Keller's (1987)[1] attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (ARCS) model and Keller's (2006) Course Interest Survey (CIS) to find out how motivation affects academic achievement.

Theoretical Framework

Keller's (1987) ARCS motivation model was the theoretical framework of this study. Keller developed it because he was interested in theories pertaining to motivation and performance. According to Tao (2009), Keller's ARCS model has been successfully tested for validity and reliability in measuring learner motivation:

- Attention refers to how the teacher grabs and holds the students' interest in order for learning to take place.
- Relevance is important to maintain student interest by teaching what is pertinent to personal learning goals or expectations.
- Confidence is a feeling of positive expectations for achieving learning goals.
- Satisfaction is the emotional reward for accomplishment. Keller (1983) maintains that the feeling of satisfaction generates the motivation to do better.

Research Questions

RQ$_1$: Is there a relationship between motivation and academic achievement?

RQ$_2$: To what extent does motivation evolve by semester?

RQ$_3$: To what extent does academic achievement evolve by semester?

Method

The quantitative research method was used to (a) compare data in a systematic way; (b) make generalization to the whole population; and (c) test theories with hypotheses *(Media and Communications*, 2010). Keller's CIS was used; nine of the 34 items were reversed (5 = 1, 4 = 2, 3 = 3, 2 = 4, 1 = 5).[2] The goal of CIS is to find out how motivated students are, were, or expect to be, by classroom instruction or a course in progress (Keller, 2006). The current KBC curriculum was taught on the basis of the four categories of ARCS.

There were 139 first-, second-, and third-semester students, including male (105) and female (34). Regarding level of education, 90 participants had a high school diploma, 19 had a junior college degree, 28 had bachelor's degrees, and two had master's degrees. Forty-eight participants were 18–20 years of age, 45 were 21–24 years of age, and 36 25–were 38 years of age, with a mean of 23. By semester there were 50 students in the first semester, 53 in the second semester, and 36 in the third semester. Moreover, 75 students accepted Korean as their first choice, 26 as their second, 12 as their third; 26, however, did not choose Korean.

The data were analyzed by the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 21, for Windows. The primary statistical techniques used in this study were (a) descriptive analysis; (b) Cronbach's Alpha for internal consistency reliability test; (c) Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (RQ1) and multiple regression analysis (MANOVA, RQ2); and (d) analysis of variance (ANOVA, RQ3).

Results

Findings on RQs

RQ 1 asked if a relationship existed between motivation factors and academic achievement. Results showed that attention and relevance had no statistically significant correlations with the Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) (r = .121; r = .075); confidence and satisfaction have small but statistically significant positive correlations with CGPA (r = .245** and r = .238**). The results clearly support RQ 1, "There is a relationship between motivation factors and academic achievement among the DLIFLC students, learning Korean as their target language."

RQ 2 asked to what extent student motivation factors varied by semester. All ARCS subscale scores decreased as the semester progressed, even after

controlling for other demographic and academic achievement variables. This finding clearly indicated that there were differences in motivation by semester.

RQ 3 asked to what extent academic achievement varied by semester. The semester differences in CGPA maintained throughout the ANCOVA models; that is, even after controlling for each of the ARCS subscale variables, there were differences in the academic achievement by semester.

Other Major Findings on ARCS and CGPA

- Attention scored lowest among the ARCS subscales.
- Relevance scored highest among the ARCS.
- Target language choice had a definite impact on the ARCS subscale variables, although statistically not significant.
- Age exerted a statistically significant impact on each ARCS subscale variables.
- There were no statistically significant effects of demographic variables on CGPA other than the semester (especially for the first and second semesters).

Significance of the Study

This study was important because the results provided statistical evidence from the CIS and ARCS factors, about which no previous studies compared Korean students' motivation and academic achievement at the DLIFLC. The study (a) answered the research questions; (b) examined the demographic variables' influence on motivation factors; (c) explored the influence of ARCS factors on CGPA; and (d) presented a summary of findings. Its results provided (a) information and recommendations to the DLIFLC leadership to implement suitable plans for revamping the existing school programs; and (b) guidance to Korean instructors for creating effective lesson plans to support language learning. A better understanding of how motivation affects students' academic performance is important as the DLIFLC is raising passing scores for the Defense Language Proficiency Test 5 (DLPT) for Listening Comprehension (LC2+), Reading Comprehension (RC2+), and Speaking 2 or better by 76% by the year 2022, as compared to the current passing score of L2/R2/SP1+. In short, motivation is one of the important factors in learning a foreign language; if students do not have the motivation to learn, they will not have the interest in spending the time and exerting the effort necessary to do so (Keller, 1987).

Notes

1. A complete list of references is in the dissertation.
2. The CIS consists of 34 questions that the participants answer on a Likert-type scale that ranges from 1 to 5 (e.g., 1 = Not true, 2 = Slightly true, 3 =

Moderately true, 4 = Mostly true, and 5 = Very true). Of the 34 items, nine are reversed—stated in a negative manner, and should be calculated as reversed before they are added to the total (e.g., 5 = 1, 4 = 2, 3 = 3, 2 = 4, and 1 = 5). For details, see the following table:

Course Interest Scoring Guide

Attention	Relevance	Confidence	Satisfaction
1	2	3	7 (reverse)
4 (reverse)	5	6 (reverse)	12
10	8 (reverse)	9	14
15	13	11 (reverse)	16
21	20	17 (reverse)	18
24	22	27	19
26 (reverse)	23	30	31 (reverse)
29	25 (reverse)	34	32
	28		33

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Confirming the Impact of Performance Tasks on Latent Class Membership and Placement Decisions

Dissertation Abstract

Jeremy Gevara

Pennsylvania law (1990) requires that all international students on graduate teaching assistantships (ITAs) pass an in-house test of English proficiency in addition to a standardized test. To this end, a large research university in Pennsylvania has developed and administers the American English Oral Communication Proficiency Test (AEOCPT). The purpose of this dissertation is to validate the AEOCPT by focusing on three components. The first component (*Scoring Rubric*) consists of eight indicators that operationalize a four-factor framework of language knowledge. Although this language knowledge framework is an accepted framework for language tests in general (Bachman, 2007; Bachman & Palmer, 1996, 2010), this dissertation is the first attempt to empirically confirm it (RQ1). The second component (*Placement decisions*) is currently made by adding up the scores of the eight indicators across the four performance tasks. This summative score communicates placement into one of four classes. However, this score cannot be used to empirically confirm that students are best placed into four classes or identify the strengths and weaknesses that group them together into these respective classes (RQ2). The final component (*Performance Tasks*) is assumed by ITA administrators to elicit similar rubric scores. Instructors believe that the four performance tasks are not equally salient to informing English ability in the American classroom (RQ3).

The dataset that I used to answer the three research questions consisted of the results from 498 ITA candidates who took the test between the 2012 Summer and 2014 Fall semesters. Candidates are Masters and Doctoral students from a wide range of departments (e.g., Electrical Engineering, Economics, Political Science, German, etc.). For administering the AEOCPT, ITA candidates are given four performance tasks (Mini-lecture, Office Hour Role-Play, Stating an Opinion, and Announcing Changes to an Event). For each task, two raters score answers by endorsing a score of 1 to 4 for each of the eight rubric indicators. Raters are also given the responsibility of asking follow-up questions to complete the scoring rubric. For the data analysis to answer RQ1, I conducted a Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Using an identifiable four-factor higher-order model, I first checked that the model showed acceptable global and local fit through the interpretation of several fit indices. After this check, I determined whether the four-factor language knowledge model was a better fit to the dataset

when compared to two-factor and single factor models. For answering RQ2, I conducted a Latent Class Analysis (LCA) (Goodman, 1974a, 1974b; Lazarsfeld & Henry, 1968) by first determining that the original four-class decision model is identifiable. After this identification, I checked the four-class to determine if the model was the best fit for the data when compared to lower and higher class models. Finally, for answering RQ3, I tested for measurement invariance in the CFA model by using a method prescribed by Du Toit and Du Toit (2001) and in the LCA model by comparing a fixed weight model to a free one.

The results (Table 1) from the Confirmatory Factor Analysis show that the four-factor language knowledge model (RQ1) has acceptable fit to the dataset.

Table 1
Global Fit Statistics for Four-factor Higher Order Model across Four Factors

	Mini-Lecture (df = 16)	Role-Play (df = 16)	Opinion (df = 16)	Announcement (df = 16)
S-B X^2	53.07	43.38	61.08	39.42 (p<.01)
(p)	(p<.01)	(p<.01)	(p<.01)	
SRMR	.023	.020	.026	.015
RMSEA	.108	.070	.079	.049
(90% CI)	(.091; .126)	(.052; .089)	(.062; .098)	(.030; .069)
CFI	.97	.99	.99	.99
NNFI	.95	.99	.99	.99

In terms of component fit statistics, all observed variables were significant in their loadings onto latent variables.

In addition, the four-factor model fits the dataset better than do alternative models of language knowledge (Table 2).

Table 2
χ^2 Difference Tests for Nested Alternative Models

Task	One-Four Comparison (df = 6)	Two-Four Comparison (df = 5)	Four-Four Higher Order (df= 2)
Mini-lecture	63.988 (p<.001)	64.751 (p<.001)	6.406 (p=.041)
Role-play	80.10 (p<.001)	71.910 (p<.001)	11.764 (p=.003)
Opinion	103.42 (p<.001)	92.492 (p<.001)	12.738 (p=.002)
Announcement	102.14 (p<.001)	99.441 (p<.001)	10.293 (p=.006)

The table above also shows that a simpler correlated four-factor model is a better fit to the data than the four-factor higher order model. This result follows previous factor analysis research (Kline, 2011) but does not change the interpretation of the model.

The results from Latent Class Analysis (Tables 3 and 4) show that a three-class model for placement decisions better fits the dataset than a four-class model (RQ2).

Table 3
Comparative Fit Statistics for First Half of Dataset

Fit Statistic	Two Class	Three Class	Four Class	Five Class
AIC	3825.21	2928.50	2720.59	**2674.68**
BIC	4496.66	**3945.85**	4083.84	4383.83
CAIC	4628.66	**4145.85**	4351.84	4719.83
Adjusted BIC	4077.38	3310.57	**3232.57**	3316.56
Entropy	**.92**	.89	.86	.85

Table 4
Comparative Fit Statistics for Second Half of Dataset

Fit Statistic	Two Class	Three Class	Four Class	Five Class
AIC	3791.36	2945.12	2746.71	**2694.79**
BIC	4462.81	**3962.47**	4109.95	4403.93
CAIC	4594.81	**4162.47**	4377.95	4739.93
Adjusted BIC	4043.53	3327.19	**3258.68**	3336.67
Entropy	**.90**	.89	.86	.86

Because the LCA analysis program only provides comparative fit statistics, I split the dataset randomly in half. In the current AEOCPT testing program, test takers are placed into four classes (Beginners, Intermediate, Advanced, and Certified). The results above, however, show that raters scored candidates into three classes (Intermediate, Advanced, and Certified).

The results also show that the four tasks contribute unique information to understanding candidates' most probable placements (RQ3). Table 5 shows the comparison of the four-factor model to a configural invariance version of the model.

Table 5
Global Fit and Component Fit Statistics for Configural Invariance and Correlated Uniqueness Models

	Configural Invariance (df = 64)		Correlated Uniqueness (df = 348)
S-B X^2 (p)	250.37 (p<.01)	X^2 (p)	798.78 (p<.01)
SRMR	.023	WRMR	.94
RMSEA (90% CI)	.070 (.061 ; .079)	RMSEA (90% CI)	.047 (.042 ; .051)
CFI	.99	CFI	.99
Standardized Residuals above |2|	14.29%	Residuals above |.10|	1.41%
Z-values below 2	0.00%	Z-values below 2	0.00%
Average R^2 (Range)	.82 (.48-.1.03)	Average R^2 (Range)	.77 (.48-.96)

The results above support that the correlated uniqueness model (four-factor model) better fits the data than the configural invariance one. Comparing LCA models where the four AEOCPT tasks are fixed to the same weights versus being freed, the result is $G^2 (144) = 331.16$, p<.001. Overall, the two results for RQ3 support that the four AEOCPT tasks contribute unique information to determining class placement.

These results have concrete implications for the local interpretation of AEOCPT results by the department. Using the results and analyses in this dissertation, the department may provide each candidate a feedback report of their performance for every item and task (Table 6).

Table 6

Example Feedback Form for a Candidate Placed in Class 2 (Advanced)

Example #1 Class 2 = 0.98	*Mini-lecture*	*Role-Play*	*Opinion*	*Changes to an Announcement*
Grammar				
Thought Groups	↑			
Transition				
Prominence	X	X	X	
Tone Choice				
Multimodality		↑		
Task Response	X			
Question Response	X		↑	↑

In the above example feedback form, the blank boxes represent performance at the placed level, up arrows represent performance above the placed level, and Xs represent performance below the placed level. Finally, the results contribute to larger questions about interaction-based theories in language testing research.

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Situation-Bound Utterances as a Main Supporter of Chinese as a Second Language Learners' Conceptual Socialization

Dissertation Abstract

Zhiqi Gong

Second language learners' use of situation-bound utterances (SBUs) to a great extent reflects how well they conceptually socialize in the target speech community and also represents their willingness to abide by collectively accepted rules of social interaction. That is because second language learners not only have to memorize certain linguistic structures in order to communicate in social encounters, but also have the freedom to select whether and to what extent to use expressions with literal meanings or expressions with metaphorical meanings. The process of conceptual socialization is usually culture-specific and determined by a mixture of factors, such as quality and quantity of exposure to the target language and culture, motivation, anxiety, personal preferences, investment, willingness, etc.

In the process of second language (L2) acquisition, the first language (L1) governed pragmatic competence is restructured dynamically under the influence of L2 and its sociocultural requirements and behavior patterns (Kecskes, 2015). That idea was shared by Duff, Anderson, Ilnyckyj, VanGaya, Wang, & Yates (2013). They argue that learning a second language is not simply learning a different symbolic system to represent existing meanings in the L2, but a process that fundamentally changes learners' L1-based world views and knowledge and imposes a new way of thinking upon its speakers. The L1-dominated cultural norms, values, and behavior patterns blend with those learned through the new channel. When an L2 learner acquires language signs, for example, an SBU, the learner needs to learn the sociocultural background knowledge that the SBU encodes. The newly added sociocultural background knowledge through the L2 language channel gradually restructures the underlying L1-goverend conceptual base. This is a dynamic process of conceptual socialization. The development of a common conceptual base for two languages is conditioned by a mixture of sociocultural and individual factors such as age, quality of exposure to the target language, motivation, and personal preferences. The progress of conceptual socialization, in return, reinforces or restrains the effects of certain socio-cultural or individual factors. The quantitative changes in the existing L1-governed conceptual base may lead to qualitative changes, which manifest themselves in the emergence of Common Underlying Conceptual Base (Kecskes & Papp, 2000).

Conceptual socialization, full of ups and downs, is not a linear process. The quantitative changes do not necessarily lead to qualitative changes. Many sociocultural and individual factors are at play in that process.

Methods

This dissertation study is an empirical investigation of the role of SBUs in the process of conceptual socialization for Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) learners. Three experimental groups (30 advanced CSL learners, 30 intermediate CSL learners, and 30 Chinese heritage language learners) and one control group (30 native Chinese speakers) participated in this study. Three written tasks, a motivational questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview were utilized to collect quantitative and qualitative data.

Findings and Discussion

There were some significant findings in this study. Each CSL learner group and the control group showed preferences for certain subcategories of SBUs:

- *Native Chinese group:* charged SBUs > plain SBUs / loaded SBUs;
- *Advanced CSL group:* plain SBUs > charged SBUs / loaded SBUs;
- *Intermediate CSL group:* plain SBUs > loaded SBUs / charged SBUs.
- *Heritage language group:* plain SBUs > loaded SBUs / charged SBUs.

Each CSL learner group, in accordance with the socio-cognitive constraints such as environment, L2 input, sociocultural distance, and psychological distance, had a unique perception of the easiness/difficulty of understanding some Chinese SBUs. Loaded SBUs and charged SBUs were among those that were reported difficult to understand. The SBUs whose pragmatic functions were less commonly performed in daily life were also found to be hard to understand.

Despite differences in their use of SBUs, CSL learner groups followed a similar developmental pattern of conceptual socialization, constituting a three-stage developmental sequence in the acquisition of SBUs in terms of pragmatic functions:

- *Stage 1:* Learners learned the use of certain SBUs to perform the speech acts of *leave-taking, thanking,* and *greeting.*
- *Stage 2:* SBUs of *ordering, inquiring, requesting,* and *apologizing* were added to learners' sociolinguistic and pragma-linguistic repertoires.
- *Stage 3:* Learners acquired SBUs that fulfill the pragmatic functions of *well-wishing, showing hospitality, promising* and *complimenting.*

This hierarchy was a generalized reflection of CSL learners' sociocultural experiences in the target community. Many socio-cognitive factors

were also found to be at play in conceptual socialization, including length of L2 learning, length of residence in the target community, quality of exposure, social contacts, cultural identity, social categorization, and commitment to language learning and agency.

Pragmatic competence ensures the appropriate use of a language in different communication situations. It is a store of socio-cultural knowledge, skills, concepts, and beliefs about the socially and culturally sanctioned language use. The development of L2 pragmatic competence for adult L2 learners cannot be separated from L1-based pragmatic competence. For CSL learners in the current study, L2 Chinese and social development did not progress evenly. In fact, the process of L2 Chinese development occurred with constant changes in the existing L1-governed conceptual base. This L1-dominated conceptual base is a collection of L1-related rules, conventions, strategies, behavior patterns, and sociocultural knowledge. The conceptual base is the *preferred ways of saying thing* (cf. Wray, 2002) and *preferred ways of organizing thoughts* (Kecskes, 2007, 2013). The addition of Chinese *preferred ways of saying things* and *organizing thoughts* would allow CSL learners to reorganize and restructure their L1-based conceptual base. For example, how Chinese speakers greet, express hospitality, and respond to compliments differ from learners' L1 speech acts in these situations. That pragmatic knowledge underlying these speech acts, once acquired through L2, triggers some changes in L1-dominated conceptual base. It is not an easy process for CSL learners to make changes to their L1-dominated conceptual base, especially when the exposure to the target language and culture does not reach a certain point. Before that point, no qualitative changes occur. As confirmed by this study, the length of exposure to the target language and culture had an effect on the pragmatic development of CSL learners. Those CSL learners who stayed more than a year in China displayed significantly better pragmatic competence than those who were exposed less than a year to the target language and culture. It also needs to be pointed out that the process of CSL learners reorganizing and restructuring their L1-governed conceptual base is a conscious and controlled process. CSL learners' motivation and personal preferences also played a role. They would choose to modify their L1 pragmatic knowledge in a way that they feel acceptable and appropriate, based on their sociocultural knowledge.

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The Effect of Rhythmic Teaching Methods for Kindergarten EFL Students in Taiwan

Dissertation Abstract

Hui-Chu Hsu

Introduction

English is now the world's lingua franca and has been so since the inception of the Internet in the 1990s (Baugh & Cable, 2002).[1] It is difficult in today's world to be active and successful in international business, politics, scholarship or science without competence in English (Krashen, 2003).

Shen (2001) states that parents in Taiwan consider English an important tool for their children's future job entry, as well as an essential test subject for entering good colleges or universities. The teaching of English in Taiwan is a growing industry, and learning it at a very early age has become a nationwide trend. However, many problems arise as a consequence of what Krashen calls "English fever" (Krashen, 2003).

Statement of the Problem

There is a debate in Taiwan about whether preschools should promote English-only programs and hire part-time, native English speakers as English teachers. The focus, however, has transferred gradually to how to teach English well rather than if English should be taught in preschools. The Taiwanese government claims that the goal of teaching English in kindergartens is to develop cultural knowledge and international understanding without focusing on developing fluent communicative competence (Chen, Hsu, Wang, Lee, Huang, & Zheng, 2006).

Singing and rhythmic movement are commonly used as first and second language learning steps in preschool education. Whether oral spelling acquisition of the English language can be acquired in a similar way in an EFL kindergarten context is worthy of research. Specifically, research of the rhythmic teaching methods for acquiring target vocabulary pronunciation and oral spelling simultaneously in the English language may prove beneficial for learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Taiwanese kindergartens.

Purpose of the Study

This quantitative study intended to investigate the effect of the rhythmic teaching method for EFL kindergarten students in Taiwan who were simultaneously acquiring target vocabulary pronunciation and oral spelling in the English language. The rhythmic teaching method employed ten color spelling songs as treatments. Two selectively assigned groups participated in this study from the private Hsueh-Cheng Kindergarten in Taiwan. One was the experimental group using the rhythmic teaching method, and the other was the control group using the non-rhythmic teaching method.

The independent variable, the rhythmic teaching method, was defined here as color spelling songs, including red, orange, yellow, green, blue, purple, brown, black, white, and pink color songs. The dependent variable, acquiring the English language, was defined as acquiring pronunciation and oral spelling of the vocabulary.

A popular approach to quasi-experimental design, a nonequivalent (pretest and posttest) control-group design, was employed. The experimental group A and the control group B were selectively assigned.

Methods

The pretest and posttest on target vocabulary pronunciation and oral spelling was conducted at the beginning of the summer semester and the posttest after teaching for six to eight weeks. All data were confidential. Students were identified by numbers. All of the test results were secured.

Most of the songs were collected by the researcher from kindergartens in the U.S. As some lyrics and rhythms proved to be too complicated for Taiwanese EFL kindergarteners, they were simplified or reorganized. The researcher composed lyrics and found existing music to match them. The tunes, such as "Are You Sleeping?" "Bingo," "Row, Row, Row Your Boat," "Baa! Baa! Black Sheep!" "Ten Little Indians," etc., were adapted from children's songs.

The researcher chose the lyrics and music to meet various criteria that included (a) Taiwanese kindergarteners' cognitive, psychomotor, and affective domains and development; (b) the development of kindergarteners' hearing, touch, and voice; (c) the social and cultural context in the English language; (d) a child's voice range, one octave from middle C; (e) the goals of English teaching in kindergarten required by the Taiwanese government; and (f) English language rules.

All teaching materials were transmitted through email, email attachments, and fax to Ms. Wen-Hsin Chiu, a native Chinese speaker, who was a licensed instructor of the Hsueh-Cheng Kindergarten in Taiwan. Ms. Chiu not only served as the principle of the kindergarten but also taught Early Childhood Education Practicum and Instruction at the National Pingtung University of Education and other universities. Training her via phone and email, the researcher entrusted Ms. Choi with the investigation—conducting the teaching and testing

of the control and the experimental groups. The entire experimental process was video recorded and the resultant DVD was mailed to the researcher.

In accordance with the statement of the problem, the following quantitative hypotheses were used for the study:

Hypothesis 1: Ho: $\mu1' = \mu2'$ There is no significance in mean target vocabulary pronunciation acquisition by method when controlling for scores on pretest.
The alternative hypothesis is Ha: not all adjusted means are equal.

Hypothesis 2: Ho: $\mu1' = \mu2'$ There is no significance in mean target vocabulary oral spelling by method when controlling for scores on pretest.
The alternative hypothesis is Ha: not all adjusted means are equal.

Result Analysis

The ANCOVA statistical analysis was conducted via SPSS to test the two hypotheses. The results (see Figure 1) for Hypothesis 1 showed that the p value (Sig.) .000 was smaller than α (alpha) 0.05, rejecting Ho. Thus, there was a significant difference in mean target vocabulary pronunciation acquisition by method when controlling for covariate (the pretest).

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: DEPENDEN

Source	Type I Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	485.156[a]	2	242.578	84.658	.000
Intercept	1235.766	1	1235.766	431.271	.000
COVARIAT	199.941	1	199.941	69.778	.000
GROUP	285.215	1	285.215	99.537	.000
Error	126.078	44	2.865		
Total	1847.000	47			
Corrected Total	611.234	46			

a. R Squared = .794 (Adjusted R Squared = .784)

Figure 1
SPSS Results for Hypothesis 1

The SPSS results (see Figure 2) for Hypothesis 2 showed that the p value (Sig.) .001 was smaller than α (alpha) 0.05, rejecting Ho. There was a significant difference in mean target vocabulary oral spelling by method when controlling for covariate.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: DEPENDEN

Source	Type I Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	409.568[a]	2	204.784	57.741	.000
Intercept	593.383	1	593.383	167.312	.000
COVARIAT	42.465	1	42.465	11.973	.001
GROUP	367.103	1	367.103	103.509	.000
Error	156.049	44	3.547		
Total	1159.000	47			
Corrected Total	565.617	46			

a. R Squared = .724 (Adjusted R Squared = .712)

Figure 2
SPSS Results for Hypothesis 2

Conclusion and Suggestion

The results have indicated that the rhythmic teaching method is valuable for EFL kindergarteners. Although this study has provided a set of techniques of the rhythmic teaching method, future teachers may adapt the techniques to fit their teaching styles and personalities. The rhythmic teaching method training for kindergarten teachers is strongly recommended.

Note

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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An Analysis of the Reading Achievement Gap Between Non-English Language Learners and English Language Learners in Kansas Public Schools

Yusun Jung

The rapid increase of English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) students and the slow increase in the number of qualified ESOL teachers in the public schools of the State of Kansas prompted the researcher's attention to investigate how the reading achievement gap between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups changed over the time of the study. This study examined how the reading achievement gap between the two groups evolved over the five years of data collected and how the gap between the groups was expected to differ at the elementary, middle, and high school levels. In addition, this study investigated how the number of teachers with ESOL endorsement and the number of ESOL students who received ESOL services influenced the non-ESOL and ESOL groups' reading achievement. The effects of time, three school levels (i.e., elementary, middle, and high school) and two time-varying predictors (i.e., ESOL teacher and ESOL student predictors) were analyzed by means of a multilevel model of growth. The research questions and hypotheses were as follows:

1. How much of the total reading achievement outcome variance depends on classes, schools, and districts? The first hypothesis is the gap in reading outcomes between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups is significant and would change significantly over time.
2. What is the overall pattern of the gap in reading achievement from 2009 to 2013 between non-ESOL students and ESOL students, as nested in schools and districts? The second hypothesis is the reading outcomes of the groups are similar if they are nested within the same school and district as compared to the reading outcomes of the group in different schools and districts.
3. How is the gap between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups' reading achievement across five years moderated by school levels (elementary, middle, and high school)? The third hypothesis is the reading outcome gap between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups is significantly different, depending on school levels.
4. How is the gap between non-ESOL group and ESOL group' reading outcomes moderated by the percentage of highly qualified ESOL

teachers and ESOL students in each class? The fourth hypothesis is the reading outcomes of the non-ESOL and ESOL group is positively moderated by the percentage of ESOL endorsed teachers and negatively moderated by the percentage of ESOL students at each school level.

Regarding the first research question and hypothesis, the findings of this study demonstrated that the gap in reading achievement between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups at all three school levels was significant and expected to narrow significantly over time.

Regarding the second research question and hypothesis, the findings of this study demonstrated that school and district level learning environments had significant effects on both groups' reading achievement. The reading outcomes of the non-ESOL and ESOL groups were more similar to each other if they were nested within the same schools and districts. Whereas the reading outcomes of the non-ESOL group tended to be similar to each other within the same school, the ESOL group's outcomes tended to be more similar within the same district. It could be speculated that the results might be related to the difference in learning environment for ESOL groups or the difference in the policies of each district for ESOL services.

The findings of this study are related to those of Thomas and Collier's report (Thomas & Collier, 2002)[1] regarding a school's and a district's impact on ESOL students' academic achievements. In their longitudinal study conducted at five large districts located in four different states with a large percentage of ESOL students, Thomas and Collier concluded that four important factors at the district level influenced the success of ESOL students' academic achievements: 1) the potential quality of the types of programs for ESOLs; 2) the high-quality implementation of a program in terms of administrative support, teacher training, monitoring, and evaluating the outcomes; 3) the quality of the school's instructional environment (e.g., including parent engagement, developing age-appropriate proficiency in both first and second languages, etc.); and 4) the quality of available instructional time used for ESOL students to receive maximally comprehensive instruction.

The third hypothesis stated that the reading outcome gap between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups is significantly different depending on school levels (elementary, middle, and high school) across five years. Among the three school levels' gaps, the high school groups' outcome was expected to be the widest, and the gap of the three school levels was expected to become significantly narrower over time. Figure 1 shows the predicted trajectories of the gaps in the outcome of each school level.
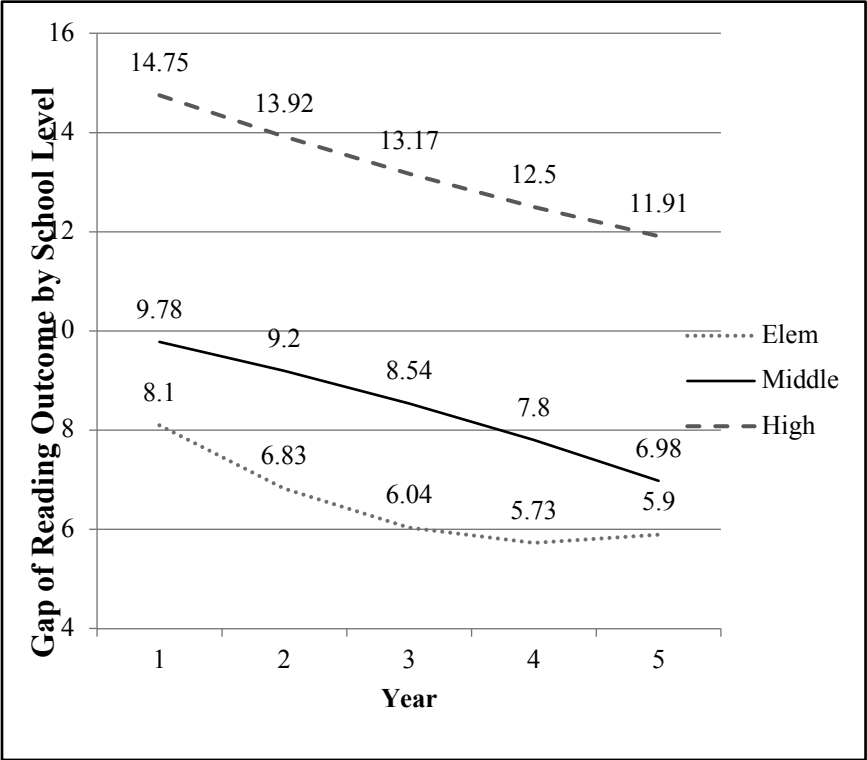
Figure 1
The Predicted Trajectories for the Gap of Reading Outcome by School Levels

Regarding the fourth research question and hypothesis, the results of the study suggested that the effects of the percentage of ESOL teachers and the percentage of ESOL students on the reading outcomes of the groups varied depending on the areas of level (i.e., within-class, within-district, between-district) and school types (i.e., elementary school, middle school, and high school). The addition of ESOL teacher and ESOL student predictors was expected to narrow the gap of the effect between the groups over time. However, the ESOL teacher predictor was significantly correlated only with the middle school within-district level gap in outcomes, and its effect was negative. That is, the more a middle school has a higher than average percentage of ESOL teachers, the gap between the middle school non-ESOL and ESOL groups' outcomes within the same district was expected to become wider.

In regard to the effect of ESOL student percentage, the gap between elementary school non-ESOL and ESOL groups was significantly correlated, as was the gap between high school groups. In high school, the increase in ESOL students was negatively related to the within-class gap in outcomes and positively

related to the between-districts gap in outcomes. In elementary school, the increase in the percentage of ESOL students was positively related to the within-class gap in the two groups' outcomes. This means that when an elementary school had a higher percentage of ESOL students, the gap in outcome between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups was expected to become narrower at the same school. When the high school class had a greater percentage of ESOL students, the gap between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups' outcomes was expected to widen within the same district. Figure 2 shows the predicted trajectories of the gap in outcomes between the non-ESOL and ESOL groups for elementary, middle, and high school.
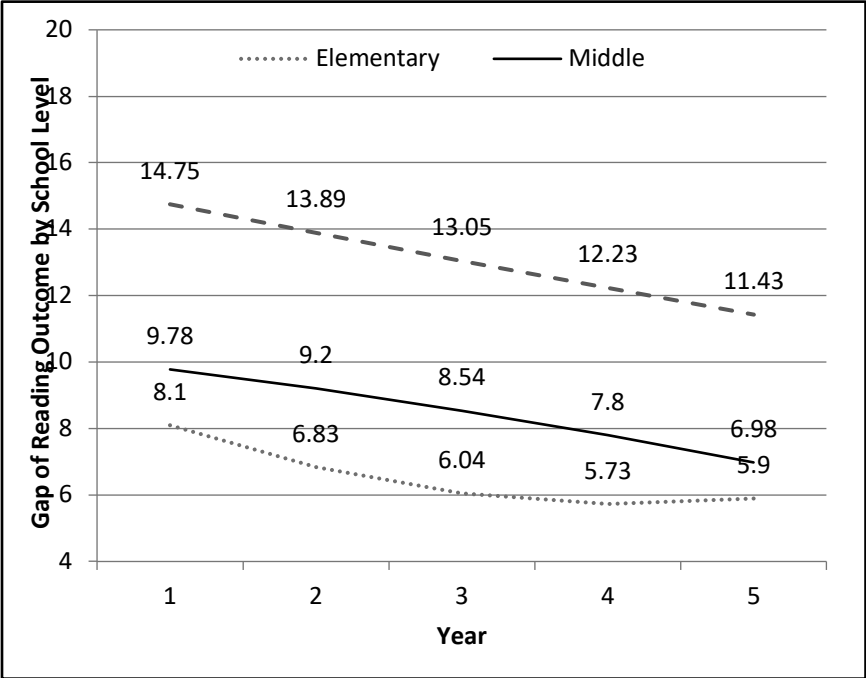
Figure 2
Predicted Trajectories of the Gap in Reading Outcomes between non-ESOL and ESOL Groups by School Levels

The results of the study suggested that administrators of Kansas State Department of Education or ESOL supporting staff at the district level need to put more effort into training teachers not to focus solely on ESOL students' learning, but on providing periodic, high-quality, professional training focusing on all students. The study also recommended that more detailed information regarding ESOL teachers needs to be collected for further research. For example, if the data for teacher training were grouped by whether an ESOL teacher took the Praxis II

ESOL subject exam only or took the exam plus ESOL college courses to become endorsed, the ESOL teacher effect on non-ESOL and ESOL groups' outcomes and the gap in those outcomes could be explained in more detail.

Note

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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Effects of Plausibility and Predictability on Reading: How and Why They Differ

Dissertation Abstract

Hong Mo Kang

World knowledge, i.e., intuition about the plausibility of events is related to reading behavior; it is harder to read a word that makes the described event less plausible and, therefore, readers need more time to read that word (Abbott & Staub, 2015; Matsuki, Chow, Hare, & McRae, 2011).[1]

Researchers, however, disagree about what plausibility is or why it affects reading. Plausibility is often equated with predictability. Even when scholars distinguish the two notions, they may in practice equate them by choosing high plausibility items from within a set of highly predictable items and similarly for low plausibility and low predictability items, as when "high plausibility" words are chosen among words that were very frequent responses in cloze tasks (Bicknell, Elman, Hare, McRae, & Kutas, 2010; Matsuki et al., 2011). Some studies even argue that the underlying mechanism by which plausibility affects reading is the same as the mechanism by which predictability affects it (Levy, 2008).

My research started from the hypothesis that a sentence processing model assuming reading difficulty is solely caused by low predictability is insufficient. If there are differences in plausibility among similarly unpredictable words, it suggests that plausibility is not the same as predictability and that the effect of plausibility on reading is the result of a different underlying mechanism than predictability. Inspired by spatial analogy as outlined in Elman (2009) and Venhuizen, Crocker, and Brouwer (2018) explaining sentence processing, I hypothesized that the semantic relationship between the actual role filler and other role fillers (those that correspond to the semantic expectations the preceding context lead to) might be one predictor of reading difficulties.

Previous measures of predictability used cloze tasks requiring only one response per sentence frame, and the predictability of a response was calculated as the proportion of times that response was provided against the number of all cloze responses. When calculated this way, the predictability of low predictability items was not truly low, because those items were the most predictable items for some respondents. The lack of precision for low predictability items obscured the separate effect of plausibility on reading.

The two ways that I increased precision of the measure of predictability, to avoid the pitfall of the previous studies, were (1) recruiting a large number of

participants (118 native speakers of English), and (2) increasing the number of responses to 10, compared with one for previous studies, for each sentence frame.

          After predictability measurement, I conducted a plausibility judgment task on a 7-point Likert scale. The results of plausibility judgment task were summarized in Figure 1. They suggested that predictability affected only plausibility ratings of low plausibility items in each level of predictability.
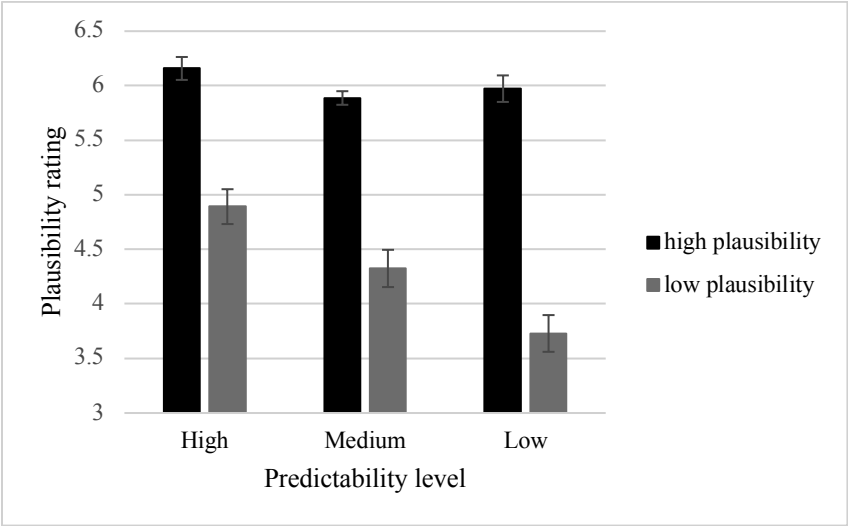
Figure 1
Mean Plausibility Ratings for Sentences with High/Low Plausibility at Three Predictability Levels

          The results of this rating study showed that predictability significantly explained plausibility judgment scores only for low plausibility fillers, rejecting the argument that plausibility is reducible to predictability.

          I then conducted a region-by-region, self-paced reading study with the same materials as the plausibility rating study, but added two spillover regions to see the effects that might be shown after the critical regions. The results (see Tables 1 and 2) showed (1) a significant effect of predictability, and no effect of plausibility, on reading times in the target region, and (2) a significant effect of plausibility, and no effect of predictability, on reading times in the spillover region. These results suggested that plausibility had an effect on reading independent of predictability, but it occurred later than the effect of predictability.

Table 1
Summary of the Fixed Effects for the Target Region (standardized coefficients in parentheses)

	Estimated Coefficient	S.E.	t	p
(Intercept)	38.79 (38.79)	11.12	3.49	0.001
Predictability	-18.08 (-12.60)	8.74	-2.07	0.04
Plausibility	-2.63 (-3.49)	4.79	-0.55	0.58
Frequency	8.31 (10.10)	5.34	1.56	0.12

Table 2
Summary of the Fixed Effects for the First Spillover Region (standardized coefficients in parentheses)

	Estimated Coefficient	S.E.	t	p
(Intercept)	-33.23 (-33.23)	16.37	-2.03	0.05
Predictability	-10.10 (-7.04)	8.31	-1.22	0.22
Plausibility	-13.53 (-17.91)	5.10	-2.66	0.01
Length of target region	6.01 (21.94)	1.79	3.36	<0.001

The purpose of the next experiment was to test the hypothesis that non-verb information contributes to the construction of partial event representations. To this end, I used materials in Korean, a head-final language, to test how non-verb information influences the construction of event representations.

I composed sentences containing conflict of social hierarchy information. Inferred social hierarchy information was constructed by using the Korean honorific suffix *-nim*, which can be available before encountering the verb, showing the object socially superior to the subject. I also used verbs denoting that the subject is socially superior to the object. Therefore, sentences that contain both hierarchical information conveyed conflicting social hierarchy information. The results of the reading study with the conflicting social hierarchy information showed that reading times were elevated at the verb region where the social hierarch information from the verb information conflicts with the inferred social hierarchy information.

The results of the experiment suggested that inferred social hierarchies not from the verb information influenced the construction of an event representation, which in turn influenced reading. The results were consistent with studies that suggested that non-verb information affects the construction of event representations.

The last study investigated whether semantic relationship between the actual role filler (what participants read) and other possible role fillers (what other nouns could have occurred that match the semantic expectations the preceding context leads to) might predict the plausibility of event descriptions and explain

reading difficulty. My goal was to investigate how the semantic relationship between actual and possible role fillers affects plausibility when sentence frames allow a wider range of possible role fillers. My hypothesis was that cloze responses more distant from the center of semantically coherent clusters should lead to lower plausibility ratings than cloze responses closer to the center of the clusters. To this end, I conducted cluster analyses using all responses in the cloze study mentioned above, and calculated the cosine distances between the words whose plausibility was measured and several possible centers of the clusters according to several different definitions on centers. The results, as shown in Table 3, indicated that the distance from each word to the medoid of the cluster it belongs to significantly predicted the plausibility rating, suggesting that the distance between a possible role filler and the center of the semantically coherent clusters it belongs to might explain the plausibility of the event that contains that role filler.

Table 3
Summary of the Results of a Linear Mixed Effects Model Where Distance of the Target to the Cluster Medoids Obtained is the Independent Variable and Plausibility Rating (Discrete 1-7) is the Dependent Variable

	Estimated Coefficient	*S.E.*	*z*	*p*
Distance to the cluster medoid	-0.45	0.20	-2.26	0.02

This dissertation has shown that plausibility cannot be reduced to predictability, and plausibility is related to how we categorize possible role fillers, given a sentence frame. Moreover, judging the plausibility of event descriptions does not always depend on verb information.

Note

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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Monolingual and Bilingual Language Processing:
A Study of Korean, English, and Korean-English Speech Errors

Dissertation Abstract

Myoyoung Kim

Slips of the Tongue

Speaking a language is an important component of human cognition. Sounds, concepts, and the syntactic structure of a language are stored in long term memory. In order to retrieve linguistic information to speak, we go through processes, most likely more complex in bilinguals than monolinguals, during planning such as mapping concepts with lexical items and selection of correct sounds for the chosen words.

A slip of the tongue (SOT) is a one-time error in speech production planning (SPP) which causes the speaker to produce an utterance which is different from the originally intended utterance. SOTs provide linguistic evidence regarding the representation of language and the planning processes for speaking. Many current theories of SPP are based on SOT data (Dell, 1986; Garrett, 1984; Stemberger, 1993).[1]

However, most SPP models were developed on the basis of data collected from Germanic-language monolingual speakers (Caplan, 1992; Dell and Reich 1981; Levelt 1989). Recent studies examining monolingual SOTs (MSOTs) made by speakers of non-Germanic languages suggest that SPP models need to be sensitive to data from a much broader set of typologically distinct languages (Arnaud, 1999 for French; Berg & Abd-El-Jawad, 1996 for Arabic; Kawachi, 2002 for Japanese; Muansuwan, 2000 for Thai; Wan & Jaeger, 2003 for Mandarin Chinese; Wells-Jensen, 1999 for Hindi and Turkish). Furthermore, the studies of SOTs which show bilingual influence are in their infancy (Poulisse, 1999).

In order to test the various hypotheses about theoretical constructs of language and empirical assumptions, and to further explore the questions raised about bilingual processing, a larger corpus of bilingual slips of the tongue (BSOTs) was required.

Corpora of SOT Data and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to explain SPP processes in general in light of linguistic data provided by fluent bilingual speakers in various language modes:

MSOTs made by Korean and English monolingual speakers, MSOTs made by Korean-English bilingual speakers, and BSOTs made by Korean-English bilingual speakers. The various data sets were compared along 14 parameters[2] derived from previous research on Germanic speech error data, predicting universal SPP mechanisms.

Research Question 1: Comparison of monolingual errors by monolingual speakers.
> 1-a) Do the MSOTs made by monolinguals in this study follow the usual patterns found in previous SOT studies?
> 1-b) In cases where Korean MSOTs by Korean monolingual speakers differ from English MSOTs by English monolingual speakers, can this be attributed to differences in the two languages?

Research Question #2: Comparison of monolingual errors made by monolingual vs. bilingual speakers.
> 2-a) Are there differences between KM/EM errors made by monolingual speakers vs. Korean-English bilingual speakers?
> 2-b) To what extent can differences be attributed to a methodological difference?

Research Question #3: Comparison of bilingual and monolingual errors.
> 3-a) How are BSOTs similar to and different from MSOTs?

Research Question #4: Comparison of bilingual speakers when producing MSOTs vs. BSOTs.
> 4-a) Do bilingual speakers perform differently when producing monolingual vs. bilingual errors?
> 4-b) Does a bilingual individual's language background such as language dominance and cultural setting affect SOT behavior?

Methodologies

Speech errors can be collected either naturalistically or experimentally. Naturalistically collected speech errors are considered to be generated from each individual's natural flow of SPP in the most naturalistic settings, and the researcher can get the full range of types of errors. However, perceptual bias and selective attention of researchers may occur during naturalistic data collection, and it can be time-consuming if a researcher wants to investigate a particular aspect of SPP. By conducting experiments, researchers elicit many speech errors in a shorter time by giving subjects a momentary overload of conscious capacity, which may block monitoring during stages of SPP. Techniques used in the laboratory, however, tend to elicit SOTs when focusing on a certain aspect of SPP.

The SOT data for this study were collected using both methodologies. The narration-of-film technique and a word game were employed to generate

naturalistic-like errors of various types in an experimental setting and to put speakers in bilingual mode for inducing BSOTs.

Findings

Many similarities were found: errors in all data sets tended to preserve the syntagmatic structure of the planned utterance (e.g., syllable structure, allophones and allomorphs, number of words, sequence of lexical categories, etc.); lexical errors tended to preserve the original planned meaning (i.e., lexical substitutions and blends most often involve two semantically related words from the same lexical category). These similarities suggest some universals of speech production planning mechanisms.

There were also differences attributed to 1) differences in language structures; 2) data collection methodologies; 3) the speaker being monolingual or bilingual; and 4) whether the speech errors were monolingual or bilingual. Specifically, BSOTs differed from MSOTs in the following ways: 1) the greatest difference was the proportion of errors in the three main types of errors: lexical errors were the most frequent in BSOTs, whereas they were mostly phonological in MSOTs; 2) the majority of bilingual phonological errors were paradigmatic, non-contextual errors, whereas most phonological monolingual errors were syntagmatic and contextual; 3) a higher percentage of [+sem] word pairs were found in bilingual lexical errors than in monolingual lexical errors, due to the large number of translation equivalents being involved. The differences between MSOTs and BSOTs are extremely important for helping us build realistic bilingual models. By investigating the errors bilingual speakers make, we can discover patterns of language representation and processing which would otherwise not be evident in the fluent speech of balanced bilinguals.

For this study, Jaeger's (2005) Representations and Processing Components (RPC) model was used to see whether the findings were compatible with it, and to propose a SPP model which could account for both monolingual and bilingual processing where there are two sets of representations (one for each language) but only one system of processing components. Generally, the RPC model seems to be appropriate for modeling the findings from my study. However, this model was designed to focus mostly on the structural aspects of language, and not for language choice during monolingual and bilingual speaking situations. Determining factors between components which are involved in language choice, activation, and suppression in context need to be added to the model for a full account for the findings in this study.

The BSOT phenomenon is a very interesting aspect of bilingual speakers' language production. Various types of unintended language mixing have shown how two languages can impinge on each other during speech production planning. The BSOTs and MSOTs by bilingual speakers are valuable evidence regarding the extent to which fluent bilinguals behave as monolingual speakers while speaking one or the other of their languages.

The current study also shows that the speech error methodology is useful for looking at psycholinguistic issues involving bilingual representation and processing, as it has been shown in the past to be a fruitful methodology for building monolingual speech production planning models, and addressing questions in both L1 and L2 acquisition.

Notes

1. A complete list of references is available in the dissertation.
2. 14 Claims based on SOTs by English monolingual speakers
   1) Phonological errors are the most frequent type of errors.
   2) Anticipations are more common than perseverations (in both phonological and lexical errors).
   3) Substitutions are more common than additions, and additions are more common than deletions. Exchanges are the least frequent.
   4) Segments are the most important phonological units in speech production.
   5) Syllable structure is important and not violated when phonological units are involved: onsets exchange with or replace only other onsets, etc.
   6) Word- or syllable-initial consonants are more likely to be involved in slips than final sounds (more onset than coda).
   7) Phonological errors do not violate legal sequences in the language.
   8) Phonetic similarity is important in phonological errors.
   9) Open-class word errors occur more frequently than closed-class word errors.
   10) Lexical errors do not violate part of speech.
   11) Lexical substitutions involve pairs of words which are semantically related more often than pairs which are only phonologically related.
   12) Inflectional errors are more common than derivational errors.
   13) After a morpheme shifts position within an utterance, the allomorph appropriate for the new environment is chosen.
   14) Lexical blends usually involve two (near) synonyms.

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Berlin as a Setting in Vladimir Nabokov's Russian Prose

Dissertation Abstract

Julia Kobrina-Coolidge

Vladimir Nabokov (1899-1977) was one of the few trilingual authors to have successfully crossed boundaries between languages. He was a brilliant writer, outrageous literary gamesman, and a cosmopolitan exile—a towering figure of 20th century literature. His contribution as a writer and translator was truly unique as he not only wrote in two languages, Russian and English, but also translated European literature into Russian as well as Russian literature into English and French. The child of a turbulent century, Nabokov once wrote that he saw existence as a set of footnotes to a vast, unfinished masterpiece. That sense of the incompletion of life, of its provisional character, of its ultimate obscurity, was rooted in the central experience of his life, that of exile, with attendant themes of memory, exile, nostalgia, and identity. The analysis begins with an overview of Berlin's role in the 1920s as a prominent center of Russian émigré culture and its influence on Nabokov's literary works, and then proceeds to an examination of the image of Berlin in three of his major works: a short story—*A Guide to Berlin* (1925), his first Russian novel—*Mary* (1926), and his last novel in Russian—*The Gift* (1935-1938).

The Berlin chapter of Nabokov's creative biography is extensive even though he never felt at home there. He never warmed to Berlin and learned little German during his fifteen years there. He lived mostly within the Russian community (the German capital became, according to one Russian poet, Vladislav Khodasevich, *the stepmother of Russian cities* and a vibrant cultural center) and got to know few Germans except for landladies, shopkeepers, and the immigration officers at the police headquarters. However, it can be said with certainty that no other city is as tightly interwoven into Nabokov's literary work as Berlin.

Nabokov clearly demonstrates the pervasive, yet elusive, nature of the urban milieu in his Russian prose. The writer finds his own artistic point of departure in one of his early stories, *A Guide to Berlin*. The narrator shows no interest in Berlin's traditional historical and cultural landmarks but presents a view of the city from a pedestrian's perspective. The narrator sits in a pub and talks to a friend about plumbing, streetcars, and work. He speculates about how 21st century writers will depict the ordinary events of life. He describes various workmen seen from the streetcar window: construction workers, a bakery boy, mailmen, and a butcher. The narrator describes the pub and the owner's little son who is seen eating soup at a table in the back apartment, eating soup. The writer imagines how in the future, the boy will remember, this very picture of his

childhood: the sound of voices, cigar smoke, the pub patron without a jacket, and the father pouring a beer behind the counter… The story does not simply capture the author's subjective impressions of Berlin, but rather it can be seen as staging a dialogue with it—across space and time.

Nabokov's first Russian novel *Mary* demonstrates his thematic and stylistic priorities as well as certain characteristics of his subsequent works. The time span is one week, the cast of characters is small, and the action, in the novel's present time, transpires within the rooms, hallways, and elevator of a Berlin boarding house. Juxtaposed against the limited spatial and temporal dimensions of the present tense are the expansive, unrestricted dimensions of the protagonist's recollections of his youth in Russia. The contrast between the static existence in present-day in Berlin and the dynamic, enlivened Russian past, as recaptured through memory, provides the novel's structure.

In the 1920s, the Russian émigré Lev Ganin is living in a Berlin boarding house inhabited by seven Russian emigres, and a singular fateful coincidence leads him to discover that his long-lost first love, Mary, is now the wife of his rather unappealing neighbor and that she will be joining him soon in Berlin. Ganin resolves to reclaim his Mary but, faced with the opportunity to turn fantasy into reality, abruptly changes his mind as he is preparing to meet her at the Berlin train station. With newly found energy and pleasurable excitement he abandons Berlin and Mary and sets off for the south of France.

A Chekhovian atmosphere of human isolation pervades the depiction of Berlin and émigré life. Nabokov achieves it by describing the items of impersonal furniture and meagre personal effects, bleak and lifeless rooms, characterless surroundings, the sounds of the regularly passing trains, and the pages ripped from a calendar that serve to designate room numbers. Nabokov pays attention to carefully constructed motifs including travel by train, tram, and bicycle, walking around the streets of Berlin, light and shadow, foresight, and the cinema.

Traveling through the labyrinth of memory, Ganin's thoughts roam in rich sensuous detail from the Russian summer countryside to St. Petersburg's winters to the Crimea during the Revolution. In rediscovering Mary in Berlin, Ganin feels he is rediscovering his youth, his Russia. The novel is laced with nostalgia for old Russia, with sensual imagery and a young man's unique sense of world-weariness. Drawing on his experiences in exile and from the Russia of his youth, Nabokov sketches a bleak portrait of émigré life in Berlin: Ganin is mortally depressed, absorbed in his recollections of Mary to such an extent that he becomes unaware of time. His few, fleeting days with Mary constitute a life that was much more real… than the life lived by his shadow in Berlin.

Nabokov considered *The Gift* the best of his Russian novels, the work where he had spoken of the gloom and the glory of exile. The title has several resonances in the novel, but it refers first and foremost to the gift conferred upon its protagonist. The hero, Fyodor Godunov-Cherdyntsev, is a young poet and writer seeking to find his own voice in the Russian literary tradition. The former aristocrat, forever barred from his homeland, leads a pleasantly precarious existence giving Russian lessons, doing translations, and selling an occasional

poem. *The Gift* has a dual plot line: the evolution of Fyodor's art and the course of his love affair with fellow émigré Zina Mertz. As the reader moves through the text, he discovers several works-within-the-work, including a creative biography of Nikolai Chernyshevsky, a nineteenth-century Russian writer and critic, an incomplete biography of Fyodor's father accompanied by the exquisite descriptions of his travels; some of Fyodor's best poems; separate vignettes on émigré life in Berlin; several imagined discourses, and finally, Fyodor's biography which is Nabokov's novel.

Nabokov pitted his art against Berlin reality, and Fyodor's inner development is measured in terms of his ability to face or even block out the intrusions of his everyday Berlin life. Clearly, that is Fyodor's position on the first day described in the novel. Standing in the doorway, surrounded by totally strange objects, he considers the potential of his father's journeys (his father was a fearless naturalist who was constantly engaged in fabulous expeditions into uncharted regions of Asia), but he never connects them to the objects themselves. Interestingly, when almost two years later, he finally conceives the idea of the biography, he is in this very room that appears to be a symbol of insomnia. Fyodor "cultivates" the objects in his room, but it seems that nothing grows. The moment that Fyodor moves into the room on Tannenberg Street holds great promise because of what the room has yet to become. The room and everything around it seem to have potential, but Fyodor fails to notice it. He is absorbed in his literary reveries, and the place and the city he lives in offer him nothing but potential interruptions of his daydreams. Consequently, he ignores the very materials that might have provided him with what he needs to complete—the many manuscripts he begins but never finishes. Therefore, *The Gift* is the story of Fyodor's gradual and partial discovery that inspiration can be found everywhere, including Berlin.

The findings suggest that Nabokov's image of Berlin developed from the depiction of Berlin in the tradition of literary naturalism to the philosophical interpretation, understanding, and inner acceptance in his last Russian novel *The Gift*. The city of Berlin represents the writer's broad metaphor of an existential journey, and this idea is realized in the characters' travel along the roads of life, in the writer's portrayal of the characters' physical motion throughout the city (Ganin's riding the tram and departing from a train station in *Mary* and Fyodor's walks along the city streets in *The Gift*), and in the poetic expression of their thoughts and feelings. Thus, the perpetual motion and the dynamic acceleration of urban development become an immutable attribute of the cityscape in Nabokov's Russian prose where not only objects but also characters are involved in the stream of metamorphosis.

The analysis demonstrates that the theme of Saint Petersburg is present in Nabokov's works, evoking visual and literary parallels to the Russian literary tradition. As such, Nabokov describes the streets of Berlin with characters and elements of poetics borrowed from Alexander Pushkin's depiction of Saint Petersburg in *Eugene Onegin*. The poem in the epilogue in *The Gift* resembles an Onegin stanza (also referred to as a "Pushkin sonnet"—verses of iambic tetrameter following a particular rhyme scheme). Nabokov puts Berlin on the map

of Russian literature, and Nabokov's Berlin becomes a symbol of transition and change. Furthermore, the idea of unity of the individual and his surroundings and the possibility of mental reconstruction and retrospective idealization of the past find their poetic representation in Nabokov's Russian prose.

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State Ideology and Language Policy in North Korea:
An Analysis of North Korea's Public Discourse

Dissertation Abstract

Jae Sun Lee

This study examines how ideology has affected North Korea's language policy since the beginning of its nation-state building project in 1945, as well as North Korea's public discourse as a result of this language policy. This dissertation aims to contribute to the language planning and policy field by shedding light on the ideology and language norms produced by the North Korean authority regarding its language policy and language use. Using discourse analysis and corpus linguistics as methodological approaches in a socio-historical context, this study investigates what ideological/political motivations have driven North Korea's language planning policies, and the consequential characteristics of the North Korean public discourse, which have rarely been addressed in previous studies.

North Korea's language policy has developed and thrived in conjunction with its state ideology, *Juche* (self-reliance), which is bound up with a popular ethno-nationalism. Political authority in North Korea has viewed language as an ideological weapon to be used against the *enemies* of the Korean nation and socialism as a tool to remold people into patriotic socialists. This ideology has driven language policies in North Korea: the *hankul* (vernacular Korean script)-only use policy that banned the use of Chinese characters in writing, linguistic purification, linguistic etiquette, and stylistic planning. By examining various data from North Korea's state-controlled public discourse, including mass media, school textbooks, literature, and magazines, this study suggests that North Korea's language policies have been generally successful, at least in the public discourse. This study also touches on the critical role of political power in the design and implementation of North Korea's language policy, mass media, and pedagogy in terms of appropriating and educating the people in the language policy.

Finally, this study examines linguistic etiquette and stylistic planning as part of corpus planning in North Korea. Discourse analyses on the data in this study demonstrate that one of the major language norms in North Korea is modeling the state leaders' language styles: using special terms that are predefined by political authorities, quoting the leader(s), using political slogans of leaders and the Party, using expressions of reverence for the state leaders, and practicing linguistic dichotomy.

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Exploring Korean International Students' Culture Shock and Adjustments in U.S. Higher and Postsecondary Education

Ji-Hye Lee Goldoust

Despite recent globalization and a growing demand for international students, the number of students from Korea at American universities has actually decreased over the last decade and the dropout rate is significantly higher than that of other ethnic groups. Against this backdrop, this study explores what Korean students experienced while studying in the United States, identifies the sources of their challenges, and investigates the types of support conducive to success in their academic pursuits and social lives. The research questions are outlined below:

- What are the most significant cultural, academic, and personal experiences of Korean international students while attending institutions of higher education in the US?
- What factors could influence the experiences of Korean international students?
- What types of support are helpful in coping with the challenges that Korean international students encounter?

Theoretical Background

This study is grounded in the naturalistic paradigm, which posits reality as holistic and continually changing. In this view, Korean international students' realities, deemed "experiences" in this study, are not identical to one another and vary according on the individual. Their realities, constructed through interactions with other people, change depending on how they interact. A phenomenological approach was used to investigate the personal perspectives and interpretations of Korean students of their experiences. This approach focused on individual experiences in the social and psychological phenomena, seeking to understand them from individual perspectives based on personal knowledge and subjectivity (Lester, 1999; Welman & Kruger, 1999; Groenewald, 2004).[1]

Methodology

To include multiple perspectives, five current students and five former students (graduates) were selected from a total of 30 candidates residing in Monterey, Marina, and Pacific Grove, California and Portland, Beaverton, and Hillsboro, Oregon. Two convenience sampling sources were identified to collect data: 1) the researcher's family, friends, and acquaintances; and 2) Korean churches. To maximize the number of participants, the researcher also utilized snowball sampling through family and friends to reach out to more participants.

Due to the complex realities that international students experience, a qualitative research method was employed. Based on their answers, more in-depth information was obtained with additional questions. Thus, the qualitative research method presented a greater opportunity to collect in-depth and multifaceted information about the Korean international students' experiences.

The protocol consisted of a consent form, a biographical information questionnaire, and an interview questionnaire. For purposeful sampling, the biographical information questionnaire was first distributed to inquire about participants' personal information, including age, gender, level of English proficiency, educational level, academic institution, length of stay in the US, and previous travel or study abroad experience. Along with the biographic information questionnaire, a consent form was sent for the participants to sign. Upon receipt and review of the completed questionnaire and signed consent form, 10 participants were selected to include Korean international students with various backgrounds. To collect data, face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, or written surveys were utilized, depending on the participants' preferences.

Data Processing and Analysis

Once the interviews were completed, the transcripts were systematically analyzed according to the thematic coding approach described by Braun and Clark (2006) and Robson (2011). This approach was particularly useful to investigate the complex and multifaceted aspects of individual experiences and provide a rich description of the data. After the data was collected, the researcher began data analysis with coding, the process of sorting the text into categories of information. In order to answer all of the questions regarding Korean students' common problems, influential factors, current available services, and future sources of support, the researcher followed the six phases of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Robson, 2011): 1) familiarizing with data, 2) generating initial codes, 3) searching for themes, 4) reviewing themes, 5) defining and naming themes, and 6) producing the report. Table 1 shows the final themes created through the thematic analysis procedure.

Table 1
Interview and Literature – Generated Codes and Themes

Culture Shock	Influential Factors	Types of Support
Cultural aspects	Previous	Faculty
Academic aspects	knowledge/experience	Classmates
Personal aspects	Language	Student Services
	Interpersonal relations	Friends
	Cultural adaptation	Roommates
	Motivation	Churches

Findings and Conclusions

This study explored the culture shock that Korean international students have experienced in the US, influential factors affecting their experiences, and the types of support available to them. The research revealed many common elements shared by individual participants about their cross-cultural experiences and culture shock, supported by multiple examples of students' experiences in cultural, academic, and personal aspects.

In addition, it was hypothesized that there would be several common factors affecting Korean international students' experiences of culture shock and adjustment. Based on the literature review, the researcher hypothesized that there would be 11 common factors: 1) general knowledge about American culture; 2) length of time in the US; 3) English proficiency; 4) contact with Americans; 5) friendship networks; 6) previous experiences abroad; 7) cultural distance; 8) cultural identity; 9) acculturation modes; 10) temporary versus permanent residency in the US; and 11) prior cross-cultural training (Zhou et al., 2008, p. 65). Most of the hypothesized common factors among Korean international students were supported by student experiences. Some factors, such as general knowledge, cross-cultural training, previous experiences abroad, contact with Americans, friendship networks, and English proficiency, were consistently revealed as influential factors in the participants' narratives. In the data analysis process, these factors were eventually narrowed down to three factors: 1) previous knowledge and experiences, 2) interpersonal relations, and 3) language. Other factors, including cultural distance, cultural identity, and acculturation modes, were less consistently noted. Instead, a factor related to personal outlook or attitudes toward American culture and society was evident. The factor of temporary versus permanent residence in the US was omitted as this was not significantly observed. However, motivation as a factor noticeably emerged and was added to the list of influential factors.

In addition to culture shock experiences and influential factors, the study also explored types of support available for Korean international students. Individuals or organizations assisted the students in coping with culture shock and adjustment to their new environment. Data revealed some support sources to international students on and off campus.

To increase the ability of the study to be useful for wider generalizations, the researcher recommends that further studies use a mixed method approach and involve a larger sample with more diverse backgrounds and perspectives (e.g., equal gender ratio, more geographical states, students who failed, students who returned to Korea, and American faculty, staff, and students). In addition, a longitudinal study may increase the quality of data and render the study more reliable.

Note

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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Exploring Self-Regulated Learning (SRL) and Listening Strategy Instruction in a Chinese L2 Classroom

Yue Li

Statement of the Problem

Listening strategy instruction does not receive much attention in second language teaching and research as learners are seldom taught how to approach listening or how to manage their listening when attending to aural texts (Field, 1998; Goh, 2008; Mareschal, 2007).[1] In many language classrooms, listening activities tend to focus on the outcome of listening—testing how well the learners listen (Goh, 2008)—without allocating adequate consideration to the processes involved (Mendelsohn, 2006). In addition, listening instruction lacks guidance on how learners can self-direct and evaluate efforts to improve listening. In light of the problems that learners encounter, listening strategies may help them cope with the learning process and enhance proficiency levels (Liu, 2008; Latifi, Tavakoli, & Dabaghi, 2014; Rahimi & Katal, 2012). Thus, self-regulated learning has attracted formidable attention in the field of language teaching and its significance has been recognized (Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2002).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to identify effective listening instructional strategies and activities that promoted self-regulated learning among adult learners of Chinese by exploring students' and instructors' perceptions of the effectiveness of strategy-integrated listening instruction.

Research Questions

1. What are the instructional strategies and activities that promote self-regulated learning in strategy-integrated listening instruction in Chinese as a second language?
2. What are the students' perceptions of the strategy-integrated listening instruction in a Chinese-as-a-second-language classroom?
3. What are the instructor's perceptions of the strategy-integrated listening instruction in a Chinese-as-a-second-language classroom?

Theoretical Framework

This study employed social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) and Zimmerman's (2000) three-phase cyclical model of self-regulated learning (SRL) as the theoretical framework. Social cognitive theory emphasizes social influence on learners' development of self-regulation (Schunk, 1989; Zimmerman, 1989) and views human functioning as a series of reciprocal interactions between behavioral, environmental, and personal variables (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997), which provides the theoretical foundation for Zimmerman's SRL model. Zimmerman's SRL model includes three cyclical processes: forethought, performance, and self-reflection, which depict the interactions of cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational processes of learning (Zimmerman, 2013). Thus, social cognitive theory provided an appropriate framework for this study to examine the effective instructional strategies and activities promoting self-regulated learning in listening instruction of Chinese as a second language. The strategy-integrated listening instructions followed the three phases of Zimmerman's SRL model and involved listening strategies and activities in a Chinese L2 classroom. The listening instruction sequence included pre-listening, during-listening, and post-listening phases, corresponding to Zimmerman's (2000) forethought, performance, and self-reflection phases.

Methodology

An interpretive case study research design was used to investigate the strategy-integrated listening instruction that promoted self-regulated learning. Learners' and the instructor's perceptions of the strategy-integrated listening instruction were explored. This study employed purposeful sampling to select six students from a second semester class in the Chinese basic course at a military language institute and one Chinese instructor who provided listening instructions during the study. This study was conducted in five weeks, collecting three sources of data, which included 25 classroom observations, a face-to-face interview with the instructor, and focus group discussions with the students. The observations, interview, and focus group discussions were tape recorded for verbatim transcription and coding.

Findings

This study found that the strategies and activities employed in listening instructions promoted SRL among adult learners of Chinese as a second language and enhanced their listening abilities. Additionally, listening strategy instruction raised students' awareness of utilizing effective strategies and activities to regulate learning and solve listening problems. The findings showed that learners identified some cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective strategies and activities as effective in promoting SRL. In the forethought phase, strategic planning and knowledge activation greatly assisted learners to prepare for

incoming listening tasks. In the performance phase, metacognitive monitoring and evaluation, cognitive strategies including inferencing and elaboration, and social affective strategies such as collaborative learning and self-encouragement were considered effective in helping learners to solve listening problems. In the self-reflection phase, self-evaluation and self-satisfaction were useful for learners to reflect on their performance and set subsequent learning goals for future listening tasks.

Regarding strategy-integrated listening instruction, all participants mentioned that listening strategy training enhanced listening abilities. After listening strategy training, they had a better understanding of listening tasks, coping with listening problems, and managing self-study skills. Listening strategy training also helped them raise awareness of strategy use and increase confidence during listening. Moreover, they reported that knowing the listening strategies allowed them to overcome nervousness during listening, feel self-motivated in handling different kinds of authentic listening materials, and become more confident in coping with listening difficulties with a variety of strategies.

With respect to the instructor's perceptions of strategy-integrated listening instruction, the findings showed that the instructor supported this initiative and had positive views of this practice. The instructor asserted that students would be able to systematically apply strategies in future listening activities after receiving strategic training. Listening strategy training not only could empower learners to control the learning process as self-regulated listeners in and out of the classroom, but also could encourage teachers to improve teaching quality by using various ways to design instructional materials. Nonetheless, the instructor mentioned the challenges of implementing strategy-integrated listening instruction as some instructors might be reluctant to embrace new approaches or lack the competence of training students to be self-regulated listeners.

Discussion, Implications, and Recommendations

The findings were consistent with previous research which supported the effectiveness of integrating listening strategies into the regular curriculum (Chamot, 2004; Chen, 2010; Goh, 2008; Siegel, 2013). This study indicated that the strategy-integrated listening instruction shifted focus from conventional, outcome-oriented listening instruction onto strategic and process-oriented listening instruction. Integrating strategies into listening instruction allowed learners to control their own learning. Moreover, the findings showed that strategy-integrated listening instruction had benefits of enhancing learners' listening abilities, fostering awareness of listening strategies, and increasing confidence and self-efficacy. Furthermore, the data showed that teachers' and peers' scaffolding and modeling and pair/group work enormously assisted learners to reduce anxieties during listening and increase self-efficacy and sense of control. Nevertheless, implementing strategy-integrated instruction could face pose challenges for classroom instructors, because of paucity of knowledge about

learning strategies or resistance to change. Thus, teacher training and professional development in learning strategies would be the best solutions to the challenges.

This study has provided pedagogical implications for teachers, learners, and curriculum developers. First, implementing strategy-integrated listening instruction requires teachers' reception and adaptation to the pedagogical change. Professional training in SRL and listening strategies are needed to change teachers' mindset and improve teaching quality. Second, as teachers adapt their teaching methods, learners also need to adjust their way of learning. Instead of passively receiving listening input and answering comprehension questions, learners should plan, monitor, evaluate, and reflect on their performance. As one-time strategic training does not help learners achieve the goal of self-regulation, more strategic practice and activities are needed. Lastly, this study signals the urgency of incorporating listening strategies into the regular curriculum that focuses on learners' learning process to foster self-regulated learning. Thus, course developers need to provide step-by-step guidance on the strategy integration in the curriculum.

The recommendations for future research include research design, intervention duration, instrumentation, sampling, and teacher training. Future research may employ a mixed-method study to include both qualitative and quantitative research designs, provide longer time of strategy interventions, conduct pre- and post-tests, use reflective diaries or journals, adopt larger and more diverse learner samples, and explore the impact of teacher training on learning strategic instruction.

Conclusion

Strategy-integrated listening instruction could motivate adult learners of Chinese to become self-regulated listeners. Unlike traditional outcome-based listening instruction, strategy-integrated listening instruction tapped into students' learning process where appropriate cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective strategies were employed, empowering students to self-regulate learning. Furthermore, strategy-integrated listening instruction raised students' awareness of listening strategy use, changed their way of learning, increased their self-confidence and self-efficacy. Finally, theories and practices of integrating learning strategies into the curriculum should be included in teacher training, which may improve the quality of language teaching.

Note

1.   A complete list of references is in the full text of the dissertation.

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The Voices of Parents, Students, and Teachers Regarding Chinese Heritage Schools in Southeast Texas

Dissertation Abstract

Li-Yuan Liao

This dissertation abstract recounts the research results of three studies of the perspectives and experiences of parents, students, and teachers at community-based Chinese Heritage Schools (CHSs) in Southeast Texas.

Statement of the Problem

Ethnic heritage language schools in the U.S. allow immigrant parents to pass down their heritage language (HL), ethnic identity, and cultural knowledge to the next generation (Bradunas & Topping, 1988).[1] CHSs, that teach the Mandarin Chinese and Chinese cultures have existed for about 100 years in the U.S. Due to the influx of immigration and historical and political circumstance, CHSs have been established by two major immigrant groups: Chinese (from mainland China) and Taiwanese (from Taiwan). Chinese-run and Taiwanese-run CHSs have their own target student populations and different phonetic and written systems.

Most Chinese-speaking immigrants believe that keeping the HL alive is critical for future generations. The preservation of their mother tongue is tied to the belief that language solidifies cultural identity, strengthens social connections, and helps children tap into China's rapidly expanding economy (Liao & Larke, 2008). Second-generation immigrant learners who have been raised bilingually have to wrestle with the perennial problem of switching between two languages and two cultures (Liao, Larke, & Hill-Jackson, 2017). Some teachers at CHSs face the challenge of encouraging poorly motivated students to learn Chinese. Scholarly research of CHSs generally focuses on the perspectives of one of the three groups: parents, students, or teachers, and the research is thus segmented. Examining CHS from one perspective without considering the other groups' views is like assembling a jigsaw puzzle with a piece missing. This study provides a comprehensive view on the CHSs in the Southwest U.S. with an all-inclusive perspective from the parents, students, and teachers.

Methodology

The study used a naturalistic qualitative approach. A brief definition of the naturalistic paradigm is postulated by Singh who states "there are multiple interpretations of reality and that the goal of researchers working within this perspective is to understand how individuals construct their own reality within their social context" (2007, p.405). In the present study, parents, students, and teachers had their expectations and perceptions of the CHSs, and there were conflicts among the groups. Implementing a qualitative research method, the researcher captured different voices from parents, students, and teachers to describe the reality of the CHSs within the social and cultural fabric.

Data Analysis

Content analysis is a systematic and meaning-making method that takes the frequency of words from content units (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Stemler, 2001), and then converts them into meaningful outcomes by unitizing and categorizing the data. Data unitizing breaks down sentences "into the smallest pieces of information that may stand alone as independent thoughts" (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993, p. 117).

After each data unit was printed on an index card, the researcher analyzed and sorted the cards. Lincoln and Guba (1985) assert that the "first card represents the first entry in the first yet-to-be-named category" (p. 347). Later on, similar cards match to the first card or to a newly created category. This process continued until the "exhaustion of resource, saturation of categories, emergence of regularities, and overextension" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 350). In the end, various categories were created and meaningful themes emerged, which constituted the essence of this case study.

Research Findings

Voices from Parents

In the first case study (Liao & Larke, 2008), 13 first-generation immigrant parents explained why they sent their child(ren) to CHSs. Parents are the key figures and role models for their children's HL development. In a sociocultural framework, these immigrant parents valued child(ren)'s HL development and the retention of their cultural identity. They also stressed the importance of their child(ren) speaking more than one language fluently. Their aspiration corresponded to parents' perceptions of bilingual education in several quantitative studies of different ethnic groups of Hispanic, Korean, and Vietnamese (Park & Sarkar, 2007; Shin & Gribbons, 1996; Shin & Kim, 1998; Young & Tran, 1999).

Voices from Students

The second case study (Liao, Larke, & Hill-Jackson, 2017) targeted 10 HL learners in a large Texas city. The learner is "raised in a home where a non-English target language is spoken, and who speaks or at least understands the language, and who is to some degree bilingual in that language and in English" (Valdés, 2001, p. 38).

The findings revealed that second-generation Chinese and Taiwanese Americans might at times be confused and struggle with having to live in an American mainstream milieu and their Chinese or Taiwanese homes. Despite the difficulties, HL schools played an important role in bridging the gap between first-generation immigrant parents and their children by transmitting HL, ethnic identity, and cultural knowledge (Bradunas & Topping, 1988; Fishman, 1999). Moreover, the learners clearly valued bilingual abilities and accepted dual cultural identities. They were at ease with both the HL environment and the dominant American culture, and adept at navigating within a pluralistic society as well as the Chinese and Taiwanese communities.

Voices from Teachers

Eleven Chinese teachers from three metropolitan cities in Southeast Texas reflected on their beliefs towards teaching and their teaching experiences. The CHS teachers delivered linguistic knowledge and taught Chinese culture. The teachers' commitment to students promoted students' engagement in sociocultural activities. Several teachers drew attention to embedding pedagogy in a cultural context that parallels Alexander's study of culture and pedagogy (2000). Alexander argues that the notion of teaching should not be limited to curriculum, assessment, and class management to meet legal requirements for curriculum, assessment, and examination.

Conclusion

This study intends to let parents', students', and teachers' voices be heard. This objective corresponds to Rudduck's conviction that capturing succinct and vivid direct feedback from the stakeholders is a powerful tool (1993). Highlighting various aspects of Chinese heritage language education at the CHSs in Southeast Texas, this study revealed that (1) the Chinese language is a communication tool for HL learners to maximize their mobility within the Chinese-speaking communities; (2) knowledge of the Chinese language may give learners a competitive advantage in the job market; (3) being bilingual and multilingual is mandatory for HL language learners; (4) the historical role and identity of the CHS ensure that second-generation immigrants maintain their cultural continuity and heritage language; and, (5) parental involvement and Chinese teachers' quality are important in preserving the learner's HL and ethnic identity.

Note

1. All references may be found in the full text of the dissertation.

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The Efficacy of a Multisensory Language Arts Program for Teaching First Grade Children Basic Reading Skills

Su Chun Liu

Background

In order to accurately measure reading proficiency in different states, Common Core Standards for reading literacy were developed for each grade level. Following these guidelines, many states have adopted state-mandated reading programs designed to elevate reading literacy/reading-proficiency rates. However, the *What Works Clearinghouse* (WWC) (2012)[1] reported that after expending billions of dollars and 30 years of effort, many programs failed. In several states, including California, mandated early reading programs and interventions have produced mediocre results. The success of early reading programs has yet to be demonstrated.

The Zoo-Phonics multisensory program is based on neuro-biological and other scientific research. Empirical data and evidence from the field suggested that the essential components of Zoo-Phonics could improve outcomes across all early reading domains and in all demographic groups (Wrighton, 2010). The program was built upon nine integrated, alphabetic concepts (the *Essences*) that distinguished it from other phonic programs (Zoo-Phonics, 2007). The purpose of this study was to investigate the efficacy of the Zoo-Phonics Multisensory Language Arts Program for teaching basic reading skills to first grade students in authentic settings.

Methodology

A retrospective cohort study was conducted using data collected from an elementary school in California and one in Michigan during the 2013-2014 school year. First-grade students ($N=51$) were assessed using the *Zoo-Phonics Beginning Reading Assessment, Version 2 (Z-BRA2)* to measure the final reading achievement and the growth between separate periods: Targeted Reading Intervention (TRI) 1 during the first three months of the semester and TRI 3 at the end of the semester. The Z-BRA2 contains 24 items and aligns with the four early reading domains defined by the *What Works Clearinghouse:* Alphabetics, Fluency, Comprehension, and General Reading Achievement. Additional demographic information, including schools, gender, and socioeconomic status

(SES) was obtained to evaluate the relationship between Targeted Reading Intervention (TRI) 1 demographic factors and reading composite scores.

Research Questions

RQ1: Will students demonstrate mastery of Alphabetics after completing the Zoo-Phonics first-grade program?

RQ2: Will students show significant gains in fluency and comprehension as measured by the Z-BRA2 after completing the Zoo-Phonics first-grade program?

RQ3: Which demographic factors significantly influence first-grade students' reading proficiency level?

Data Analysis and Results

For RQ1, based on the means of the Alphabetics category in (TRI 3), the first-grade students demonstrated mastery after completing the Zoo-phonics program, with the schools reaching 99.93% and 100% proficiency rates, respectively. However, it is worth mentioning that the first graders' scores in the same category were close to the top range even in (TRI) 1. The proficiency rate of one school (School A) improved from 99.38% in (TRI)1 to 100% in (TRI) 3, whereas the other (School B) increased from 94.64% to 99.93%. School A used the Zoo-Phonics in kindergarten, and School B did not. This may have given School A an advantage in performance not only in Alphabetics but in other reading categories as well.

In addition to the mastery of Alphabetics, data also showed that first graders did well in the other categories after completing the Zoo-Phonics program: Phonics 99.7%, Reading Fluency 99.29%, Reading Comprehension (75.67%), General Reading Achievement (97.91%), Handwriting (99.94%), Spelling (98.51%), and Written Language (99%). Among them, Reading Comprehension had the greatest increase, from 45.83% to 75.67%.

For RQ2, a paired-samples t-test was conducted to investigate whether first graders achieved significant gains in Fluency and Comprehension after completing the Zoo-Phonics program. By the end of the school year, first graders showed statistically significant growth in both Fluency and Comprehension categories with medium ($d = 0.76$) and large ($d = 1.68$) effect sizes, respectively, indicating a moderate and a large gain in Fluency and Comprehension from (TRI) 1 to (TRI) 3.

First graders showed statistically significant growth in other composite categories. Except for Alphabetics, which had a small effect size ($d = 0.40$), all other areas had a medium or large effect size, which means that the growth in the other categories was from moderate to large: Phonics ($d = 0.59$), General Reading Achievement ($d = 1.32$), Handwriting ($d = 0.80$), Spelling ($d = 1.35$), and Written Language ($d = 1.35$).

For RQ3, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between three demographic factors and the composite scores in each category. The result showed that there was no strong relationship between schools and the composite scores in Alphabetics, Phonics, Reading Fluency, Reading Comprehension, General Reading Achievement, and Handwriting. However, there was a strong relationship between school and composite scores in Spelling and Written Language. Even though there was no strong relationship in most categories, School A outperformed School B in most categories. This may have been because School A had more exposure to the Zoo-Phonics curriculum and the teacher had more experience teaching Zoo-Phonics. With respect to the relationship between gender and reading composite scores, no strong relationship was found between male and female students' overall performance. However, it is worth mentioning that females tended to outperform males in reading categories such as Alphabetics, Phonics, and Reading Fluency, whereas males did better in Reading Comprehension in both early and late periods. With regard to Socioeconomic Status (SES), high SES students outperformed low SESs in more categories, but there was no strong relationship between SES and the composite scores in all categories. In other words, Zoo-Phonics was effective regardless of school, gender, or SES.

Conclusion

The multisensory language arts program was effective in helping first-grade students master reading skills in all composite categories. They showed statistically significant growth in Reading Fluency and Reading Comprehension, as well as in several other categories. No demographic factors collected from this study indicated any significant influence on reading proficiency level.

Note

1. All references can be found in the full text of the dissertation.

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A Correlation Study of Perceived Servant Leadership Practices and Job Satisfaction among Teachers in a Military Foreign Language Center

Dissertation Abstract

Saliha Murtic

Statement of the Research Problem

Supervisors and leaders play an important role and can greatly contribute to the motivation levels and job satisfaction of their employees (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Jordan, 2015; McCarthy, Chen, & Smyth, 2012; McKenzie, 2012).[1] However, results of the 2013 and 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Surveys (FEVS) detected a significant drop in overall satisfaction levels of federal employees with respect to their jobs and leadership. Additionally, results of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) Employee Climate Surveys from 2013 and 2015 detected that leadership, recognition, and the Faculty Pay System (FPS) were the least favorably evaluated areas. Although leadership might be just one ingredient in an organization's success, leaders play an important role and are responsible for change (Ackerman-Anderson & Anderson, 2010).

Selfless service, which implies putting the welfare of the nation, the Army, and subordinates before one's own, is one of the seven United States (U.S.) Army values. In recent years, servant leadership—as a leadership model—has been promoted and highly encouraged at the DLIFLC in an effort to support enhanced working conditions and cultivate best practices in leadership. Supervisors' standards, in specific department chairs' and deans', were revised in 2014 and, according to the new standards, supervisors are required to create a positive and collegial atmosphere based on servant leadership principles. Numerous studies have shown that supervisors' servant leadership practices have a positive impact on their followers' job satisfaction (Eliff, 2014; English, 2011; Jordan, 2014; McKenzie, 2012; McManmon, 2016). At stake in the present study is the need to know whether teachers who work for supervisors that practice servant leadership have higher levels of job satisfaction.

Servant leadership is not just a leadership style, but rather a way of life and thinking in which leaders see themselves as part of a team, balancing organizational goals with their employees' needs (Laub, 1999). Servant leadership might be a model that enables teachers to have higher levels of job satisfaction and perform at their best. Such a potential outcome, consequently, would lead to

better success for the whole organization. In this respect, the variable of the perception of servant-leadership practice should correlate with the variable of employee job satisfaction.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this correlational study was to determine the relationship between the level of servant-leadership practices of department chairs perceived by their foreign language teachers and the level of those teachers' job satisfaction within the DLIFLC. Hence, the study examined (1) the level of servant leadership of department chairs as rated by their foreign-language teaching supervisees, (2) the level of foreign language teachers' job satisfaction as rated by those same teachers, and (3) whether a correlation exists between the servant-leadership ratings of department chairs by foreign language teachers and the level of job satisfaction of those same teachers.

Research Questions

The following research questions were examined during this study:

1. How do foreign language teachers rate the servant-leadership style of their department chairs, measured by the Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) created by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006)?
2. How do foreign language teachers rate their own job satisfaction measured by the Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ) created by Lester (1987)?
3. What degree of correlation, if any, exists between the levels of department chairs' servant-leadership style as assessed by foreign language teachers and the degree of job satisfaction reported by those same teachers?

Methodology

The study employed a quantitative method using descriptive and inferential statistical tests to answer the research questions. The sample population included 165 foreign language classroom teachers within the undergraduate basic language training at the DLIFLC. The data were collected through the Servant Leadership Questionnaire and the Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. The bivariate correlations, using a two-tailed Pearson test of correlation coefficients, were computed to assess the degree of relationship.

Findings

Although all aspects of servant leadership are important to teacher job satisfaction, the degree to which department chairs practice servant leadership

skills does not relate identically to all factors of teacher job satisfaction. Teachers demonstrated that the most satisfying factor was the opportunity to be accountable for their own work and the opportunity to take part in policy and decision-making activities.

Conclusions

The results of the study demonstrate the benefits of applying the servant leadership model to teachers' job satisfaction. Teachers need first to experience the feeling of being satisfied with their jobs in order to fully contribute to the overall well-being of the DLIFLC. Building a strong culture and practice of servant leadership at all levels would help the Institute to prosper.

Recommendations

Provide continuing professional growth opportunities in the area of servant leadership with a focus on active listening, reflection, and empathy. Conduct a study that compares servant leadership with other leadership styles to determine which leadership style teachers respond to with a higher degree of satisfaction. Some future studies should look at leadership correlated to teacher productivity and/or student results.

Note

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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John Dewey's Cultural Naturalism: Culture in Terms of Language, Experience, and Continuity

Dissertation Abstract

Marina L. Ozernov

Current Deweyan scholarship offers valuable insights on different aspects of his work, such as his linguistic and logical studies, political theory, educational theory, and ethics. At the same time there seems to be little analysis of his philosophy in terms of a consistent theory of culture, which would explore the various aspects of culture in their relationships within an integrative cultural whole.

This dissertation explores John Dewey's philosophy of culture in terms of history of ideas and cultural anthropology. It argues that Dewey developed his cultural naturalism as a comprehensive theory of culture, rejecting the modern dualism of "nature" vs. "culture" and embracing an evolutionary model of culture as continuous with nature. Religion, science, language, democracy, and education are discussed in the context of their relationships with each other in the process of cultural evolution. I argue that, for Dewey, culture was the highest stage of natural evolution, constantly evolving through the changing relationships of its components, religion and science the most profound among them.

Some of what is presented here has less to do with Dewey and more to do with the notion of culture as it is explored by cultural anthropology. This is not an intentional expansion of the subject matter but a necessary part of my argument: the definition of culture is not self-explanatory.

This dissertation reveals Dewey's continuous concern with providing a way of integrating a pragmatist scientific method with religious experience. Dewey retained his perception of science as a dynamic and ever-changing enterprise, represented by its method. His treatment of religion, on the other hand, evolved from the emphasis on the "obligation to *knowledge of God* "[1] at the beginning to the focus on *religious experience* consistent with *agnosticism* by the mature years of his career. The interplay between religion, science, and language as a medium of their interaction is explored in the context of psychology, cultural anthropology, education, and social debate and also through the relationships of Dewey's thought with the ideas of others, both pragmatist and nonpragmatist.

Current Deweyan scholarship offers valuable insights on different aspects of his work, such as his metaphysics and logical studies, political theory,

educational theory, philosophy of art and science, religion and ethics. At the same time there seems to be little analysis of his philosophy in terms of a consistent theory of culture, which would explore the mentioned aspects of culture in their relationships within an integrative cultural whole.

This dissertation argues that Dewey developed his cultural naturalism as a comprehensive theory of culture. I demonstrate that Dewey rejected the modern dualism of "nature" vs. "culture," embracing an evolutionary model of culture as continuous with nature. Religion, science, language, democracy, and education are discussed in the context of their relationships with each other in the process of cultural evolution. I argue that culture for Dewey was the highest stage of natural evolution, constantly evolving through the changing relationships of its components, religion and science the most profound among them.

This dissertation reveals Dewey's continuous concern with providing a way of integrating a pragmatist scientific method with religious experience. Dewey retained his perception of science as a dynamic ever-changing enterprise represented by its method. His treatment of religion, on the other hand, evolved from an emphasis on the *obligation* to *knowledge* of *God* at the beginning to a focus on *religious experience* consistent with *agnosticism* by the mature years of his career. The interplay between religion and science and language as a medium of their interaction is explored in the context of psychology, cultural anthropology, education, and social debate and also through the relationships of Dewey's thought with other thinkers' ideas, both pragmatist and nonpragmatist.

My argument consists of three major parts: The first part, including Chapters 1 through 3, focuses on Dewey's notion of cultural naturalism. The second part, Chapters 4 through 6, explores the relationship between religion and science and their functioning within the cultural whole in terms of continuity—the basic principle of cultural naturalism. The third and last part, Chapters 7 and 8, examines the ways in which Dewey's cultural naturalism is situated within the American intellectual tradition.

Chapter 1 discusses the relationship between the fragmentation and dualisms of modern culture on one hand and formulations of ontological and epistemological questions on the other. Chapters 2 and 3 explore Dewey's cultural naturalism in terms of continuity and interaction. Dewey offered the notion of "situation" as a solution for metaphysical dualisms. He solved the dualisms of body vs. mind, individual vs. social, or material vs. ideal by replacing them with functional continuity between ends and means. The "situation" considered in dynamic terms sets into movement the process of coordinating the organic whole toward equilibrium by translating and organizing ends into means.

The second part of my argument focuses on Dewey's discussion of the relationships among different cultural realms, science and religion in particular, in terms of his cultural naturalism. I argue that, for Dewey, cultural evolution manifests itself through the dynamic interaction between scientific method and religious experience. He suggested a reconceptualization of the meaning of

religious experience in naturalistic terms compatible with contemporaneous "technological civilization." He saw capitalist industrialization as an inevitable and positive development because it created a need and conditions for greater connectedness and interdependence among people. In his view, such development accelerated the evolution of humanity in its natural direction. Disrespect for science and disbelief in human rational abilities brings about the only possible alternative, which is uncritical submission to the authority of tradition or a person.

The last part of my dissertation traces the continuity in the cultural concerns of William James and John Dewey through G. Stanley Hall, who was James's first graduate student at Harvard and eventually became Dewey's professor at Johns Hopkins. Some aspects of Hall's development are especially important in putting Dewey's philosophy of culture into the ideological context of the period. I also explore their organicist approach to culture and educational methods as ways of including a person in cultural processes.

I see in Dewey's cultural naturalism a constructive cultural potential. It shows a way for a democratic criticism to stimulate cultural evolution from the position of a participant in that culture's practices. Philosophy of language here has the responsibility of the Deweyan liaison officer "making reciprocally intelligible voices speaking provincial tongues" and thereby enhancing the meanings conveyed. Such an approach is strictly opposed to the polemical context of the culture wars.

Note

1. Refer to the dissertation for sources of citation and a complete list of references.

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Exploring Learner and Teacher Perceptions about Learner Centeredness

Dissertation Abstract

Surinder Rana

A phenomenological inquiry explored learner and teacher perceptions about the concept of learner-centeredness at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC). The research involved key stakeholders in data collection. The data were collected in real-time situations, in which participants responded to questions about what impacted them in daily professional and academic routine. The study involved a sample of 20 learners and 10 teachers from various schools at the DLIFLC. Through an extensive interview process, the researcher collected data and analyzed it for trends—similarities and differences between the two groups' perceptions. The researcher used Moustakas's three-step process for data analysis that included epoch building, phenomenological reduction, and integration of the composite textual and structural descriptions.

Review of Literature

Learner-centeredness is a perspective that couples a focus on individual learners—their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs—with a focus on learning—the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs. It is also concerned with teaching practices most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning, and achievement for all learners (Zins, 2004).[1]

Two competing paradigms—learner-centered and teacher-centered instruction—were analyzed. In the instructional paradigm, time (the 50-minute class) is constant but learning (i.e., how much each student learns) varies. In the learner-centered paradigm, learning becomes the constant and time becomes the variable. Rather than focusing on the delivery of information, i.e., how many minutes an instructor devotes to transmitting knowledge on a particular subject with the assumption that all individuals assimilate at a constant rate, the focus is instead on the individual learner, assessing when the learner has actually achieved specified learning outcomes regardless of the time it takes. (Tagg, 2003).

Tudor (1999) argues that learner-centeredness should be seen in a broad set of beliefs and perspectives shared by language professionals over a long period of time. This study analyzed the following perspectives:

- *Humanistic Language Teaching* (Rogers & Maslow, 2008), which forms an eclectic grouping of ideas developed in the fields of general education and psychology;
- *Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (*Richards & Rodgers, 2000);
- *Individualized Teaching Approach* (Altman & James, 1980), which means that the structure of the program—the presentation and composition of content, the roles of teacher and learner, and system of evaluation—is allowed to be flexible in an effort to accommodate, to the extent possible, individual learners' interests, needs and abilities;
- *Learner Autonomy* (Holec, 1983), which holds that an autonomous learner can independently choose aims and purposes and set goals; choose materials, methods, and tasks; exercise choice and purpose in organizing and carrying out the chosen tasks; and choose criteria for evaluation; and
- *Learner-centered Curriculum* (Nunan, 1988), which proposes the idea that a curriculum should take learners as the reference point.

Statement of the Problem

The main research question guiding the present study was, "How do learners and teachers perceive learner-centeredness?" The subsidiary questions were:

1. What are the similarities in the perceptions of the two groups?
2. What are the differences in the perceptions of the two groups?
3. Do the perceptions vary according to the demographic characteristics of the respondents?
4. How do the differences in perception manifest themselves in the classroom?
5. Do learners think learner-centeredness is helpful to their learning, e.g., do they feel empowered to influence teaching content, classroom processes, and learner assessment? If so, why? If not, why not?
6. Do teachers feel they have the support of school management to practice learner-centeredness?

Methodology

Data was collected through face-to-face interviews. To avoid disruption in teaching, each participating teacher was interviewed during non-teaching hours. Similarly, student interviews were conducted in after-class hours or on training holidays. The interview was at the location of participants' preferences. Each semi-structured interview lasted 45–50 minutes and included a questionnaire and open-ended questions. Before the interviews, the researcher did a pilot test of the interview questions and protocols with two deans/associate deans not included in the study. The interviews were audio-taped and the researcher followed a

pre-determined protocol for asking questions and recording responses. To validate the interview data the researcher asked participants to verify data correctness and interpretation.

The researcher analyzed the data and synthesized trends—similarities and differences in the perceptions of the two groups. The method provided indirect information about learner-centeredness, filtered through the perceptions of the subjects. This method allowed the researcher control of the line of questioning. The main challenges encountered by the researcher were: 1) the presence of his own perceptions and biases about learner-centeredness that might impact data collection and analysis; and 2) not all people are equally articulate and perceptive. As a result, some interviews yielded denser information than others.

Summary of Main Findings

Learners as well as teachers perceived that a learner-centered approach to teaching is more helpful than a traditional teacher-centered approach. Almost all participants demonstrated a good understanding of the learner-centered phenomenon, albeit in a narrow view—mainly from the perspective of instructional methodology. Whereas most learners strongly preferred the teacher playing the role of a facilitator, some expressed apprehension about the loss of control in a classroom if the teacher's role was reduced. Learners' views on teachers practicing learner-centered teaching varied from one school to another.

Almost all learners viewed the teacher as the most significant resource in the classroom and expected the teacher to be an expert in the subject matter, a good communicator, an empathetic guide and counselor, and a problem solver. Teachers also recognized that to be successful they needed to develop and hone these capabilities.

As for involving learners in deciding teaching content, methods, and assessment, perceptions differed between teachers and learners. Many teachers perceived a definite need for empowering learners when tailoring teaching content to learning needs. Learners, however, were uncertain if and to what extent their involvement would be feasible. Almost all teachers and learners agreed that assessment was a good learning tool but disagreed on whether to involve learners in the assessment process.

Mobile devices and technology played a significant role in language learning. Some learners noticed that teachers' age, technology orientation, and education might affect the ability to use technology in the classroom. Most teachers felt that these factors played a role, but technology-savvy teachers helped other team members handle classroom technology.

Participants perceived learner autonomy as a process of empowering learners to take control of learning, which was helpful in the language classroom to meet the challenge that students would reach the proficiency goals of 2+/ 2+ on the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale, measured by the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT). Some learners and teachers were concerned

whether some learners would be able to take the responsibilities that accrue with more autonomy in the learning process.

Almost all teachers felt that they had full support of the school management to practice learner-centeredness. Some also observed that they had to balance the demands of meeting learner needs and meeting management's mandate to cover the syllabus content in a given time limit with specific teaching approaches.

Note

1. A complete list of references is in the dissertation.

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Retaining United States Department of Defense Civilian Employees Through Disciplined Servant Leadership

Dissertation Abstract

Mohammed Slassi

Background

The comparative case studies explored the applicability of servant leadership within the U.S. military and how this leadership style contributed to the retention and commitment of civil service employees. The research took place at the United States Air Force Special Operations School (USAFSOS) in Hurlburt Field, Florida and the Combined Arms Training Center (CATC) in Grafenwohr, Germany.

Retaining civilian employees and enhancing their commitment are priorities in the military, and in military higher education in particular. The current study attempted to explore and explain the linkage between retention/commitment and servant leadership. Through two case studies, the researcher investigated the applicability of servant leadership within the military and explained how military leaders' servant leadership affected the retention and commitment of civilian employees. The case studies focused on faculty and staff working in both locations, allowing a cross examination of the servant leadership model within two branches of the military (Army and Air Force). The comparative model overcame the uniqueness of a military branch (Army vs Air Force), allowing replicability and transferability and giving more substance to the studies.

Whereas there is a verified cause-effect linkage between servant leadership and organizational effectiveness, exploring the applicability of the linkage within a military environment warrants further study, especially in terms of retention and commitment (Northouse, 2015; Shaw & Newton, 2014).[1] The central question guiding this research is: Is servant leadership responsible for the high retention of civilian employees of the U.S. Department of Defense?

Statement of the Problem

With rising turnover rates in other industries and the issue of employee commitment, servant leadership has been mentioned as a style that fosters employees' retention and devotion to an organization (Northouse, 2015). Military leaders have publicly spoken about servant leadership, but research has not made enough strides in divulging its applicability. In fact, many researchers, when

conducting leadership development studies within the military context, paid more attention to learning theories than leadership theories (Reynolds, 2012). The focus on the learner left a major gap in explaining retention and commitment of the workforce and, in particular, the civilians in military educational institutions.

This study focused on the servant leadership theory and its impact on the retention and commitment of civilians affiliated to military education. This study discussed the concept of servant leadership in a contextualized environment—the military. The three seminal leadership theories—the transactional, the transformational, and servant—were reviewed, premises of the theories were contrasted, and unanswered questions were revealed and explored.

Methods

Research Design

Comparative case studies design is an adequate platform in an educational setting (Yin, 2013), as it allows for observation by the researcher, and its comparative aspect allows for transferability and replicability. The comparative model also enhances reliability and validity (Black, 2010).

Population

Metscher, Lowe, Barnes, and Lai (2011) investigated the relationship of servant leadership to retention and commitment of civilian and active duty personnel in the United States Air Force (USAF), verifying the applicability of servant leadership theory in a well-defined and narrow context—the USAF. The merging of civilian and active duty personnel resulted in many confounding variables. Moreover, grouping students, staff, and faculty as one consistent corps with similar traits raised another area of concern. In contrast to Metscher et al.'s study, which classified civilian and military as one homogeneous group, this study focused on civilian employees—faculty and staff in teaching or administrative positions. To appreciate a leader's perspective of employee retention and commitment, the researcher also interviewed two military commanders.

Materials/Instruments

Interviews with two military commanders (leaders) and surveys and interviews of the civilian faculty (followers) were the main data collection tools. In the initial phase, two sets of questionnaires were administered electronically to faculty and staff at USAFSOS and CATC. The first questionnaire, Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument (SLAI), was developed by Dennis (2004) based on principles clustered by Patterson (2003). It consists of 42 questions in a 1-6 Likert scale format. SLAI assessed the faculty and staff perceptions of their leaders' servant leadership behaviors. The second questionnaire, assessing the participants' commitment to their organizations, was the Organizational

Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), which comprised 15 questions, an instrument created by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). These two instruments are validated and have high test-retest reliability and internal consistency (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Howell, 2013; Metscher et al., 2011).

The second phase, targeting the retention of faculty and staff, was conducted via phone interviews that had two survey questions about the participant's intent to remain in military education and in the same organization. Interviews are efficient tools for explaining phenomena beyond computation (Shank, 2002; Tashakkorri &Teddlie, 2010; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011). Such interviews are useful for revealing nuances of particular behaviors.

The third phase consisted of interviews with the commanders of the establishments. USAFSOS is an Air Force institute of higher education, the mission of which is to "deliver responsive and relevant education, to enable Air Command excellence in complex and ambiguous operational environments worldwide." (USAFSOS, 2016, p.1). According to a former USAFSOS Commandant, the leadership style adopted at the institution adhered to the servant leadership paradigm and all the managers, both civil servants and active duty officers, had to read Greenleaf's (2002) book and apply the tenants of servant leadership. The commander credited servant leadership for a high rate of retention of civilian faculty and a high degree of commitment on their part. Likewise, the CATC's former chief claimed that the CATC, adopting a servant leadership model, had a higher retention rate of civilian employees than did his previous workplace, the Kentucky school where he had been a principal.

Findings

The hypothesis was that servant leadership in the military positively affects civil servants' retention and commitment. Interviews revealed that the commanders believed in the servant leadership theory and its ten principles. The findings from both study sites showed that the employees perceived leaders' servant leadership behaviors positively. Furthermore, the results indicated a high rate of retention and a strong commitment by the employees towards their respective organizations. Previous studies revealed that servant leadership supported a high rate of commitment and retention of Department of Defense employees, but those studies merged military and civilian personnel. This research targeted civilian employees and complemented the findings of previous studies.

This research was not meant to establish cause and effect relationships, but to explain such relationships by bringing in the perspectives of both the leaders and the followers. Participants' responses further confirmed the servant leadership model, providing tangible evidence to leaders that the servant leadership style may benefit organizational effectiveness.

This study targeted a small sample of two military institutions of higher education. For broader transferability and replicability, more studies and larger samples are needed to include diverse populations and other branches of the

military. The study, conducted in the military context, may be replicated in other military educational institutions and other branches of the military (such as the Marine Corps and the U.S. Navy), therefore giving decision-makers and commanders a tool to increase organizational effectiveness and citizenship (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010).

Note

1.   A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.

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The Interrogative Clause Typing and the Syntax of Chinese Questions

Juan Villaflor

Purpose and Significance of the Study

The study of interrogative constructions has played an essential role in formulating modern syntactic theory. In fact, characterizing the syntactic derivation of wh-questions has been at the heart of work in Generative Grammar since 1980s. In some languages such as English, wh-questions are derived through the movement of wh-phrases from one syntactic position to another, and they are known as wh-movement languages; whereas in some languages such as Chinese, it is apparent that wh-phrases do not go through overt movement, and thus they are called wh-in-situ languages. Numerous theories attempted to capture the constraints of wh-movement and account for the differences between wh-movement and wh-in-situ languages, among which the most influential one is the Clausal Typing Hypothesis (CTH) (Cheng, 1992).[1] The CTH stated that wh-movement is just one way to type a wh-question; the employment of question particles is another way for wh-in-situ languages to mark the question type.

Previous research on interrogative sentences mainly focused on the syntactic studies of wh-questions, with little attention to other question types such as the yes-no and the disjunctive. Additionally, Chinese linguistic studies centered on depicting the semantic meanings and pragmatic usages of different Chinese questions but rarely addressed the syntactic derivations of different questions. This study agreed with the CTH that every clause needs to be typed. As different question forms all express the interrogative force, the interrogative force needs to be typed cross-linguistically. Therefore, through studying different question types, it intended to establish the Interrogative Clause Typing (ICT), a universal clause typing model for all interrogatives rather than only wh-questions. The ICT laid a foundation for further analysis of Chinese questions, including the classification of Chinese questions and the syntactic derivation of some Chinese question forms. This study aimed to extend the current research on interrogatives and fill the gap in the syntactic studies of Chinese questions.

This study addressed the following research questions:
1. What is the typological universal for the ICT?
2. How can different Chinese question forms be classified under the ICT?
3. How can some Chinese questions be derived under the ICT?

Theoretical Framework

The syntactic derivation of the Chinese questions was studied within the framework of Chomsky's Minimalist Program (MP) (Chomsky, 1995). As the latest development of Generative Grammar, the MP pursued methodological minimalism in developing linguistic theory. According to the MP, the language faculty involves a computational system that feeds into the two components: the articulatory-perceptual system (A-P system) and the conceptual-intentional system (C-I system). The sentence structures are derived in the following way: the computational system takes a single array of lexical items as its input and then interacts with the A-P system and the C-I system through two distinct interface levels: Phonetic Form (PF) and Logical Form (LF). The two interface representations are different, and the point in the derivation where the computation splits is called the Spell-Out. This process is adumbrated in the following diagram:
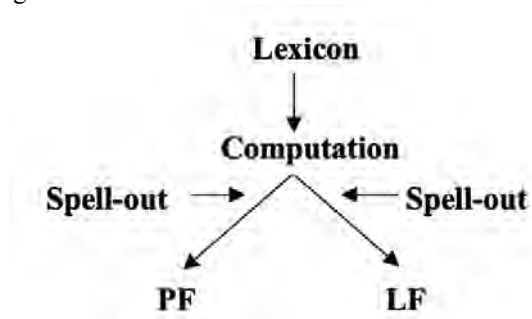
During this process, two major grammatical operations (Merge and Movement), used to generate structure are seen as feature checking. The input lexical items are called Categories with features (interpretable or uninterpretable) such as the Case and the Theta-role that have to be checked before moving to the two interface levels. Checking is satisfied when a category needing a feature is in construction with some other elements that can supply that feature in the sentence. Merge or Movement operations are only licensed if they allow feature checking to occur.

Conclusions

This study reached the following conclusions:

ICT was established through cross-linguistic comparisons. It postulated that languages mark different question types at three levels: the syntactic, phonetic, and lexical. The syntactic typing is achieved by juggling of two syntactic positions, C (Complementizer) and I (Inflection),[2] and three grammatical operations, namely, addition, duplication and movement. Specifically, it includes Addition to C, Addition to I, Duplication in I, and Movement to C. The syntactic typing needs to

follow the Incompatibility Principle, which stipulates that it can only be done once. The lexical typing is realized in the Lexicon, and thus is prioritized before the phonetic typing and syntactic typing. When it comes to the syntactic computation, some languages are sensitive to lexical typing, whereas some are not. For insensitive languages, both lexical typing and syntactic typing are used, as can be seen in English wh-questions where wh-phrases and wh-movement to C are used. The phonetic typing is complementary to the lexical and syntactic typing and can be used simultaneously with the latter. For example, Chinese yes-no questions employ both the raising intonation and the addition of the sentence-final particle *Ma* to mark its question type.

The classification of Chinese questions has long been a controversial issue. Based on the ICT, Chinese interrogative constructions may be regrouped as phonetic interrogatives, syntactic interrogatives, and lexical interrogatives depending on how the question types were marked. The syntactic interrogatives can be further classified into I-typing interrogatives, which includes the X-neg-X and KVP questions, C-typing interrogatives, which are manifested as the particle and VP-neg questions, and the lexical interrogatives, which feature the disjunctive and constituent questions.[3]

The formation of the particle question involves the rightward movement of the sentence-final particle *Ma*. According to the Split CP Hypothesis (Rizzi, 1997),[4] *Ma* projects into the functional head, the Force (F) position of the Force Phrase (ForceP) within the CP domain. Although the head *Ma* appears at the end of the question on the surface structure, in fact, it is generated at the beginning of the sentence in the deep structure. The complement IP of the head *Ma* does not undergo movement to generate the particle question because there are problems with the motivations of the movement and, more importantly, there is no IP movement universal to languages. The particle question is derived because the head *Ma* moves rightward within the CP domain to satisfy its requirement for cliticization.

The "X-neg-X" pattern in the X-neg-X question is generated within the I domain under the head, Question (Q), whose position is higher than the head projection of the auxiliary verb and the focus marker. The question morpheme Q has an inherent uninterpretable [+q] feature, which requires the "X-neg-X" pattern with the same feature to move to this position for feature checking. "X-neg-X" pattern does not need to move forward to the C position in LF to acquire its question scope.

The Chinese disjunctive question was the uncharted territory in Chinese syntactic studies. The typical disjunctive marker *Haishi* (meaning "or"), in the disjunctive question, not only connects two or more parallel syntactic constructions, but also indicates the interrogative force. Therefore, the disjunctive word *Haishi* carries both the Conjunction and Question features, which may be tagged as [+conj, +q]. In the syntactic computation process, the [+q] feature of *Haishi* moves to the C position in the CP domain after spell-out to satisfy its feature checking requirements, thus marking the syntactic typing of Chinese disjunctive question.

Notes

1. A complete list of references can be found in the dissertation.
2. In the context of Generative Grammar, every clause consists of three layers: the Complementizer Phrase (CP), the Inflection Phrase (IP), and the Verb Phrase (VP). C and I are regarded as the head of the CP layer and the IP layer.
3. Like other languages, Chinese has various types of interrogative sentences, including yes-no questions, alternative questions, and wh-questions as shown in the following:
    (1) ni renshi ta ma?
        you know him Q?
        (*Do you know him?*)
    (2) ni xihuan chang'ge haishi tiaowu?
         you like sing or dance?
        (*Do you like singing or dancing?*)
    (3) ni maile shenme?
        you buy what?
        (*What did you buy?*)
    These question types are also known as the particle question, the disjunctive question, and the constituent question. In addition to these question types, researchers have generally recognized the following special question forms.
    (4) ni qu bu qu?
        you go not/no go?
        (*Do you go or not?*)
    (5) ni ke qu?
        you can go?
        (*Can you go?*)
    (6) ni qu bu?
         you go not/no?
        (*Do you go (or not)?*)
    In Example 4, the question is formed by duplicating the verb "qu" (*go*) and inserting a negative word in-between; in Example 5, the auxiliary verb "ke" (*can*) is added to form a yes-no question; and in Example 6, the negative word "bu" (*no/not*) is added at the end of the sentence to indicate the questioning function. Based on their formal features, these questions are respectively termed as X-neg-X question, KVP question, and VP-neg question. Researchers have not reached consensus about the grouping of these questions.
4. Rizzi (1997) argues that the complementizer system is the interface between a propositional content and the superordinate structure, and thus the CP contains elements that look outside, which he called Force, and those that look inside, which he referred to as Finite. Additionally, the CP accommodates Topic and Focus. His viewpoint is known as the Split CP Hypothesis.

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Faculty Who Speak with Foreign Accents:
Experiences and Responses

Dissertation Abstract

Julia Voight

Foreign-born instructors in the United States experience various challenges on campus including, but not limited to, complicated relationships with students, feelings of loneliness and seclusion, culture shock, legal issues related to the process of immigration, and English language difficulties. The last, according to Marvasti (2005), [1] remains the most persistent perception of foreign professors; that is to say, their linguistic problems cause ineffective instruction. Accent and pronunciation play crucial roles in students' attitudes and perceptions of faculty and may affect educational outcomes. A nonnative accent immediately identifies a person as a member of an outgroup and may lead to attitude readjustment (Dovidio & Gluszek, 2012). A non-standard accent might establish a bias, and the listeners may believe the speaker's status, intelligence, and competence to be suspect. Lippi-Green (1997) reported that teachers with nonnative accents were perceived as less qualified and less effective than teachers who were native speakers of English. At the same time, Spitzer (2012) claims that many nonnative speakers do not initially recognize their accent as a barrier to effective communication. "If and/or when they do, there are few places they can go for help" (Spitzer, 2012, para 6). As educational institutions continue to hire foreign-born scholars in large numbers, the degree to which accents may affect teaching and learning has become an important topic (Spitzer, 2012).

In an online learning environment, the ability to control the level of physical exposure, including a foreign accent, may provide people with the option to conceal their group characteristics and minimize attitude and prejudice. Thus, an assumption was made that an online learning environment, with limited or nonexistent oral communication, might minimize communication barriers related to nonnative accents.

The Purpose and Theoretical Foundation of the Study

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to: (a) determine whether foreign-born faculty perceived their accent as a barrier to effective classroom communication in English; (b) determine the range of strategies employed to compensate for, or to overcome existing deficiencies in classroom communication in English; (c) determine whether foreign-born faculty perceived

an online environment as being more effective than face-to-face teaching in terms of teacher-student communication.

The works of Allport (1954) *The Nature of Prejudice* and Goffman (1963) *Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity* along with the Theory of Intergroup Communication (Tajfel, 1979) constitute the theoretical framework for this study.

Two research questions were addressed in this study:

RQ1. What are the instructional and interactive experiences of accented foreign-born faculty in the face-to-face classroom?

RQ2. What are the instructional and interactive experiences of accented foreign-born faculty in an online environment?

Methodology and Data Analysis

This study employed a phenomenological research method within a qualitative paradigm. Semi-structured interviews and classroom observations were the two instruments for data collection. The study characteristics and the qualitative nature of the research require extreme caution toward any attempts to generalize beyond this specific sample.

The participants met the minimum criteria of

- not being born in the United States;
- having received at least one professional degree in a foreign country;
- having taught at a four-year California public university; and
- having taught both face-to-face and online undergraduate courses.

The data collection revealed a rich volume of descriptive information, which was categorized and thematically grouped using qualitative data analysis software—NVivo 10.

Findings

The study determined that foreign-born faculty considered accent intelligibility one of the crucial elements for a foreign-born teacher to possess; accent was not perceived to be a barrier to effective classroom communication in English.

Foreign-born faculty extensively used strategies intended to minimize non-native accent-related challenges. The repertoire of such strategies, both verbal and non-verbal, resembled teaching techniques widely recommended in the methodological literature and used by native-speaking teachers.

Despite the theory of computer-mediated intergroup communication and the postulates of constructivist learning theory, the current study indicated that foreign-born faculty unanimously preferred face-to-face to the online classroom environment. Three convincing arguments presented in support of this choice were (a) the ability to read rich non-verbal cues; (b) the ability to provide feedback

right away; and (c) the claim that face-to-face remains the most powerful human interaction.

This study confirmed much of the literature about the challenges foreign-born faculty encounter. It confirmed the existence of such stressors as language shortcomings, cultural difference, feelings of foreignness, greater effort required (compared to native speakers) to establish credible careers, an inadequate support system, students' negative attitudes, and stigmatization.

As a result of the study, the Model of the Stigma of Nonnative Accents in Communication (SNAC) (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010), a social process model of language attitudes, was revised.

Implications and Recommendations for Practice

Two levels of recommendations, institutional and individual, were given as follows:

Institutional

- provide international faculty with information about resources to help them advance their understanding of the U.S. educational system and culture, and access to mentors who can answer questions, as needed;
- develop a network of international instructors who may provide a forum for exchanging ideas, sharing experiences, and providing support;
- provide resources for advanced speaking and communication classes tailored to international faculty;
- provide resources to participate in pronunciation classes tailored to the needs of accented faculty and focusing on the prosodic aspects of pronunciation, such as intonation, stress, rhythm, rate, and volume—the language elements crucial to public speaking; and
- provide international faculty with observation and evaluation in order to improve teaching effectiveness and pronunciation. The classroom observation protocol/assessment rubric, based on the *Comprehensive Assessment of Foreign-Accented English* recommended by the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA, 2011), was proposed.

Individual

- focus on developing ability to connect with students as approachable, friendly, outgoing, compassionate, and open-minded;
- seek public speaking opportunities, join leadership development organizations on and off campus, network and socialize with native speakers;
- use well-developed bank of instructional strategies and classroom techiques (verbal and non-verbal) to make learning environments more interactive, more visual, and dynamic; and

- be prepared to thrive on their own, as the results of the study showed that it was not typical to have formal mentoring programs.

Examining challenges that may emerge in communication between native speaking students and non-native speaking professors and developing interventions that can reduce communication difficulties are particularity timely issues. Increased contacts between different countries, increased globalization of higher education, and a need for more globally aware campuses call for immediate attention to the experiences of foreign-born faculty teaching in U.S. higher education.

Note

1. A reference list is included in the full text of the dissertation.

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Vocabulary-Learning Strategies of Students Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language in an Intensive-Training Setting

Dissertation Abstract

Yan Wang

Compared with the research on vocabulary-learning strategies in the field of teaching English-as-a-second or a foreign language, the research on the strategy use of Chinese-as-a-foreign-language (CFL) students, especially CFL students in an intensive-training setting, is scarce. Therefore, this mixed-methods study was conducted to investigate the strategy use of CFL students in learning Chinese vocabulary in an intensive language program and its relationship to students' learning outcomes. The study aimed to answer three research questions:

1. What learning strategies are commonly used by Chinese-as-a-foreign-language students in learning Chinese vocabulary?
2. To what extent do learners with various grade-point-averages (GPAs; high, middle, and low) vary in strategy use?
3. To what extent is there a relationship between students' strategy use and learning outcomes as measured by listening and reading proficiency test scores?

A total of 137 students, 105 male and 32 female, ranging from 19 to 35 years of age, participated in this study ($N = 137$). At the time when the data were collected, all were enrolled in the Chinese Basic Course. They comprised the students from the beginning (Semester I) to the advanced levels (Semester III). The strategy use of the students was measured by a 50-item questionnaire, and students' learning outcomes were measured by the end-of-semester II Proficiency Progress Test, which includes a listening and a reading test. Interviews with nine participants with various grade-point-averages (GPAs; high, middle, and low) were conducted to gain a better understanding of the strategy use for more-successful and less-successful students.

Descriptive data analysis revealed that the students in this study used 20 strategies commonly in their vocabulary learning. Of the 20 strategies, most were cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and most of the commonly-used cognitive strategies were orthographic-knowledge-based strategies such as recognizing known radicals when learning new characters (words) and trying to visualize the

character in one's head. Only two memory strategies were commonly used by the students.

Analysis of the qualitative data revealed that students with higher GPAs used a wider variety of strategies. The strategies that they found most useful were cognitive or metacognitive, whereas those perceived useful by students with lower GPAs were mostly memory strategies. The middle-GPA group showed features of the preferences of both the high-GPA and the low-GPA groups. Additionally, certain patterns of strategy use distinguished students with higher GPAs from students with lower GAPs.

Pearson product-moment correlation analyses revealed that several strategies involving learning and using vocabulary words in an authentic context had a positive and statistically significant association with students' listening and reading scores, whereas several strategies focusing on decontextualized memorization of vocabulary words had a negative and statistically significant association with students' listening scores. Two orthographic-knowledge-based strategies were found to be correlated positively with students' reading scores, and these two strategies determined whether the character in a new word had been learned and compared characters to identify differences and similarities in shape.

The findings suggest that orthographic-knowledge-based strategies and metacognitive strategies such as selective attention are essential for CFL students in vocabulary learning. Strategies involving learning and using Chinese vocabulary in an authentic context are important for CFL students to develop higher proficiency. Research and pedagogical implications are drawn based on the findings.

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The Racial, Gender, and Religious Politics of Interracial Romance on the Early Modern Stage

Dissertation Abstract

Yu-Wen Wei

Introduction

Despite the fact that its capital city and more than one-third of its territory was within continental Europe, the Ottoman Empire has long been regarded as a geopolitical and cultural entity distinct from the West in terms of culture and religion. Historians such as Daniel Goffman (1998) and Jerry Brotton (2003) have begun to challenge the traditional Eurocentric view of the Renaissance as misleading. Brotton (2003) follows the pioneering work of Lisa Jardine (1996), Walter D. Mignolo (2000), and Deborah Howard (2000), who have questioned the idea that the European Renaissance was a movement isolated from world history, with Greco-Roman art and the studia humanitatis (studies of humanity) as its primary inspiration. In fact, it was Europe's contact with the East and the circulation of Oriental goods as well as knowledge in architecture, astronomy, and geography which strongly influenced the European Renaissance.[1] Literary critics of the early modern period have also recognized that British literary history has neglected the Mediterranean Islamic "periphery" (Stallybrass, 2006, P.30) with its narrow focus on the Euro-Christian center when, in both political and economic terms, England was but a tiny island on the margins of Western Europe, and the Ottoman, Persian, and Indian empires were unimpressed by their material culture.

Aims of the Present Study

Although between 1579 and 1624, more than sixty dramatic works featuring Islamic themes, characters, or settings were produced in England, most previous studies limit to discussions of stage "Turks" to those by canonical authors. My project seeks to address this lacuna in the scholarship by examining the ways in which romantic relationships between interracial couples invert gender, racial, and religious stereotypes in the plays of Phillip Massinger, Lodowick Carlell, Robert Greene, and William Shakespeare.

Methodology

Rather than applying the theoretical model of Edward Said's Orientalism (1978) anachronistically, I offered a critique of the retrospective imposition of Said's Orientalism to early modern Anglo-Ottoman relations and rectified these reductive impositions by resituating early modern England in its global context. I sketched out a historicized rhetoric of political, religious, and racial discourses—that sprang out of the growing complexities of early modern international geopolitics and commerce—to better present new images of Islam on the stage. I examined a series of travelogues, captivity narratives,[2] and sermons,[3] contrasting them against the sociohistorical, religious, and economic context within which they were produced to gain a fuller understanding of how the figure of the "Turk" was perceived and represented in popular discourses. Finally, I investigated Turkish plays that have received little critical attention in order to sketch a fuller picture of the multifaceted "Turk" figure on the early modern stage.

Summary of Chapter Contents

Chapter 1 includes a critique of the retrospective imposition of Said's Orientalism on early modern Anglo-Ottoman relations and a literature review of Anglo-Ottoman relations and the representation of Islam in early modern England. Chapter 2 explores the power dynamics of interracial couples in *A Midsummer Night's Dream* (Shakespear,1596) and *Alphonsus, King of Aragon* (Greene, 1587). Chapter 3 references the triangulation of Muslim-Christian relationships between Despina, Osmond, and Melchoshus in *Osmond, the Great Turk* (Carlell,1622). Chapter 4 investigates the religious, racial, and gender politics of interracial romance in *The Renegado* (Massinger, 1623) through captivity tropes.

Conclusion

English subjects under Elizabeth I, James I, and Charles I "lived in an era of ideological discomfort" (Haller, 1957, p. 260) and many of them were "uprooted and swept this way and that by the confused forces of their age, plucked at on every side by contending interests cloaked in puzzling dialectic and cloudy image" (Haller, 1957, p. 260). Unprecedented scales of diplomatic, cultural, and commercial contacts[4] between the English and the Ottomans complicated the English perceptions of Islam and produced more nuanced dramatic representations of the stage "Turk" (Vitkus, 2003). The cross-cultural mingling that took place in the Mediterranean "call[ed] into question clear religious, national, and racial differences" and encouraged "a strategic flexibility of identity" (Vitkus, 1999, p. 120). In London playhouses, "the spectacle of Mediterranean alterity produce[d] a space of deferral and possibility," (Vitkus, 1999, p. 22) and a "site for transference, exchange, and mixture" (Vitkus, 1999, p. 30).

This project began as an investigation of how interracial romance between Christians and Turks is enacted and reconfigured on the stage and how such performances challenge early modern official gender, racial, and religious

ideologies. By analyzing the power dynamics between interracial couples in these plays, I have clarified the retrospective imposition of Orientalism onto early modern Anglo-Islamic relations and discovered that the representations of self and other do not conform to contemporary gender, racial, and religious stereotypes. Rather, they offer a dramatic rehearsal of the tensions of Anglo-Islamic identity politics, emerging as anxieties about the reversible nature of gender, racial, and religious identities in the early modern period. The discursive and social processes of courtship and marriage involved in interracial romance mediate, reconfigure, and ultimately invert these very stereotypes.[5]

Notes

1. Lisa Jardine, *Worldly Goods: A New History of the Renaissance* (London: 1996); Daniel Goffman, *Britons in the Ottoman Empire, 1642-1660* (Seattle and London: University of Washington Press, 1998), *The Ottoman Empire and Early Modern Europe* (Cambridge University Press, 2002); Walter D. Mignolo, *Local Histories/Global Designs: Coloniality, Subaltern Knowledges, and Border Thinking* (Princeton: Princeton UP: 2000); Deborah Howard, *Venice and the East: The Impact of the Islamic World on Venetian Architecture 1100–1500* (New Haven: Yale UP, 2000);), Jerry Brotton and Lisa Jardine, *Global Interests: Renaissance Art Between East and West* (London: 2000); Jerry Brotton, *The Renaissance Bazaar: From the Silk Road to Michelangelo* (Oxford: Oxford UP, 2003).

2. Nabil Matar argues that the captives in Barbary "were the first Englishmen to provide first-hand descriptions of the customs of the Moors, unlike the dramatists who regaled the English stage with types based mostly on Spanish and Italian literary sources, but seldom on familiarity with Muslims" ("Introduction 4"). I agree with Matar about the cultural importance and anthropological value of captivity narratives which claimed to be "true" and "objective," but I would challenge his view about the pervasive presence of stock stereotypes of stage Muslims in my project.

3. While the theatrical spectacle of circumcision and conversion was staged in London, sermons were preached to congregations that included large numbers of English soldiers and mariners, "warning these worshippers against conversion and threatening eternal damnation for those who turned Turk" (Vitkus "Conversion" 62).

   According to Nabil Matar, "From the Elizabethan period until the end of the seventeenth century, thousands of English, Scottish, Welsh, and Irish men and women interacted directly with the North Africans of the Barbary States as sailors, traders, soldiers, craftsmen, and artisans who either went to North Africa in search of work and opportunity or were seized by privateers and subsequently settled there" ("Introduction" 1) and before the Great Migration to North America at the end of the 1620s, "there were more Britons in North Africa than in North America, as men were drawn to the Barbary States in

search of work, livelihood, and settlement" (2). With the establishment of the Levant Company in 1581, and the growing commercial connections to the Mediterranean world, the English felt the power of Islam directly as it affected their maritime economy (Vitkus "Introduction" 3).

4.   Please refer to the full text of the dissertation for a complete list of references.

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The Effects of Hypertext Glosses on L2 Vocabulary Acquisition: A Meta-Analysis

Dissertation Abstract

Jeehwan Yun

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The goals of this study were to (1) examine effects of hypertext glosses on L2 vocabulary acquisition, (2) synthesize what features of effective technology use and research design have been employed, and, more importantly, (3) determine which specific combination of hypertext glosses (text-only vs. text and visual) is more effective and beneficial on L2 vocabulary acquisition. Meta-analysis was conducted to triangulate all data across empirical studies and synthesize a weighted mean effect size.

Research Questions

1. Does a group with access to multiple glosses (text + visual) perform significantly better than a group with access to a single gloss (text-only) on a post vocabulary test?
2. What are the features of meta-analyzed studies regarding characteristics of studies, research methodologies, and technology programs?
3. What potential moderators systematically account for the between-study variation of these meta-analyzed studies?

Methods

Two-variable group contrasts—treatment (text + visual) and control (text-only) groups—were applied to discover the magnitude of effects of hypertext glosses on L2 vocabulary acquisition. These two-variable group contrasts involved an independent variable of hypertext glosses that was measured on a dependent variable of vocabulary tests in an experiment or quasi-experiment design. Regarding effect size statistics, standardized mean difference effect size statistics (Hedges'g) were applied because the operationalization of meta-analyzed studies was not the same across instruments (vocabulary tests), research design, samples sizes, technology use (program or software), languages and time on task in a repeated measures design. With regard to relatively a small sample

size, Hedges' *g* simple correction for corrected and unbiased effect size statistics was applied.

Table 1
Coding Characteristics

Major Category	*Brief Description of the Major Category*	*No. of Variables*	*Variables*
Study characteristics	Descriptive data about the study	21	Study ID number Author Types of publication The publication year First Language Target population Mean age of sample Students' Ethnicity (RACE) Study years of the target language The sample's mean GPA The number of males The number of females Type of research Sampling assignment Research method Total sample size Total amount of treatment time Control group sample size Duration of the treatment Treatment group sample size Total amount of reading time

Effect size characteristics	Descriptive data about the effect size	14	Study ID number Effect size number Effect size type Category of outcome construct Measurement type Category of data effect size Total sample size Treatment (text + visual) group sample size Treatment group mean Treatment group standard deviation Effect Size Control group mean Control group standard deviation Control group (text only) sample size
Technology characteristics	Descriptive information about technology types, authors, and features	6	Study ID Length of technology use Total amount of technology time Category of technology used Computer software Category of hypermedia used

Results and Discussion

The overall mean effect size, 0.46, was statistically significant in that the 95% confidence interval around the effect size ($0.31 < \mu < 0.60$) did not include zero and reveals the relative precision of the estimate of the mean effect size of the population *n* of studies from which these 35 were presumably drawn. Correspondingly, the *z*-test value of 5.24 exceeded the critical value of 2.58 at *p* < .01 so that the overall mean effect size for this study sample (NES = 35) was statistically significant. In other words, it is statistically significant to argue that the treatment group with access to multiple hypertext glosses performed better than the control group with access to a single gloss on a post-vocabulary test. This finding answers the study's question 1: "Does a group with access to multiple glosses (text + visual) perform significantly better than a group with access to a single gloss (text-only) on a post vocabulary test?" Multiple hypertext gloss effects are statistically strong, but not conclusively large enough to indicate that

the use of text + visual hypertext glosses on L2 vocabulary acquisition is more influential than that of text-only hypertext glosses.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics of Post Vocabulary Tests

K	N	Number of Effect Size (NES)	Effect Size (g)	SEsm[1]	Z-Value*	95% CI	Q[2]	I^2
10	1518	35	0.46	0.075	5.242**	0.31 to 0.60	14.34	30.25%

1. SEsm = Standard error of standardized mean effect size
2. Q: Homogeneity of variance tests
* Z: 1.96, *p*< .05; **Z: 2.58, *p*< .01

Sample size appeared to be a strong moderator that accounted for the between-study variation in the two categories (less than 80 and more than 81); studies with a sample size of less than 80 generated 17 effect sizes with a mean effect size (Mes = 0.284), whereas studies with a sample size of more than 81 produced 18 effect sizes with a mean effect size (Mes = 0.430), Q= 3.052, p = 0.086. The result shows that studies with a large sample size had more statistical power than studies with a small sample size; a small sample size was attributed to a small weight, whereas a large sample size tended to produce a large weight.

Learner proficiency was found to be a statistically significant moderator to affect the treatment effects with Q= 15.304, $p < 0.05$; that is, studies with beginning learners had the largest mean effect size (0.698), while those with intermediate learners had the least mean effect size (0.233). In other words, beginning learners who had access to multiple hypertext glosses benefited most from multiple glosses in reading.

Another significant finding was that mean effect sizes differed statistically across the moderator level of vocabulary test type with Q= 20.881, $p < 0.05$. Recognition (form, meaning, picture and word) multiple-choice format was used significantly more often to test L2 learners' vocabulary learning as a dependent outcome measure variable in most studies compared to production such as recall or read-aloud protocol. The format of recognition, consisting of form, meaning, picture or word tests, was preferred across all studies with the assumption that a multiple-choice type test is a fairly reliable and valid instrument to measure test takers' performance over a short period of time.

Table 3
Summary of Moderator Variables

Moderator Variable Level	Number of Effect Size (Nes)	Effect Size (g)	Lower Confidence	Upper Confidence	QB Value
1. Sample Size:					3.052
Less than 80	17	0.284	0.146	0.422	
More than 81	18	0.430	0.341	0.520	
2. Target Language:					0.103
ESL/EFL	21	0.379	0.288	0.470	
Other FLs	14	0.405	0.272	0.538	
3. Learner Proficiency:					15.304*
Beginning	8	0.698	0.491	0.905	
Intermediate	7	0.233	0.058	0.409	
Beginning + Intermediate	8	0.417	0.276	0.557	
Advanced	4	0.579	0.284	0.875	
NA	8	0.294	0.161	0.427	
4. Publication Year:					0.042
1990s	11	0.373	0.216	0.530	
2000s	24	0.391	0.306	0.477	
5. Country:					0.762
USA	23	0.417	0.322	0.513	
Outside USA	12	0.348	0.223	0.472	
6. Research Design:					0.225
Between-subject measures	6	0.430	0.238	0.623	
Within-subject measures	29	0.380	0.298	0.461	
7. Outcome Measure:					0.633
An immediate post test	20	0.413	0.315	0.512	
A delayed post test	15	0.352	0.236	0.467	
8. Vocabulary Test Type:					20.881*
Definition	7	0.313	0.163	0.462	
Production	8	0.435	0.272	0.599	
Recognition	7	0.118	-0.050	0.287	
Recognition + Production	2	0.369	0.029	0.710	
Word recognition	4	0.600	0.358	0.841	
Form Recognition	2	0.689	0.274	1.103	
Meaning Recognition	2	0.455	0.047	0.862	
Picture Recognition	3	0.617	0.410	0.825	

QB values indicate whether effect sizes differ statistically across levels of the moderator variable.

P < 0.05.

Implications for Future Research

Hypertext gloss studies have been almost always conducted in the settings of class session-based, quasi-experiment design with researcher-developed programs, and an instructional impact has rarely been reported from the empirical studies that focus primarily on multimedia treatments. Thus, future research should consider an instructional effect in that the instructors' effect is a crucial variable for technology-based FL reading. Outcome measure instruments seemed limited to a one-way measurement (measuring outcome values particularly based on learners' performance as a reaction to computer programs) such as time on task (measured by learners' clicking) and multiple-choice recognition tests, which may have not taken full advantage of the relationship between innovative technology use and individual learners' characteristics. As technology evolves, it is hoped that innovative outcome measuring tools, controlling variability that remained unexplained, could help provide more consistent results of hypertext gloss research in the near future.

Author

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UPCOMING EVENTS

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2019

NOVEMBER

November 14-17 *Middle East Studies Association (MESA)* Annual Meeting, Atlanta, GA
Information: mesana.org/annual-meeting/ upcoming.html

November 22-24 *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL)*, Washington, DC
Information: www.actfl.org

November 22-24 *American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ)* Fall Conference, New Orleans, LA
Information: www.aatj.org

November 22-24 *Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA)* Annual Conference, Washington, DC
Information: clta-us.org

2020

JANUARY

January 2-5 *Linguistic Society of American (LSA)* Annual Meeting, New Orleans, LA
Information: www.linguisticsociety.org

January 9-12 *Modern Language Association (MLA)* Convention, Seattle, WA
Information: www.mla.org/convention

FEBRUARY

February 6-9	*American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL)*, San Diego, CA Information: www.aatseel.org
February 13-16	*Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL)* New York, New York

MARCH

March 9-12	*Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL),* New York, New York
March 12-15	*Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)* International Convention, Atlanta, GA Information: www.tesol.org
March 26-28	*Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT)* Annual Conference, Mobile, AL Information: www.scolt.org
March 28-31	*American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL)*, Denver, CO Information: www.aaal.org

APRIL

April 2-5	*California Language Teachers' Association (CLTA)* annual conference, Anaheim, CA Information: http://cita.net

MAY

May 24-29	*NAFSA: Association of International Educators* Annual Conference and Expo, St. Louis, MO Information: www.nafsa.org

OCTOBER

October 10-13	*Middle East Studies Association (MESA)* Annual Meeting, Washington, DC Information: mesana.org/annual-meeting/ upcoming.html

NOVEMBER

November 20-22 *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*
              Annual Convention (ACTFL), San Antonio, TX
              Information: www.actfl.org
November 20-22 *American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ)* Fall
              Conference, San Antonio, TX
              Information: www.aatj.org
November 20-22 *Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA)* Annual
              Conference, Washington, DC
              Information: clta-us.org

VENUES FOR ACADEMIC PUBLICATION

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(Published by the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages, a subsidiary of the Modern Language Association of America)
http://www.adfl.mla.org/ADFL-Bulletin

Al-'Arabiyya

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http://press.georgetown.edu/languages/our-authors/guidelines

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(Published by Sage Publishing on behalf of the American Evaluation Association)
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http://academic.oup.com/applij/pages/General_Instructions

Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice

(Published by Routledge)
http://authorservices.taylorandfrancis.com/

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http://www.journals.elsevier.com/brain-and-language

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Chinese as a Second Language

(Published by the Chinese Language Teachers Association, USA)
http://clta-us.org/publications/

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acquisition/information/instructions-contributors

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1.   Submission

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Send all submissions electronically to the Editor.

2.   Aims and Scope

The publication of this internal academic journal is to increase and share professional knowledge and information among Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program.

Dialog on Language Instruction is a refereed journal devoted to applied research into all aspects of innovation in language learning and teaching. It publishes research articles, review articles, and book/materials reviews. The community-oriented columns – Faculty Forum, News and Views, Quick Tips, and Resources – provide a platform for faculty and staff to exchange professional information, ideas, and views. *Dialog on Language Instruction* prefers its contributors to provide articles that have a sound theoretical base with a visible practical application which can be generalized.

3.   Review Process

Manuscripts will be acknowledged by the editor upon receipt and subsequently screened and sent out for peer review. Authors will be informed about the status of the article once the peer reviews have been received and processed. Reviewer comments will be shared with the authors.

Accepted Manuscripts: Once an article has been accepted for publication, the author will receive further instructions regarding the submission of the final copy.

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- Inappropriate/unsuitable topic for DLIFLC;
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- Lack of originality and novelty;
- Flaws in study/research design/methods;
- Irrelevance to contemporary research/dialogs in the foreign language education profession;
- Poor organization of material;
- Deficiencies in writing; and
- Inadequate manuscript preparation.

Once the editor notifies the author that the manuscript is unacceptable, that ends the review process.

In some cases, an author whose manuscript has been rejected may decide to revise it and resubmit. However, as the quality of the revision is unpredictable, no promise may be made by this publication pursuant to reconsideration.

4. Specifications for Manuscripts

Prepare the manuscripts in accordance with the following requirements:

- Follow APA style (the 6th Edition) – the style set by the American Psychological Association;
- Do not exceed 6,000 words for research articles (not including reference, appendix, etc.);
- Use double spacing, with margins of one inch on four sides;
- Use Times New Roman font, size 12;
- Number pages consecutively;
- In black and white only, including tables and graphics;
- Create graphics and tables in a Microsoft Office application (Word, PowerPoint, Excel);
- Provide graphics and tables no more than 4.5" in width;
- Do not use the footnotes and endnotes function in MS Word. Insert a number formatted in superscript following a punctuation mark. Type notes on a separate page. Center the word "Notes" at the top of the page. Indent five spaces on the first line of each sequentially-numbered note; and
- Keep the layout of the text as simple as possible.

5. Correspondence

Contact the Editor.

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First, decide for which column you would like to write: Research Articles, Review Articles, Reviews, Faculty Forum, News and Reports, Quick Tips, or Resources. Refer to the following pages for the specific requirement of each type of article.

1.   Research Articles

Divide your manuscript into the following sections, and in this order:
1.   Title and Author Information
2.   Abstract
3.   Body of the text, including:
   - Acknowledgements (optional)
   - Notes (optional)
   - References
   - Tables and figures (optional)
   - Appendixes (optional)

Ensure that your article has the following structure:

Cover Page	Type the title of the article and the author's name, position, school/department/office, contact information on a separate page to ensure anonymity in the review process. See the example below: Foster Learner Autonomy in Project-based Learning JANE, DOE Assistant Professor Persian-Farsi School, UGE jane.doe@dliflc.edu 831-242-3333
Abstract	Briefly state the purpose of the study, the principal results, and major conclusions in a concise and factual abstract of no more than 300 words.
Introduction	State the objectives, hypothesis, and research design. Provide adequate background information, but avoid a detailed literature survey or a summary of the results.
Literature Review	Discuss the work that has had a direct impact on your study. Cite only research pertinent to a specific issue and avoid references with only tangential or general significance. Emphasize pertinent findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work.

Method	State the hypothesis of your study. Describe how you conducted the study. Give a brief synopsis of the methodology. Provide sufficient detail to allow the work to be replicated. You may develop the subsections pertaining to the participants, the materials, and the procedure. *Participants.* Identify the number and type of participants. Indicate how they were selected. Provide major demographic characteristics. *Materials.* Briefly describe the materials used and their function in the experiment. *Procedure.* Describe each step in conducting the research, including the instructions to the participants, the formation of the groups, and the specific experimental manipulations.
Results	State the results and describe them to justify the findings. Mention all relevant results, including those that run counter to the hypothesis.
Discussion	Explore the significance of the results of the work, but do not repeat them. A combined Results and Discussion section is often appropriate. Avoid extensive citations and discussion of published literature.
Conclusion	Describe the contribution of the study to the field. Identify conclusions and theoretical implications that can be drawn from your study. Do not simply repeat earlier sections.
Acknowledgments	Identify those colleagues who may have contributed to the study and assisted you in preparing the manuscript.
Notes	Use sparingly. Number them consecutively throughout the article. They should be listed on a separate page, which is to be entitled *Notes*.
References	Submit on a separate page with the heading: References. References should be arranged first alphabetically, and then sorted chronologically if necessary. More than one reference from the same author(s) in the same year must be identified by the letter 'a', 'b', 'c', etc., placed after the year of publication.
Appendix	Place detailed information (such as a sample of a questionnaire, a table, or a list) that would be distracting to read in the main body of the article.

2.   Review Articles

It should describe, discuss, and evaluate several publications that fall into a topical category in foreign language education. The relative significance of the publications in the context of teaching realms should be pointed out. A review article should not exceed 6,000 words.

3.   Reviews

Reviews of books, textbooks, scholarly works, dictionaries, tests, computer software, audio-visual materials, and other print or non-print materials on foreign language education will be considered for publication. Give a clear but brief statement of the work's content and a critical assessment of its contribution to the profession. State both positive and negative aspects of the work(s). Keep quotations short. Do not send reviews that are merely descriptive. Reviews should not exceed 2,000 words.

4.   Faculty Forum

This section provides an opportunity for faculty, through brief articles, to share ideas and exchange views on innovative foreign language education practices, or to comment on articles in previous issues or on matters of general academic interest. Forum articles should not exceed 2,000 words.

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Reports, summaries, and reviews of new and innovative ideas and practices in language education. Fresh Ideas articles should not exceed 2,000 words.

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Reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training opportunities, news items, etc. Reports should not exceed 1,000 words.

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Previously unpublished, original or innovative, easy to follow ideas for use in the language classroom or in any aspect of foreign language learning and teaching, such as technology tips, useful classroom activities, learner training tips, etc. (Examples include: Five strategies for a positive learning environment; Using iPad to develop instructional video; Four effective strategies for improving listening – tips that your colleagues can easily adapt to their classrooms). Tips should not exceed 800 words.

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Deadline: Submissions are welcome at any point. Manuscripts received by ***31 January*** will be considered for the fall issue and by ***31 July*** for the spring issue.

For guidelines in the preparation of your manuscript, please refer to the previous section (pp.123-128): *Information for Contributors*.