Applied Language Learning

Volume 32

2022

Applied Language Learning

PB 65-22

Availability

To access *Applied Language Learning* online
http://www.dliflc.edu/resources/publications/applied-language-learning/

Post

Applied Language Learning
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

United Parcel Service

Applied Language Learning
Bldg. 614, Room 243
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

Applied Language Learning
Volume 32, 2022

CONTENTS

ARTICLES

REVIEW

GENERAL INFORMATION

THANK YOU

ARTICLES

Team Teaching in Foreign Language Courses: Characteristics of High-Performing Teams and Pedagogical Implications

Dawn Bikowski
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
Hye-Yeon Lim
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

Team teaching is re-emerging as a relevant research topic in language education due to the complexity and realities of globalization (Williams, Evans, & Metcalf, 2010). This qualitative study examined the characteristics of high-performing teams and their leadership in foreign language programs. Fifty-four college-level teachers, department chairpersons, and deans from five language programs (Chinese Mandarin, Korean, Modern Standard Arabic, Persian Farsi, and Russian) were interviewed by means of a two-phase research design. Phase I focused on the identification and categorization of key success factors, whereas Phase II entailed the refinement of the coding scheme and the creation of pedagogical resources and strategies for professional development. Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña's (2014) two-cycle coding system was used to analyze and code the interviews. Three categories, captured in the framework for high-performing foreign language teams, emerged: Curriculum and Teaching, Team Creation and Environment, and Communication and Decision-making. Self-reflection, risk-taking, and accountability and appreciation were present at all levels of successful teams. Pedagogical implications are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Team teaching is a defining characteristic of many language programs around the world. It is particularly prevalent in Asia, where, historically, a native-speaking and non-native speaking teacher have often been partnered on one team for English education. Considerable research has been conducted on this model, specifically in Japan's *Japan Exchange and Teaching* (JET) program, which began in 1987 (Yoshida, 2016). Less research has been conducted on the varieties of team teaching that exist in many other contexts and models, such as all teachers being native speakers of the target language, or with teams consisting of a greater number of teachers, or even on languages other than English. One of the complexities of this topic is the wide breadth of variation that occurs within the practice. Regardless of the team size or composition, how well a team functions has a determining effect on the success of the class. Some teams consistently out-perform others in the same language program; e.g., in terms of students' success measured by test scores. This project seeks to understand how teams function and why certain ones succeed. It builds upon prior research, which has identified strategies and best practices to maximize the potential benefits of team teaching.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although team teaching has a long history and has been widely studied, the topic is re-emerging as relevant due to the complexity and realities of globalization (Williams, Evans, & Metcalf, 2010). Innovation in team teaching has become increasingly important, given the demands of the higher education landscape (Minett-Smith & Davis, 2020). Effective team teaching is not simply a group of people who work together; rather, it involves "a group of instructors working purposefully, regularly, and cooperatively to help a group of students learn" … "setting goals for a course, designing a syllabus, preparing individual lesson plans, actually teaching students together, and evaluating the results" (Buckley, 2000, p. 4). There may be disagreements, but through negotiation and cooperation to reach shared goals, true team efforts rise. In effective team teaching, "everybody wins" (Buckley, 2000, p. 4). Foreign language students can increase feelings of engagement, and instructors can learn from one another, consequently experiencing elevated feelings of accomplishment (Canaran & Bayram, 2020). Teaching a language in teams may help instructors as they strive for self-reflection and professional development as well (Özsoy, 2017).

Whereas Buckley's (2000) definition provides the basic structure of what team teaching hopes to achieve, there are many variations on how it may be accomplished. A common model is the parallel approach, wherein instructors split up the content and take turns with teaching; other approaches include the interactive, where two or more teachers are in the classroom simultaneously and are actively delivering content; and the participant-observer, where two or more teachers are in the classroom simultaneously but with little or no interaction (White, Henley, & Brabston, 1998). Already mentioned was the model of non-native speakers being paired with native speakers (often with a title such as assistant language teacher) of the target language, where typically the native speaker teaches grammar, while the non-native speaker

focuses on speaking. However, this has been criticized for being a "deficit model" of team teaching due to its promotion of strict hierarchies and roles based on language and culture (Bolstad & Zenuk-Nishide, 2016). Teams may also consist of a mainstream content teacher and an English teacher, often in a Content and Language Integrated Learning program, where the target language is taught concurrently with content material (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010). In some teams, one teacher assumes the role of leader, and in others, all share the planning and teaching load. Regardless of how teams are categorized, they face similar difficulties.

Challenges inherent in team teaching (e.g., differing communication styles, native languages, classroom management styles, or teaching styles; power structures; feelings of resentment or being unappreciated; and time restrictions) often lead to tensions, with instructors teaching separately and not in an effectively coordinated manner (Buckley, 2000; McConnell, 2000). Unequal power dynamics and hierarchies, especially between native and non-native speakers of the target language, may complicate the situation (Pearce, 2019). This discord may result in a loss of the benefits that team teaching provides, meaning that a group of teachers is a team in name only.

In contrast, effective teams treat all members as a learning unit, with teachers and students being part of the team, learning from one another (Tajino & Smith, 2016), and working toward shared goals (Tajino & Tajino, 2000) and values (Tajino & Smith, 2016) to "break out of power hierarchies" that impede meaningful interaction (Pearce, 2019, p. 103). Students are engaged as part of the learning team, meaning that teachers are facilitators and coaches, and students take an active role in their own learning and goal setting. Additionally, the concept of team learning allows teachers to learn from students through the exchange of ideas and cultural values, moving beyond students only learning from teachers (Tajino & Smith, 2016). Many suggestions for effective team teaching come down to communication, vision, and leadership.

Research has explored student satisfaction with team teaching, qualities of successful teachers in teams, and strategies to overcome the challenges, although it should be noted that most studies involve teams working in the native-speaker/non-native-speaker partner model. Student response to team teaching has been largely positive, revealing an appreciation of the skills that each teacher has to offer (Carless, 2006; Gladman, 2015; Luk, 2001); this underscores the importance of teachers bringing in their own strengths. Carless (2006) studied successful collaboration, acknowledging the importance of members' sensitivity to the cultures of their colleagues. Pearce (2019) took a problem-solving approach and encouraged the development of a learning cycle by which teams inculcate shared values.

As can be seen from a review of the literature, although team teaching offers many advantages in foreign language programs, it also poses considerable challenges. Research has identified possible pathways forward for teaching teams, yet more research is needed, particularly outside of the native/non-native speaker team model that has been historically prevalent and with teams teaching languages other than English. In 2006, Carless noted that there was a "dearth of refereed articles examining what goes on in the [team-teaching] classroom or enabling the voices of co-teachers to feature prominently" (p. 343); this continues to be the

case today. This study aims to fill that gap and to develop a comprehensive understanding of what enables some teaching teams to consistently outperform others, especially when the teams are larger and have more than two teachers; it seeks a proactive approach to developing conditions under which teams can thrive.

There are two research questions:

1. What factors contribute to a team's success?
2. Which success factors can be modeled by other teaching teams, and in what ways?

METHOD

Setting

The data were collected in interviews at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) in Monterey, California. The DLIFLC is the primary foreign language training institution of the Department of Defense. Team teaching is the major format used for instruction in undergraduate education. A team of two to six teachers, led by a fellow teacher designated as team leader, with one student being designated the class leader, works with a cohort of six to 30 students to meet the institute's graduation standards. The data collected for this study included teams that had at least four teachers. The teachers use the parallel team-teaching approach to (1) plan and deliver content/curriculum; (2) advise students; (3) provide individualized instruction as needed; and (4) plan and provide interventions to promote student success.

Data Collection and Analysis

A two-stage research design was utilized, with Phase I focusing on the identification and categorization of key success factors, and Phase II entailing the refinement of the coding scheme and the creation of pedagogical tools and strategies to be used for professional development.

Phase I

Graduation rates and end-of-course test scores (i.e., the Defense Language Proficiency Test/DLPT, and the Oral Proficiency Interview/OPI) were used to identify which language would be studied for Phase I. Chinese Mandarin was identified. Within this language, the DLPT and OPI scores were used to identify the top five teams to interview. Teachers who had been on these high-performing teams for at least two of the prior three years were invited to participate in semi-structured, focus group interviews (one for each team). Eighteen out of 28 teachers of Chinese Mandarin accepted the invitation to participate in this study. The five prior chairpersons of the five teams, and the dean of this school were invited to participate as well, in individual, semi-structured interviews. All agreed to participate, bringing the total number of participants to 24. Of these, 18 had an MA and six had a PhD/EdD; six were at assistant professor rank, 17 were associate professors, and one was a professor. The average amount of time these participants had been at this institution was 12 years and nine months at the time of data collection.

Interviews were conducted via Microsoft Teams and recorded for later analysis. All participants signed consent forms, and all appropriate institutional review procedures were followed. Interview questions varied for each group (teachers, chairs, deans) and can be found in Appendix A. Anonymous participant codes were assigned to each interviewee to ensure confidentiality (e.g., P1, P2, etc.).

The goal of this analysis was to identify the best practices that the key teaching teams engage in that may be disseminated across the institution. The two-cycle coding system of Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014) was followed for analysis of the interviews. The first coding cycle in this system is provisional (initial summary of the data), moving to pattern coding (grouping provisional codes into themes). To increase intercoder consistency, each interview was coded by two raters, with each rater first analyzing the data individually, followed by raters sharing, comparing, and discussing codes. The identification and definition of preliminary codes were informed by the literature on team teaching benefits, challenges, and best practices/keys to success.

Phase II

Upon completion of the Phase I interviews, four other languages were selected for Phase II: Modern Standard Arabic, Korean, Persian Farsi, and Russian. These languages were chosen because of their status as languages crucial to national security. One team from each language was identified using the same criteria as in Phase I (the top-performing team in terms of end-of-course test scores over the past three years). A staff member from the accreditation office was also interviewed. The total number of participants in Phase II was 30 (22 teachers, four chairs, four deans). Of these, 12 had an MA, 12 had a PhD/EdD, and six had a BS/BA; 16 were at the assistant professor rank, 10 were associate professors, and four were professors. The average amount of time these participants had been at this institution was 14 years and three months at the time of data collection. Interviews were conducted via Microsoft Teams and recorded for later analysis. All participants signed consent forms, and all appropriate institutional review procedures were followed. Interview questions were informed by Phase I interviews, varied for each group (teachers, chairpersons, deans), and can be found in Appendix B. In Phase II, interview questions focused on refining the coding scheme and on developing pedagogical resources and implementation strategies that could be shared across the institution. Anonymous participant codes were assigned to each interviewee to ensure confidentiality. The coding scheme developed in Phase I was utilized to code the Phase II interviews; pedagogical resources that had been created based on Phase I data were further refined during the data collection and analysis stage of Phase II.

FINDINGS

Findings for Phase I and Phase II are combined in this section, which outlines the three components of the Framework for High Performing Foreign Language Teams (see Tables 1-6) that arose out of the data collected for this study: (a) Curriculum and Teaching, (b) Team Creation and Environment, and (c) Communication and Decision-Making.

Curriculum and Teaching

Although each language program has a curriculum, teams need to make many decisions about which parts of the curriculum to utilize, how to sequence them, and the pace they will follow. Many materials and activities must be created as well, particularly those using authentic materials.

This curricular reality lays more burden on the team leader position. As one participant commented, "The team leader is the pillar of the team" (P3). Yet the whole team plays a role, given that "To know what students need and where they are, it's important to observe students in class daily and review their homework. No matter how good a curriculum is, there is no one size fits all" (P11). One way in which teachers leveraged their team advantage was with local immersion experiences (up to four per course of study). These were held online or in-person and based upon topics such as going to the market or setting up a bank account. Teachers took on various roles at different stations, with students working through them all to further develop language skill with vocabulary, grammar, and speaking skills. Utilizing written or speaking portfolios was identified consistently as a means of engaging students in their own learning as well.

Finally, students are considered a part of the team, meaning that the teaching team must "help students with their autonomy and provide detailed guidance with clear steps," specifically, to help students "scaffold their own learning process, monitor their own learning, and reflect on their own learning processes … such as having them [students] create their own learning projects" (P12). As one participant noted, "The goal is to give students ownership of their own learning" (P16). Guiding students' learning within a system of accountability is crucial, as noted by P33: "My team is consistent with discipline with student issues. They address them with students and keep up with students with no favoritism. Students respect that in a team."

See Table 1 for a description of the strategies and characteristics related to curriculum and teaching shared by participants.

Table 1
Strategies Utilized by Successful Teaching Teams for Curriculum and Teaching

Team Leaders
- know the curricular goals at different levels, available materials, student needs (based on observations, student work), etc.   - have a vision for how the team will work together to engage students, meet their needs, and create clear and organized, yet flexible, schedules based on team input and student needs   - lead the team in deciding when to create tasks based on authentic materials, when to use existing resources, how to help students develop critical thinking skills, how to maximize the use of the target language throughout all parts of the curriculum and semesters, and what homework to assign along with the most effective feedback strategy   - stay up to date on teaching methods but are aware that no single method can guarantee students' success   - expose students to test-taking strategies and formats consistently through all semesters   - provide/promote mentoring or professional development as needed for the team   - meet regularly with chairpersons and follow their guidance on curriculum and teaching   - set high standards for students in terms of discipline and academics
Team Members
- are familiar with curricular responsibilities and effective teaching strategies   - foster students' autonomous learning skills and engage in two-directional learning between students and teachers   - work together to develop strategies that involve students in the culture of the target language   - maintain high standards for students in terms of discipline and academics

Leadership within each school also plays a key role in supporting the teaching teams. As one faculty participant noted, "Supervisors have a great effect on a team, on progress. If your manager cares about something, the department has to go by it" (P49). Their support and leadership are outlined in the following strategies and characteristics, which were voiced by chairpersons and deans (see Table 2).

Table 2
Strategies Utilized by School Leadership to Support Teaching Teams in Curriculum and Teaching

Chairpersons
- have a clear understanding of the DLIFLC's academic goals   - provide curricular direction and support based on the shared vision from the dean and knowledge of the curriculum   - teach as part of different teaching teams and observe classes   - support teams' initiatives in curriculum and teaching   - support flexibility in teams' scheduling and in moving beyond the textbook   - assume responsibility for curricular risks taken by teaching teams   - organize workshops as needed for students

- support the high standards of discipline and academics

Deans
- provide curricular direction and support based on their vision for the school
- lead initiatives to modify curriculum or assessments to align with school and language goals
- solicit and act on faculty input regarding curriculum and teaching
- create and maintain school-wide systems of sharing, supporting, and tracking knowledge and pedagogy
- work with stakeholders to create training materials
- establish evaluation systems for student performance that prioritize the school's values and vision

Team Creation and Environment

Another key area discussed by participants was how teams are created and the environment of the team. For team creation, leadership plays a role in uniting teachers who encompass diversity (in dialects, strengths, teaching style, etc.) and in communicating the importance of this diversity to the teaching team and students. Faculty play a role in being willing to learn from one another and work toward shared goals. Team diversity is "beneficial for students," allowing them to "hear more dialects and have different teaching styles" and "have classes that are less boring" (P1). The teaching team can also play to their strengths: "Three teachers teaching content provides different elements, diversity, and background to a lesson…. This is very useful. Students get a new perspective from explanations from each teacher, different knowledge and ways of explaining, and it changes the teaching experience" (P10).

In terms of the environment of the team, the team leader again plays a crucial role, given that "if a team leader doesn't listen, faculty stop suggesting" (P3). They also help the team develop trust, which one participant described as "not a strategy thing, but a build-up thing. … It takes time and patience and passion and hard work from everybody" (P9). The large number of teachers on teams in this study underlines the importance of a supportive environment among members. Another role of team leader is to model a willingness to try new things, working with the school leadership. Given their high-stakes environment, many participants shared that often, they feel that teaching anything outside of the textbook carries a certain amount of risk.

Participants noted that ideal team creation is not possible but gave the following strategies or suggestions for team leaders and members (see Table 3).

Table 3
Strategies Utilized by Successful Teaching Teams for Team Creation and Environment

Team Leaders
• maximize members' strengths, with members knowing the strengths they provide
• create a positive, trusting, and supportive environment by being organized, open-minded, dedicated, and attentive
• encourage risk-taking by the team and students in meeting language proficiency goals
• arrange rapport-building activities for the team and create opportunities to learn from one another, and for team members to resumes
Team Members
• are aware of the personal strengths and opportunities for learning that they bring to the teaching team
• show openness, respect, flexibility, and a willingness to experiment with new learning strategies and learn from one another and their students
• create a supportive learning environment and try to motivate one another and the students

The role of school leadership in team creation and environment is crucial. Chairpersons assign teachers to teams based on various factors (e.g., dialects, teaching styles) and via different strategies (e.g., department priorities or needs, faculty preference). All chairpersons commented on how they "identify and optimize talent," and then give them leeway and "not just a cookie cutter approach" (P36).

The chairperson and dean play a major role in the environment of the school that the teaching team is working in. As one participant noted, "One of the most important factors contributing to our success is our chairperson" because he "takes risks and responsibility for any potential failures. He encourages teachers to try new things. He is always supportive" (P43). On the other hand, when leadership is less supportive of new initiatives put forward by teaching teams, "This is how leadership kills teacher motivation" (P43). Leadership can support new initiatives and motivate faculty to work together to try new things (e.g., particularly through mentoring), or de-motivate faculty and increase feelings of competition. Participants noted the following strategies used by school leadership in team creation and environment (see Table 4).

Table 4
Strategies utilized by School Leadership to Support Teaching Teams for Team Creation and Environment

Chairpersons
• create teaching teams strategically, based on teachers' strengths
• develop and implement policies and strategies to build trust within teaching teams
• motivate teachers and praise their work publicly
• mentor teaching teams to support team leaders, including inviting teams to observe their teaching and colleagues' teaching, and allowing them to take risks and learn from mistakes

Deans
- meet with and support team leaders and ensure that they are supported by the teaching team   - work with chairpersons to support, not micromanage, team leaders   - work with chairpersons to support and mentor teachers' risk-taking with content and teaching   - work with chairpersons to intervene in teaching teams, when necessary, as when replacing a team leader   - model behaviors valued by the school   - develop and implement initiatives to build trust, morale, and collaboration throughout the school

Communication and Decision-Making

The third and final area of excellence noted by participants is communication and decision-making. Naturally, both formal and informal communication are crucial. Healthy communication does not imply a lack of disagreement, however, since sincere discussions about instructional choices will at least occasionally include different opinions. Instead of avoiding conflict, P20 noted they "work through it" and that "positive conflict is encouraged" since "it's not good if teachers keep their opinions to themselves just because of relationships. Sometimes the team really needs to hear divergent opinions." Working through any conflicts involves "focus[ing] on the goal and work[ing] out your own part as best you can, being flexible" and also remembering that "every teacher can have their own method—they don't have to be the same" (P17). Larger teams can complicate decision-making, meaning that the role of the team leader gains increased importance.

Including students' perspectives in instructional decisions is crucial as well; in fact, many participants expressed a similar view to P10 that "students are playing a bigger and bigger role in our decision making" (e.g., their feedback on homework, use of class time, the quality of mentoring). Including students is not enough, though; they "have to understand that they are really part of the team" (P12). Successful teaching teams in terms of communication and decision-making reported the following characteristics and strategies (see Table 5).

Table 5
Strategies Utilized by Successful Teaching Teams for Communication and Decision-Making

Team Leaders
- organize regular formal meetings and encourage informal communication to arrive at shared, mission-focused decision-making   - encourage all opinions and help the teamwork through disagreements in a positive, student-focused atmosphere that builds in reflection on teaching practice   - lead in collaborative decision-making and content development, including treating students as part of the learning team and soliciting their input in curricular and homework decisions

Team Members
• engage in ongoing formal and informal communication to share information, resources, or responsibilities and collaborate in decision-making and material development
• speak in one voice with consistent messaging to students
• share their opinions and team responsibilities

Open communication between the teaching team and leadership is also important. A key theme that surfaced regarding decision-making was the importance of leadership working with faculty instead of implementing top-down initiatives, because those initiatives "don't work well" (P28). See Table 6 for strategies identified by leadership.

Table 6
Strategies Utilized by School Leadership to Support Teaching Teams for Communication and Decision-Making

Chairpersons
• communicate openly and often with teaching teams and students
• utilize and model strong interpersonal skills and problem-solving skills with faculty as they help faculty work through conflicts
• communicate clearly with faculty regarding institutional goals

Deans
• communicate openly and often with teaching teams, chairs, and students
• communicate with senior leaders and military chains to address concerns/issues and find resolutions
• use bottom-up processes to formulate school initiatives and projects
• terminate underperforming teachers, hire most qualified and competent teachers for their language program(s)
• assign the right person to the right position
• support initiatives that require risk-taking/culture shift in the organization (e.g., student-teacher ratio)
• offer student class leaders workshops on leading their teams

Together, Tables 1-6 provide the Framework for *High-Performing Foreign Language Teams* that emerged from this study. As can be seen, successful team teaching relies on a healthy culture and system of communication, support, and pedagogical best practices. The following section discusses implications in more detail.

DISCUSSION

This study aimed to identify the factors that contribute to success in team teaching. The findings indicate that success hinges not only on the teaching performance of individuals, but also on the health of their cultural environment. This study supports Tajino and Smith's (2016) finding that effective teams treat all members of the group, including students, as a learning team, and concurs with Buckley's (2000) finding on the importance of instructors working

together. Unique to this study, however, is the importance of leadership at all levels to the team's success. Fig. 1 illustrates this holistic nature, with the professors and students teaching and learning within a supportive leadership structure.

For many, this mindset involves a paradigm shift in terms of roles and the process of teaching and learning. Each individual leader is crucial to supporting the teaching team. The overlap of all stakeholders working toward the same vision within a supportive environment is labeled as the "sweet spot for optimal learning:" the larger that overlap, or "sweet spot" is, the more opportunities there are for successful team teaching. The more that teaching teams and students work together with leadership, the more able teams are to minimize disruptions or challenges that may be caused by power imbalances that can occur, as discussed by Pearce (2019).
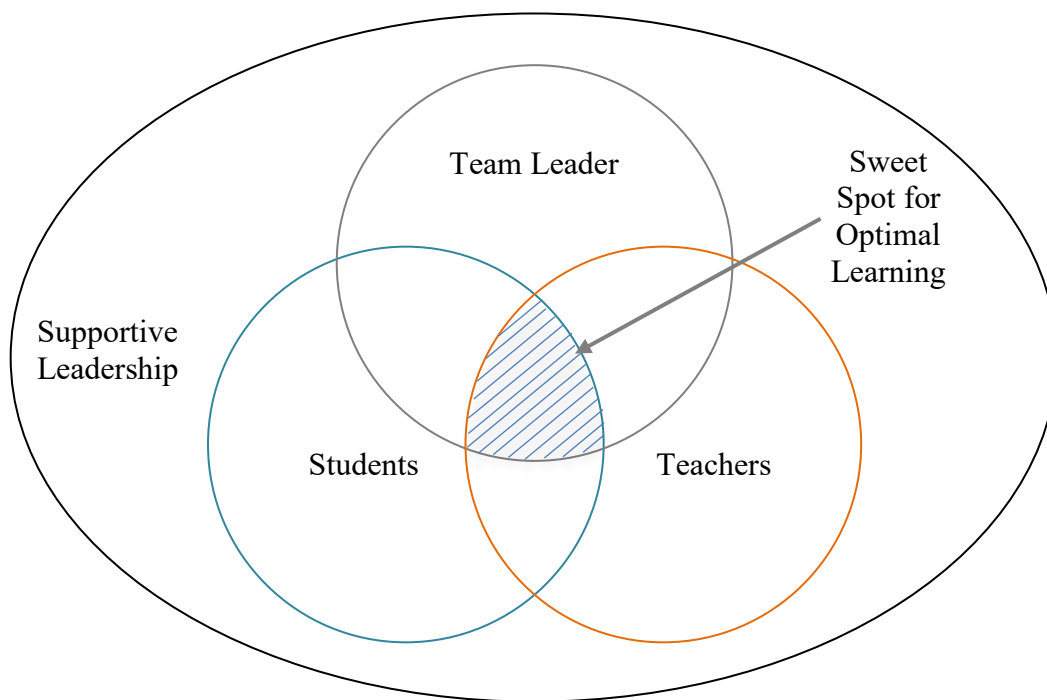
Figure 1
A Healthy Team-teaching System: The Team Leader, Teachers, and Students Working Together within a Supportive Leadership Structure

Team teaching and learning can thus be seen as "an innovative way of working towards a more cohesive society, both within and well beyond education" (Allwright, 2016, p. xix). Three themes were found across these levels (students, teaching teams, leadership) and are discussed in more detail below: self-reflection, risk-taking, and accountability and appreciation.

The Role of Self-Reflection in the Success of Team Teaching

Self-Reflection by Teaching Teams

The team-teaching environment requires that instructors be reflective in how they approach their students and the curriculum. Teacher self-reflection plays a significant role in educators being able to develop their professional expertise (Mortari, 2012) and has been seen as crucial for teacher development for many years (Dewey, 1933). Useful processes or tools for self-reflection include teacher journals, informal discussions at the departmental or team level, observations of other teachers, self-observations, or discussions with students. Given that teacher self-reflection inherently involves vulnerability, supportive leadership is crucial. Experienced self-reflective teachers are more able to guide students through the process of reflection in their learning.

Self-Reflection by Students

Students also benefit from reflecting on their learning. Successful teaching teams help students develop their own skills at becoming self-directed learners. This requires that the team have a specific, articulated plan for student reflection and autonomy that is shared with students and that allows them to practice and reflect on their strategies (e.g., identifying goals, monitoring progress, seeking help as needed) both in and out of class. Not every language program or teaching team will approach this aspect of student development in the same way, yet guidelines about how to structure self-directed learning for students can be useful; more research is needed in this area as related to team teaching models.

Self-Reflection by Leadership

Just as teaching teams that regularly engage in self-reflection are more able to guide their students through the process, it is equally important for leadership to identify strengths and opportunities for the improvement of processes or policies. chairpersons and deans can take advantage of leadership networks to engage in reflection and develop leadership skills (Stawnychko, 2021). Engaging in self-reflection allows leadership to demonstrate that they are not implementing only top-down initiatives. Based on this data, self-reflection checklists and questions may be created, to be used by all groups as they reflect on their own practice. A learning community housed in a teacher's department, for example, would allow teachers to share challenges and successes in an environment that is supportive and encourages risk-taking.

The Role of Risk-Taking in the Success of Team Teaching

Risk-Taking by Teaching Teams

Findings demonstrate that instructors working in teaching teams will need to take risks. This is especially likely when they decide to deviate from the textbook, when they develop and use authentic materials, and when they employ alternative instructional methods. For example,

if a teaching team implements project-based learning, all teachers need to agree on topics for inclusion such as implementation timeframes, project duration, means of facilitating learning, and useful rubrics. As it is not possible to predict and plan everything, it is imperative that all team members are flexible and open to change during risk, and that they have a positive attitude and a growth mindset (Dweck, 2016) so that any failures or missteps can be a learning opportunity for future success.

Risk-Taking by Students

Most students at the DLIFLC are assigned to learn a foreign language for their future job assignment. Being in an intensive foreign language learning environment itself is risk-taking for the students because if they do not meet the graduation standards, their military career can be jeopardized. To some degree, part of being a successful teaching team entails mitigating the risks students must take, and at the same time supporting them through risks that must be taken. Students must therefore take the risk to trust their team and leadership, particularly when faculty choose to deviate from the textbook or engage in less traditional instructional methods. Students must also take risks when they speak or perform in the target language in front of their peers or when they admit that they need additional help or support. Successful teaching teams were those that acknowledged that students were taking risks and that concomitant potential emotional responses might impact learning. Their instructional plans included confidence-building activities to support students' risk-taking and learning.

Risk-Taking by Leadership

A nurturing team environment where teachers feel comfortable with risk-taking is crucial and is created when both teachers and the leadership have trust, respect, and esprit de corps towards each other while pursuing their goals. Supportive leadership understands which practices are perceived as risky by their faculty and why faculty may be hesitant to take risks. They also encourage faculty to bring forward new and innovative teaching strategies and mentor them to maximize success, assuring faculty that they will take responsibility if necessary and identifying ways to acknowledge and reward healthy risk-taking. Forums for sharing or modeling new practices can be utilized across a department. Supportive, communicative leaders contribute to a nurturing environment for the teams' success.

The Role of Appreciation within Accountability in the Success of Team Teaching

Teaching Team Accountability and Appreciation

Successful team-teaching hinges on members being accountable and doing their share of the work. Each teacher's fair share can be less clear than in individual teaching and some individuals can offload their work to others. This reality underscores the importance of clear accountability systems. At the same time, participants noted that accountability is often a personal matter that is difficult to influence through external policies alone. Building a culture of trust and a sense of a shared mission can contribute to individual accountability. They

commended leaders who built systems or venues to acknowledge and appreciate successful teams, thereby incentivizing capable teachers to apply for leadership positions.

Student Accountability and Appreciation

Students must also feel that they are being held accountable for their role in their own learning process. Successful teams shared various strategies they utilize, such as treating students fairly and consistently in expectations and consequences and allowing students to monitor their learning and success. At the same time, successful teams work to appreciate and inspire students by creating activities and projects that are relevant to their interests and future careers and by acknowledging exemplary student work. In this way, students develop their own accountability standards and systems, while also building pride and confidence, particularly crucial concepts for this student population. More research into helping students build self-accountability for their learning is warranted.

Leadership Accountability and Appreciation

Leadership plays a role in holding teachers accountable for their time and teaching, just as the leaders themselves are being held accountable by the institution; as noted by Stewart (2016), "new methods of … measuring institutional effectiveness are constantly being tested in the tireless quest for quantifiable results" (p. 4). The leadership can support teachers and establish accountability through creating clear workload expectations, terminating underperforming teachers, and rewarding teachers who exceed departmental goals or expectations. Participants also shared the importance of them supporting policies to hold students accountable for their time and work. In addition, leadership can model accountability by sharing information with the faculty about their own performance, thus simultaneously building trust and rapport.

CONCLUSION

This study contributes to the literature regarding team teaching, particularly in contexts with larger teaching teams where the instructors are all or nearly all native speakers of the target language. It has taken a holistic approach to team teaching, outlining how the system of leadership, teams of teachers, and students collaborate in the areas of curriculum and teaching, team creation and environment, and communication and decision-making. Teams have a greater chance of success when the system encourages and allows for reflection, risk-taking, and appreciation within accountability as they work together toward a shared goal. A final key player is the student—teams that help students develop their own learning goals and strategies are more likely to succeed. For many, this model represents a paradigm shift and opportunities for increased and more holistic professional development. Interpretation of these results should keep in mind that this study may not be generalizable to all team-teaching situations, given that the participants represented five languages and are within a specific institutional context and the parallel team-teaching model. However, these results provide guidance for future research into

the system of team teaching, such as further exploring students' experiences, increased opportunities afforded by technology, and professional development models or resources that best prepare stakeholders to thrive in this environment. Understanding how best to navigate the balance between potentially competing forces in this team-teaching system (e.g., such as between risk-taking and accountability) will be crucial in moving forward with this pedagogical approach.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

REFERENCES

Allwright, D. (2016). Team teaching, team learning and the development of collegiality. In A. Tajino, T. Stewart, & D. Dalsky (Eds.). *Team teaching and team learning in the language classroom: Collaboration for innovation in ELT* (pp. xix-xx). New York, NY: Routledge.

Bolstad, F., & Zenuk-Nishide, L. (2016). Beyond the deficit model: Co-constructing team teaching to address learner goals and needs. In A. Tajino, T. Stewart, & D. Dalsky (Eds.). *Team teaching and team learning in the language classroom: Collaboration for innovation in ELT* (pp. 78–93). New York, NY: Routledge.

Buckley, F. J. (2000). *Team teaching: What, why, and how?* Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.

Canaran, Ö, & Bayram, İ. (2020). A mixed method study on team teaching as a professional development model for EFL lecturers. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi, 28*(4), 1839–1850.

Carless, D. R. (2006). Good practices in team teaching in Japan, South Korea, and Hong Kong. *System, 34*(3), 341–351.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. New York: D.C. Heath and Company.

Dove, M., & Honigsfeld, A. (2010). ESL coteaching and collaboration: Opportunities to develop teacher leadership and enhance student learning. *TESOL Journal, 1*(1), 3–22.

Dweck, C. D. (2016). *Mindset: The new psychology of success*. New York, NY: Ballantine Books.

Gladman, A. (2015). Team teaching is not just for teachers! Student perspectives on the collaborative classroom. *TESOL Journal, 6*(1), 130–148.

Luk, (2001). Exploring the sociocultural implications of the native-English speaker teacher scheme in Honk Kong through the eyes of students. *Asia Pacific Journal of Language in Education, 4*(2), 19–50.

McConnell, D. (2000). *Importing diversity: Inside Japan's JET program*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Minett-Smith, C., & Davis, C. L. (2020). Widening the discourse on team-teaching in higher education. *Teaching in Higher Education, 25*(5), 579–594.

Mortari, L. (2012). Learning thoughtful reflection in teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 18*(5), 525–545.

Özsoy, K. (2017). *EFL teachers' engagement in reflective practice via team teaching for professional development.* (Unpublished master's thesis) Bilkent University, Ankara. Available from http://repository.bilkent.edu.tr/

Pearce, D. R. (2019) Team teaching and team learning: SSM applied to the team-taught classroom. In A. Tajino (Ed.). *A systems approach to language pedagogy* (pp. 99–120). *Translational Systems Sciences, 17*.

Stawnychko, L. (2021). *Leadership development experiences of department chairs at a Canadian university* (Publication No. 28323520) [Doctoral Dissertation, University of Calgary]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Stewart, T. (2016). Introduction. Situating collaboration, team teaching, team learning and innovation in ELT practice. In A. Tajino, T. Stewart, & D. Dalsky (Eds.). *Team teaching and team learning in the language classroom: Collaboration for innovation in ELT* (pp. 3–10). New York, NY: Routledge.

Tajino, A., & Smith, C. (2016). Beyond team teaching: An introduction to team learning in language education. In A. Tajino, T. Stewart, & D. Dalsky (Eds.). *Team teaching and team learning in the language classroom: Collaboration for innovation in ELT* (pp. 11–27). New York, NY: Routledge.

Tajino, A., & Tajino, Y. (2000). Native and non-native: What can they offer? Lessons from team-teaching in Japan. *ELT Journal, 54*(1), 3–11.

White, C. S., Henley, J. A., & Brabston, M. E. (1998). To team teach or not to team teach—That is the question: A faculty perspective. *Marketing Education Review, 8*(3), 13–23.

Williams, J., Evans, C., & Metcalf, D. (2010). Team teaching: A collaborative approach to effective online instruction. *National Teacher Education Journal 3*(3), 121–131.

Yoshida, T. (2016). A sociocultural analysis of effective team teaching in a Japanese language classroom. In A. Tajino, T. Stewart, & D. Dalsky (Eds.). *Team teaching and team learning in the language classroom: Collaboration for innovation in ELT* (pp. 31–50). New York, NY: Routledge.

APPENDIX A

Interview Question Protocols for Participants in Phase I

Questions for Teaching Teams
1. What are the benefits of team teaching at the DLIFLC?
2. What are the disadvantages of team teaching at the DLIFLC? Which strategies do you think would mitigate them?
3. What words would you use to describe an "effective team?" If you have been on any teams that were not effective, what do you think caused the difficulties?
4. How does your team make instructional decisions for course content/homework, grading/feedback, student discipline?
   a. Do you have any recommendations for teaching teams regarding curricular decisions?
   b. If disagreements arise among faculty team members, how do you resolve them?
5. How are students included in their own learning in your team?
6. Do you have anything else that we haven't discussed yet to share about team teaching and how it can best be accomplished here?

Questions for Department Chairpersons
1. What are the benefits of team teaching at the DLIFLC?
2. What are the disadvantages of team teaching at the DLIFLC?
3. What words would you use to describe an "effective team"? How would you describe less effective teams?
4. How do successful teams make instructional decisions in your department about content/homework, grading/feedback, student discipline, etc. Does it seem that the more successful teams engage in any processes that could be considered best practices to be spread across the institution?
5. How are students included in their own learning in successful teams? Does it seem that the more successful teams engage in any processes or strategies that could be spread across the institution?
6. Do you have anything else that we haven't discussed yet to share about team teaching and how it can best be accomplished here to ensure maximum learning?

Questions for Deans
1. *Topic: Leadership from Deans and Chairpersons*
Some teams probably work together well and have high graduation rates regardless of what leadership (chairpersons, deans) do; others need more guidance and training.
   a. What is it that the underperforming teams do differently compared to the more successful ones? In other words, what are the training opportunities here?
   b. As a dean, what have you done or what have you seen chairpersons doing to help teams move from being underperforming to becoming more successful in terms of graduation rates?

    c. Do you have any suggestions for training programs that would be sufficiently language-specific if needed, and sufficiently valued by faculty so that real changes occur?

2. Topic: Developing High Quality Team Leaders

Our data indicate that a key to success is having high quality team leaders, meaning they are experienced and knowledgeable, organized, listen to their team. work as a group, and are student-focused, etc. We have also heard that many teachers don't want to assume extra leadership responsibilities.

    a. Do you have any suggestions on what could be done to incentivize more experienced and high-quality teachers to become team leaders?

    b. Do you have any suggestions for developing training programs for team leaders that you think would be useful?

3. Topic: Developing Self-directed Learners

All the successful teams talked about the importance of helping students become more autonomous learners, and they had different ways of accomplishing that goal.

    a. Do you have any suggestions for training or incentivizing less-successful teams or teachers to shift thinking about this topic so that they could help students develop autonomous skills?

4. Topic: Curriculum and Materials

Given that all teams have access to the same materials, yet graduation rates vary considerably, we're interested in how teams use the curriculum and materials.

    a. Compared with less successful teams, what is unique about curriculum development and implementation with successful teams? What distinguishes successful teams from less successful ones in terms of using teaching materials?

    b. What kind of overall instructional strategies are used by successful teams?

APPENDIX B

Interview Question Protocols for Participants in Phase II

Questions for Teaching Teams

1. What are you doing that makes your team successful in terms of graduation rates? Why do you think other teams aren't doing these things, or do they have different strategies that lead to success?

2. How would you recommend that faculty training or professional development be conducted here? What would you do similarly or differently than what is done now? What topics would you focus on?

3. Do you teach students things they can do to help them get better at managing their own learning, starting from the beginning of the program and all the way through? If so, what do you teach them and how?

4. Teaching at the DLIFLC requires a certain amount of risk-taking—being willing to try something new if other things aren't working. Can you give an example of what you've tried that was a bit risky? Also, what do you think leadership can do to support teachers as you try new things?
5. Do you have anything else that we haven't discussed yet to share about team teaching and how it can best be accomplished for the goal of maximum student learning?

Questions for Department Chairpersons
1. What do you think chairpersons can do to help teaching teams succeed?
2. Do you think there is anything a chairperson or leader can do to help teaching teams take risks that lead to greater success in teaching?
3. How can students on successful teams be included in their own learning? Does it seem that the more successful teams engage in any specific processes or strategies?
4. Do you have anything else that we haven't discussed yet to share about team teaching and how it can best be accomplished in pursuit of maximum student learning?

Questions for Deans
1. Topic: Leadership from Deans and Chairpersons
Some teams probably work together well and have high graduation rates regardless of what the leadership (chairpersons, deans) does; others need more guidance and training.
   a. As a dean, what have you done or what have you seen chairpersons do to help teams move from being underperforming to becoming more successful in terms of graduation rates?
   b. Do you have any suggestions for training programs that would be sufficiently language-specific if needed, and sufficiently valued by faculty so that real changes occur?

2. Topic: Developing High quality Team Leaders
Our data indicates that a key to success is having high quality team leaders, meaning they are experienced and knowledgeable, organized, listen to their team, work as a group, and are student-focused, etc. We have also heard that many teachers don't want to assume leadership responsibilities.
   a. Do you have any suggestions for what could be done to incentivize more experienced and high-quality teachers to become team leaders?
   b. Do you have any suggestions for developing training programs for team leaders that you think would be useful?

3. Topic: Developing Self-directed Learners
Successful teams have talked about the importance of helping students become more autonomous learners, and they had different ways of accomplishing that goal.
   a. Do you have any suggestions on what could be done to train or incentivize less-successful teams or teachers to shift their thinking about this topic so that they actually help students with these skills?

4. Topic: Curriculum and Materials

Given that all teams have access to the same materials, yet graduation rates vary considerably, we're interested in how teams use the curriculum and materials.

    a. Compared with less successful teams, what is unique about curriculum development and implementation with successful teams? What distinguishes successful teams from less successful ones in terms of using teaching materials?

    b. Do you think that more successful teams tend to take more risks with the curriculum and materials they use or develop? If so, how can a dean support teams to take risks in terms of helping students, yet also protect teams from the possible consequences of potential failure?

AUTHORS

Dawn Bikowski, *Ph.D., Associate Professor, Office of Standardization and Academic Excellence, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center. Email: dawn.bikowski@dlifc.edu*

Hye-Yeon Lim, *Ph.D., Professor, Office of Standardization and Academic Excellence, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center. Email: hyeyeon.lim@dliflc.edu*

Assessing Mandarin Chinese Students' Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence at the DLIFLC: Results and Pedagogical Implications

Yonghong Cheng
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
Yan Wang
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
Wei Chen
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

Language instruction at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), as it does at colleges and universities, focuses on developing linguistic competence. There is no textbook or teaching materials that explicitly and systematically teach students the pragmatic knowledge of the target language. Such knowledge is either introduced by teachers sporadically or learned by students themselves. The current study reports the reality of the Chinese students' interlanguage pragmatic competence by administering a survey questionnaire with 50 situational scenarios that measure interlanguage pragmatic competence (ILP) on Requests, Apologies, Refusals, Compliments, Thanksgivings, Conversational Implicatures, and Formulaic Routines. The survey results demonstrate the students' current level of the pragmatic competence in Chinese language and culture and provide formation for future curriculum revision and material development. The study also explores possible and effective approaches to teaching culture and pragmatics in classrooms at the DLIFLC.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, research on interlanguage pragmatic (ILP) competence has drawn increasing attention in the field of second language (L2) acquisition. ILP competence is defined as the second language learners' comprehension and acquisition of pragmatic knowledge in a target language (TL) (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). ILP competence tends to be overlooked in the

foreign language classroom, where the emphasis is on linguistic competence in grammar and vocabulary. The underlying assumption is that high level of linguistic competence can be naturally translated into successful cross-cultural and intercultural communication competence.

Studies have shown, however, that language learners may have mastered the linguistic forms of the target language but may not be fully aware of the functions and meanings of the forms in different linguistic and cultural contexts. Grammatical knowledge alone does not guarantee successful communication, which also requires the knowledge of how to use the linguistic forms of the target language in ways that are appropriate to the situation or the context in the speech community (Hymes, 1972; Cheng, 2005).

A lack of ILP competence is likely to cause pragmatic failure, which is defined by Thomas (1983) as the inability to understand what is meant by what is said. Pragmatic failure leads to ineffective communication, and in more serious cases, causes communication breakdown. Whereas learners at various proficiency levels are subject to potential misunderstandings because of pragmatic failure, advanced learners are more likely to be scrutinized by native speakers. Research shows that native speakers tend to be more critical of the appropriateness of utterances made by advanced speakers. When grammatical competence is not perceived as a relevant explanation, native speakers attribute the pragmatic failure to personality issues, rather than issues of language use (Cheng, 2005). To ensure that language learners achieve successful communication in cross-cultural communication, language programs should emphasize the development of both linguistic and ILP competence.

Because of these reasons, in recent years there has been an increased interest in ILP research. However, most studies focus on English learners, and scant research has been conducted on the ILP competence of learners of Chinese as a second or foreign language. In the Chinese Basic Course at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), the curriculum is oriented to linguistic competence with, regrettably, insufficient attention paid to ILP competence. It is unclear whether learners can develop ILP competence to a level that matches linguistic competence level by graduation day. Therefore, the current study surveys the ILP competence of students of Mandarin Chinese at the DLIFLC.

This study collected data from 50 students, who were randomly selected according to a computer-generated number. Descriptive statistical tests were conducted to measure the student ILP competence—what they had mastered, what was missing, and what could be done in curriculum design to develop students' ILP competence. The findings of the study have revealed the pragmatic competence of the Mandarin Chinese students and the reality of Chinese mandarin pragmatics instruction in the Chinese program at the DLIFLC. It also provides suggestions for the teaching of pragmatic knowledge and material development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) started in the late 1970s (Peng & Gao, 2018). Early research focused either on the differences between non-native speakers (NNS) and native speakers (NS) in performing a specific speech act (Tanaka, 1988) or on learners' ability to understand the illocutionary meaning of an utterance and variables that affect ILP comprehension (Banerjee and Carrel, 1988; Carrell, 1979; Schmidt, 1983).

Recent studies on ILP focus more on the developmental aspects of ILP (Peng & Gao, 2018). These studies observe how learners' pragmatic competence is developed by analyzing cross-sectional or longitudinal data (Rose, 2000; Chang, 2010). For example, Masaeed, Waugh and Burns (2018) investigated apologetic strategies in formal and informal situations of American university students learning Arabic as a foreign language (AFL). Using spoken discourse completion tasks, they collected data from 15 Arabic native speakers and 45 AFL university students at three proficiency levels. Their study found a positive correlation between proficiency levels and the production of apologetic strategies. The more proficient the learners were in Arabic, the more likely their apologetic strategy productions approximated that of native speakers.

Similar findings were obtained by studies in other learning contexts. Xu and Wannaruk (2016) investigated English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' variation of ILP competence in proportion to language proficiency. Data were collected from 390 EFL learners in China with an ILP competence test and semi-structured interviews, including ten speech acts and 30 situations. The study found that students with higher language proficiency outperformed those with lower language proficiency in their ILP competence test. Participants from various proficiency groups in a speech contest showed variations in 1) use of correct speech act; 2) typical expressions; 3) amount of speech information; and 4) degree of formality, directness, and politeness.

Even though these studies suggest a positive relationship between learners' ILP competence and language proficiency, other studies found a lack of correlation between learners' ILP and language proficiency. The findings are inconsistent. Cultural differences are proposed to be one of the main causes for pragmatic failures (Hinkel, 1999). For example, Sebate and Curell (2007) gave 78 NNS of English at three proficiency levels discourse completion tasks and analyzed their acquisitional stages of L2 apologetic realizations. They discovered that increased proficiency level did not correlate with more native-like apologetic constructions and advanced NNS tend to overuse ILP strategies as compared to the NS group, suggesting some degree of transfer from learners' first language (L1) pragmatics.

In a more recent study, Sorour (2018) examined the pragmatic awareness of Egyptian students in an English-medium university. A judgment task questionnaire was used to collect data from 67 Egyptian ESL learners at two different proficiency levels. In-group comparisons reveals no significant differences in grammatical and pragmatic awareness between the

members within each proficiency group. The results of the cross-group comparisons show that the high-proficiency group has a significant higher level of grammatical awareness than the low-proficiency group whereases there is no significant difference in the pragmatic awareness between the high- and low-proficiency groups.

Studies also suggest that the immersion experience in the TL language and culture is particularly helpful for the development of learners' ILP competence (Shardakkova, 2005; Beckwith & Dewaele, 2008). Shardakova (2005) examined apologetic strategies by low- and high-proficiency level American learners of Russian in situations involving varying social distance. Some of the participants had spent time in Russia whereas others had not. Their findings revealed a positive correlation of learners' ability to use pragmatically appropriate apologetic strategies and language proficiency with time spent abroad. The low-proficiency learners with extensive study-abroad experience were most successful at approximating the NS Russian control group's apologies. In comparison, high-proficiency speakers with limited exposure to Russian culture tended to overuse apologetic strategies, thus being perceived too polite by NS of Russian.

The lack of consistency in the findings of learners' ILP development renders the necessity of further investigating the relationship between learners' language proficiency and ILP competence. Additionally, even though there is considerable research on this topic, little research has been done in teaching Chinese as a foreign language, particularly in an intensive program like the one at the DLIFLC, in which students have much exposure to the Chinese language and culture because of the large quantity of authentic materials in the curriculum and the total immersion learning environment.

Previous studies highlight NNSs' lack of ILP competence in different speech acts and face-threatening acts (FTAs), such as requesting, refusing, and apologizing (Umale, 2011). Research is needed to find out whether DLIFLC students can develop ILP competence to a level that is proportional to their linguistic competence upon graduation. Therefore, this survey study examines the ILP competence of Mandarin Chinese students at the DLIFLC to understand whether graduating students have mastered the pragmatic knowledge of speech acts such as requests, apologies, thanksgivings, refusals, compliments, conversational implicatures, and formulaic routines.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Participants

The 50 subjects of the survey were chosen randomly among the graduating students in the Mandarin Chinese program at the DLIFLC. A consent form was distributed to the participants about one month before they took the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT5). After collecting the signed consent forms, researchers distributed the survey to participating students. The consent forms and the survey questionnaires were distributed and collected at

different times. Students were given about two weeks to finish the survey. They took the survey anonymously. After the survey questionnaires were collected, the researchers assigned each questionnaire a numerical number, stored them at a secured place, and only the three researchers had access to the information collected. The consent forms and survey questionnaires will be kept for two years and then be properly destroyed with all the researchers present to ensure that no information will be leaked.

The questionnaires were distributed to 50 randomly selected graduating students in the Mandarin Chinese program, but only 34 completed the questionnaire. Among the 34, one was a Chinese heritage student; 29 did not have Chinese learning experience; three had one year, one had two years, and one had over three years of Chinese learning experience before coming to the DLIFLC (see Table 1).

Table 1
Participants' Chinese Learning Experience (n=34)

Heritage Status			Previous Chinese Learning Experience					
Yes	No	Total	A	B	C	D	E	Total
1	33	34	29	3	1	1	0	34

Note: Yes =heritage student, No = non heritage student; A = 0 year; B = 1 year; C = 2 years; D = 3 years; E = over 3 years

Design of the Survey

The Survey of Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence of Students Learning Chinese is adapted from a study done by Fan and Liu (2017), which measures the pragmatic competence of students learning Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) at Chinese universities. The main reason that we used Fan and Liu's questionnaire was that the situational scenarios were not created by the researchers but were collected through surveying foreign students learning Chinese at Chinese universities. The questionnaire was then distributed to native speakers of Chinese, the NNSs' responses were used to construct the answer key. The scenarios were to elicit responses where NNS of Chinese might make errors. We contacted Fan and Liu through email and obtained written permission to adapt and use their questionnaire for the current study.

Fan and Liu's study consists of three steps: the generation of situations, the creation of options, and the pilot study. When generating the situations, Fan and Liu collected the situations through "exemplar generation, likelihood investigation, and metapragmatic assessment" (Fan & Liu, 2017, p.19). Their survey was about the most common scenarios in daily life. After collecting 60 scenarios, they narrowed down to 50 test questions, and later categorized them into various speech acts like requests, refusals, compliments, thanksgivings, apologies, conversational implicatures, and formulaic routines. The answer keys or appropriate responses were collected through a survey of native speakers of Mandarin Chinese. Then a pilot study was conducted on NNS students learning Chinese in China by means of a written

discourse completion questionnaire. According to Fan and Liu (2017), the results of the pilot study demonstrated an acceptable Cronbach alpha reliability (0.75), meaning examinees were tested effectively and reliably.

Among the 50 situation scenarios in the questionnaire, 11 are on the speech acts of Requests; six on Apologies; six on Thanksgivings; 14 on Refusals; three on Compliments; 13 on Conversational Implicatures; and seven on Formulaic Routines. The 50 situation scenarios are randomly distributed in the questionnaire. Functional words denoting apologize, refuse, or compliment are avoided to elicit the students' natural and spontaneous language output.

The questionnaire, in a multiple-choice format, presents three options (A, B, and C) for each situational scenario. Students are to select the option that they deem most appropriate.

Research Questions and Statistic Tests

In this study, the researchers investigate the following research questions:

1. How do learners perform in terms of different speech acts?
2. What are learners' strengths and weaknesses in their pragmatic competence and why?
3. What can we improve in teaching, material development, and curriculum design?

For statistic studies, Statistic Packet for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to run frequency analysis to see what answers the subjects chose and the numbers of subjects choosing each of the options. The subjects' choices were put in manually onto an Excel form with 9 as the code for un-answered questions. The data on Excel were then imported to SPSS for the necessary statistic tests.

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To analyze the data, we used the percentage of 73.5% as the threshold, meaning 25 of 34 subjects chose the correct responses. Our discussion will focus on questions or situational scenarios that fewer than 25 students chose the correct options.

Students' ILP on Requests

Table 2
Students' ILP on Request (n=34)

Questions	A	%	B	%	C	%
Q1	**27***	**79.4%***	7	20.6%	0	0%
Q5	7	20.6%	0	0.0%	**27**	**79.4%**
Q13	0	0.0%	5	14.7%	**29**	**85.3%**
Q15	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	**34**	**100%**
Q21	**17**	**50%**	7	20.6%	10	29.4%
Q31	12	35.2%	**18**	**53%**	4	11.8%
Q37	3	8.8%	4	11.77%	**27**	**79.4%**
Q41	**18**	**52.9%**	7	20.6%	9	26.5%
Q43	7	20.6%	**24**	**70.6%**	3	8.8%
Q46	**27**	**79.4%**	2	5.9%	5	14.7%
Q48	**31**	**91.2%**	1	2.9%	2	5.9%

* Numbers and percentages for the correct options are in bold.

The first aspect of pragmatic competence in Mandarin Chinese tested in the present study is the students' performance in situational scenarios of requests. For Request, social factors such as social distance, imposition, and relative power are imbedded into the scenarios. Among the 11 request situation scenarios, there are over 73.5% of the subjects choosing the correct options in seven scenarios. The four scenarios that subjects missed are Q21, Q31, Q41, and Q43. To give readers some ideas of what the questions look like, Q21 and Q31 are used as an example:

Q21 is a scenario to request looking at a cell phone in a store.

21.今天，你去买手机，你看中了柜台里的一个手机，想看一下，你对售货员说：
[You would like to buy a cellphone today. A cellphone in the counter has caught your fancy. You would like to take a closer look, so you said to the salesperson:]
A 麻烦你把这个手机拿出来，我看一下
[A. May I bother you to take this cell phone out? I will take a look.]
B 不好意思，请让我看一下这个手机。
[B. Excuse me, please let me look at this cell phone.]
C 请你让我看一下这个手机,好吗？
[C. May I look at this cell phone?]

The results show that 50% of the subjects chose the correct option A, whereas 20.6% of the subjects chose B and 29.4% chose C. All the three options provided are requests, but A is the most appropriate. Those who chose B and C had a basic command of making requests in Mandarin Chinese but not the intricacies of politeness. The students know the factor of social distance and politeness but do not understand the factors of imposition and relative power. Options B and C are too polite in this circumstance.

Q31 is a scenario of a company boss asking employees to work overtime.

31. 你是一家公司的老板，经常和员工一起工作、聊天。有一天，已经到了下班时间，可是还有一些工作没做完，你想让你的员工和你一起工作三个小时后再下班，你对他们说：
[You are the boss of a company, and you often work and chat with your employees. One day, it is the closing time but there is still some work left. You would like to have employees stay and work with you for another three hours before leaving. You tell them:]

A 麻烦你们和我一起再工作三个小时，还有一些工作没做完，行吗？
[A. May I bother you to work with me for another three hours, we still have some work to do. Is that okay?]
B 今天的工作还差最后一点，大家辛苦一下，做完了再下班吧！
[B. There is only a little work left today. Let's work harder and finish it before heading home.]
C 最近我们公司比较忙，今天我想让你们帮我再工作三个小时。
[C. It has been very busy in our company recently. I would like you to work for another three hours today.]

As we can see, 53% of the subjects chose the correct option B, 35.2% chose A, and 11.8% chose C. Some chose option A, which is too polite for a request in the workplace in China. Students did not understand the factor of relative power in this scenario. In the United States, laws protect an employee's rights, so a manager has less power to ask an employee to work overtime. Given the same scenario, the manager has more power in China, regardless of circumstances. Choice C provides an excuse, but the request is not softened by polite words, making it sound more like a demand than a request. What triggered the subjects to choose either A or C was the failure in understanding the power dynamics in the Chinese workplace, which should be part of a language learner's pragmatic competence.

Q41 is a request for the teacher to repeat what has been said in class. The survey results show that 52.9% of the subjects chose the correct option A, whereas 20.6% chose B and 26.5% chose C. Option B is too polite and formal for a request to a teacher who has been teaching the speaker for a year and C is a little rude for teachers who are highly respected in Chinese culture.

For Q43, 70.6% of the subjects chose the correct option B, 20.6% chose A, and 8.8% chose C. The scenario is asking a friend to pay back a loan. As this conversation is between two close friends, options A and C are rude and inappropriate. B is the most appropriate choice

because it provides a reason for the request and downplays the request—if you cannot pay back the loan in full, just pay part of it. The lack of full understanding of social distance could be the best explanation for students' selection of A and C.

The above analyses show, for the speech act of Request, most students have a general mastery of the target language and pragmatic knowledge but need more profound understanding of the social factors that an appropriate request is based on.

Students' ILP on Apologies

Table 3
Students' ILP on Apologies (n=34)

Question	A	%	B	%	C	%
Q3	**28***	**82.3%***	1	2.9%	5	14.7%
Q7	1	2.9%	5	14.7%	**28**	**82.3%**
Q23	**29**	**85.2%**	4	11.8%	1	2.9%
Q42	**16**	**47%**	3	8.8%	15	44.1%
Q45	5	14.7%	**23**	**67.6%**	6	17.6%
Q49	2	5.9%	**30**	**88.2%**	2	5.9%

* Numbers and percentages for the correct options are in bold.

For the speech act of Apology, the percentage of the subjects in Q42 and Q45 choosing the correct option is under 73.5%. To test the students' competence in this speech act, social factors like social distance, relative power, and severity of offense are imbedded in scenarios.

In Q42 (apologizing for stepping on a stranger's foot), only 47% of the subjects selected the correct option A, 8.8% chose B, and 44.1% chose C. The reasons for 44.1% choosing the wrong option C are probably L1 influence and the different formula for apology in Chinese and American culture. In the correct option A, the speaker only apologizes but also explains the reason, and offers a remedy, whereas in option C the speaker only apologizes twice to make it stronger. Subjects who chose C also misjudged the severity of the offense (the stranger screamed).

In Q 45, the situation is to apologize to the teacher for not turning in homework on time. The result shows 67.6% of the subjects chose the correct option B, 14.7% chose A, and 17.6% chose C. Option C only offers an explanation not an apology whereas option A provides an apology without a convincing explanation. Option B has an apology, an explanation, and a remedy, which is the appropriate way of apologizing in Chinese.

Students' ILP on Thanksgivings

Table 4
Students' ILP on Thanksgivings(n=34)

Question	A	%	B	%	C	%
Q11	**17***	**50%***	7	20.6%	10	29.4%
Q17	7	20.6%	**19**	**55.9%**	8	23.5%
Q25	**21**	**61.8%**	7	20.6%	6	17.6%
Q44	**26**	**76.5**	3	8.8%	5	14.7%
Q47	5	14.7%	3	8.8%	**25**	**73.5%**
Q50	**14**	**41.1%**	10	29.4%	10	29.4%

* Numbers and percentages that indicate the correct options are in bold.

For Thanksgivings in Q11, Q17, Q25, and Q50, the percentage of subjects choosing the correct option is below 73.5%. To test students' ILP on Thanksgivings, social factors like social distance, relative power, and degree of favor are imbedded into the scenarios.

In Q11, the scenario demonstrates thanking a Chinese friend for helping revise the speaker's essay. The result shows that 50% of the subjects chose the correct response A, 20.6% chose B, and 29.4% chose C. Some chose B because they have not fully mastered the social factor of degree of favor, and thus failing to show sufficient gratitude. Option C is too formal and native Chinese speakers are not likely to express their gratitude in such a way to someone close to them.

In Q17, 55.9% of the subjects chose the correct response B and the rest selected A or C. Q17 is to express thanks to a stranger for giving directions to the speaker. The social distance between these two speakers is big because they are strangers, whereas the degree of favor is medium. Therefore, option C does not offer enough gratitude. Option A offers too much gratitude and is not socially appropriate as it is unlikely for these two strangers to see each other again.

In Q25, the scenario is to express appreciation to a friend for buying the speaker a bottle of water. The social distance is close, the relative power between interlocutors is insignificant (they are equal), and the degree of favor is low. Therefore, the students who chose the wrong answers obviously mis-judged these social factors, as the gratitude in both B and C is exaggerated. Among the 34 subjects, 61.8% of the subjects chose the correct option A and the rest chose either B or C.

In Q50, the situation is to express thanks to a friend for buying cold medicine when the speaker caught a cold and had a fever. Among the subjects, 41.1% chose the right option A, 29.4% chose B, and 29.4% chose C. The appropriate speech is based on the values of the three social factors (distance–, relative power–, degree of favor+). Options B and C contain too much gratitude because of the misjudgment of social distance, making both sound insincere.

The results and analysis above indicate that the subjects lack a full mastery of social factors such as social distance, relative power, and the degree of favor. Subsequently, they chose the options that either do not show enough gratitude or the options that are appropriate for strangers but not for friends.

Students' ILP on Refusals

Table 5
Students' ILP on Refusals (n=34)

Questions	A	%	B	%	C	%
Q9	2	5.9%	2	5.9%	**30***	**88.2%***
Q27	3	8.8%	**22**	**64.8%**	9	26.4%
Q35	**27**	**79.4%**	6	17.6%	1	2.9%
Q39	1	2.9%	**33**	**97.1%**	0	0.0%

*Numbers and percentages for the correct options are in bold.

The only scenario for which less than 73.5% of the subjects choosing the correct option is Q27. In Q27, the scenario is to refuse to loan a friend money because the speaker just paid his rent and did not have enough money. As we can see, 64.8% of the subject chose the correct response B, 8.8% chose A, and 26.4% chose C.

For Refusal, social factors such as social distance, relative power, and degree of request are imbedded into the scenarios. Concerning refusal in Chinese culture, the typical formula is to apologize first, then explain why one turns down the request, and finally provide a solution to soften the refusal. Both options A and C provide an apology but not explanation or solution. This may be different in American culture as friends usually do not lend each other large amount of money, whereas it is quite common among close friends in China.

Students' ILP on Compliments

Table 6
Students' ILP on Compliments

Question	A	%.	B	%	C	%
Q19	4	11.8%	24	70.1%	**6***	**17.6%***
Q29	18	52.9%	**10**	**29.4%**	6	17.6%
Q33	**28**	**82.4%**	4	11.8%	2	5.9%

*Numbers and percentages for the correct options are in bold.

For Compliments, social factors like social distance, relative power, what to compliment on, gender, and age are imbedded into the situational scenarios.

For Q19 (complimenting the food to the waitress), 17.6% of the subject chose the correct option C, 70.1% chose B, and 11.8% chose A. Option A offers a compliment followed by

an encouragement, which reveals a misunderstanding of the relative power, whereas option B provides an exaggerated compliment.

For Q29 (when invited to visit parents' friends, complimenting the friends' cooking), only 29.4% of the subjects chose the correct response B, 52.9% chose A, and 17.6% chose C. A shows an inappropriate invitation at the end because the friends and the speaker's parents are equal, but the speaker should be more respectful. C sounds more like a judgement than showing gratitude.

Students' ILP on Conversational Implicatures

Table 7
Students' ILP on Conversational Implicatures (n=34)

Question.	A	%	B	%	C	%
Q16	**24***	**70.6%***	0	0.0%	10	29.4%
Q18	4	11.8%	10	29.4%	**20**	**58.9%**
Q20	4	11.8%	**27**	**79.4%**	3	8.9%
Q22	1	2.9%	**33**	**97.1%**	0	0%
Q24	10	29.4%	6	17.6%	**18**	**52.9%**
Q26	0	0.0%	7	20.6%	**27**	**79.4%**
Q28	4	11.8%	10	29.4%	**20**	**58.9%**
Q30	**23**	**67.6%**	2	5.8%	9	26.5%
Q32	2	5.8%1	6	17.6%	**26**	**76.5%**
Q34	3	8.9%	4	11.8%	**27**	**79.4%**
Q36	13	38.2%	**15**	**44.1%**	6	17.6%
Q38	3	8.9%	5	14.7%	**26**	**76.5%**
Q40	13	38.2%	**21**	**61.8%**	0	0.0%

*Numbers and percentages for the correct options are in bold.

Conversational Implicature being most problematic for the subjects is probably because of the lack of social and cultural knowledge.

For Q16, the scenario is that the speaker tells a friend that he/she wants to buy a computer and the friend replies that the speaker has said this ten times. A is the correct answer whereas B is the literal interpretation of the expression. Students who chose C realized that something was beyond the literal meaning but did not know the implied meaning.

In Q18, the speaker runs into a friend on the way for lunch. The speaker asks if the friend has had lunch, and the friend replies that it is already 2 o'clock in the afternoon. Option B is an interpretation out of the context, whereas A is probably a misunderstanding. For this scenario, only 58.9% of the subjects chose the correct answer C with the implied meaning that the friend has had lunch a while ago.

In Q24, Mary and Ali have been arguing and finally Ali says: "Ok, you are absolutely right!". The implied meaning is C (I do not agree but do not want to argue further). Many students failed to understand the implied meaning and thus chose the incorrect options of A and B, which are the literal interpretation of the conversation. Only 52.9% chose the best interpretation C.

Concerning Q 28, Xiaoming's mother asks the teacher how her son is doing in class, and the teacher replies: "He can occasionally pass the exams." Only 58.9% of the students chose the correct implied meaning in C (Xiaoming cannot pass the exams most of the time and is not a good student), whereas the rest chose either A (Xiaoming's study is ok, and he studies hard) or B (Xiaoming studies hard but with poor results).

Regarding Q 30, the scenario is that Ali asks Mary if she has time and invites her to play basketball on Wednesday afternoon. Mary says: "It is not that I do not have time." Among the subjects, 67.6% chose the correct answer A (Mary has time but does not want to go), whereas 5.8% misunderstood the double negative in Mary's response and chose the incorrect option B (Mary does not have time and cannot go), and 26.5% selected the pure literal interpretation C (She is not busy and has the time).

In Q36, there is a new restaurant near the speaker's house, but the speaker has not been there. A friend went there for lunch today, so the speaker asks about the food there. The friend replies: "I am still hungry!" Only 44.4% of the subjects picked the correct answer B (the portion is small), whereas 38.2% chose A (the food was bad), and 17.6% selected the literal interpretation C (I want to eat more).

The scenario in Q40 is a mother asks the younger daughter what her elder sister has bought. The younger girl says, "Well…she bought a blue top, a green top, and a red top." Among the subjects, 61.8% picked the correct answer B (she bought too many clothes), 38.2% selected A (she bought three pieces of clothes), a pure literal interpretation of the expression. None of the subjects chose C (she did not buy any clothes for the mother).

From the results shown above, we find that some subjects chose the option which is a 100% literal interpretation of the scenario, whereas others may have sensed that there are some implied meanings but were not able to pinpoint what was implied exactly. Only those who fully understood the implied social and cultural meanings of the scenario selected the right and appropriate response. Unlike other speech acts tested, there are no general rules for Conversational Implicatures. Students must learn them individually, making it more challenging for second or foreign language learners.

Students' ILP on Formulaic Routines

Table 8
Students' ILP on Formulaic Routines (n=34)

Question	A	%	B	%	C	%
Q2	1	2.9%	3	8.9%	**30***	**88.2%***
Q4	1	2.9%	**32**	**94.1%**	1	2.9%
Q6	**25**	**73.5%**	1	2.9%	8	23.5%
Q8	0	0.0%	**29**	**85.3%**	5	14.7%
Q10	2	5.9%	**32**	**94.1%**	0	0.0%
Q12	9	26.5%	**24**	**70.6%**	1	2.9%
Q14	8	23.5%	**12**	**35.3%**	14	41.2%

Numbers and percentages for the correct options are in bold.

For Formulaic Routine, in Q12 and Q14, the percentage of subjects choosing the correct response is below 73.5%.

The scenario in Q12 is that the speaker goes to someone's house. When the speaker leaves, the host walks the speaker to the door. The question is what the speaker is supposed to say. The results show that 70.6% of the subjects chose B as the correct response (thanksgivings + invitation + farewell), whereas 26.5% picked A (compliments + thanksgivings + farewells) and 2.9% chose C (just farewell). The typical response in Chinese culture is Option B.

In Q 14, the speaker tells the taxi driver the destination. About 35.3% of the subjects chose the correct response B (a straight request), whereas 23.5% chose A (a very polite request in the form of a question), and 41.2% chose C (a very polite request with a polite word in Chinese).

Like Conversational Implicature, Formulaic Routine is challenging for second and foreign language learners of Mandarin Chinese because there are no general rules. Learners must master the formulaic routines imbedded with rich social and cultural meanings on an individual basis.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The current study shows that participants demonstrated adequate understanding of general functions of speech acts but lacked awareness of certain cultural values (i.e., social distance, relative power, severity of events) in Chinese. The findings have important pedagogical implications for second language learners and educators. In addition to highlighting the positive impact of the DLIFLC Mandarin Chinese curriculum on students' ILP competence, we propose more targeted instructional methods that aim at providing students pragmatic knowledge and engaging them in pragmatic practices.

Numerous activities have been empirically proven to be beneficial for students' pragmatic acquisition. For instance, instructors can provide direct instruction of pragmatic knowledge in the target language and equip students with strategies to perform various speech acts in each situation. Explicit explanation of different forms of speech act in various scenarios can be provided to get students' attention on certain forms, thus raising their awareness of metapragmatic differences (Eslami, Mierzaei & Shadi, 2015; Kasper, 2001; Sykes & Cohen, 2018). Comparative tasks can also be assigned for learners to compare the speech acts between their native and the target languages, helping them overcome L1 transfer in terms of pragmatics. Language teachers, materials developers, and curriculum designers should provide pragmatic instruction, metapragmatic tasks, and individual parameters of ILP, even when learners have only developed limited proficiency in the target language.

In addition, engaging students to engage in different social roles and speech events (e.g., stimulation, drama, and role play) can provide interpersonal encounters necessary for developing a wide range of pragmatic and sociolinguistic abilities, thereby enhancing their understanding of the roles of social distance, relative power, severity of events in various speech acts. Instructors may expose students to ample authentic input, such as multimedia resources like movies and videos, culture puzzles and pictures, language games, or inviting classroom guests from the target culture communities. The authentic materials can be used to create more meaningful, student-centered tasks. For instance, instructors can pause the video and let the students predict what the speaker will say next or ask how they would respond appropriately in the given scenario. Teachers' corrective feedbacks are also crucial in these tasks. On the one hand, teachers should encourage students not to be afraid of making errors when accomplishing tasks. On the other hand, teachers should utilize the errors as data to analyze students' misunderstanding of target culture and provide remedial instruction to promote their pragmatic competence.

Digital contexts have also been positively associated with language learners' development of pragmatic competence, as they provide the site for gaining the information and the significant contexts for pragmatic exploration and experimentation (Yus, 2013). Online communities eliminate some constraints that learners may encounter, such as geographic locations and anxieties in having to speak a foreign language. Classroom teachers may utilize the infinite number of digital mediation tools to deliver language content and provide a platform to co-construct the dynamic learning experience with learners or among learners. Research has identified the telecollaboration (i.e., virtual communication between learners of two languages with multilingual interactions) as an impactful approach in learners' cultural and pragmatics competence. (Vyatkina & Belz, 2006). Moreover, social networks can serve as a resourceful site to enhance pragmatic competence. Besides the mainstream digital tools like Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter, the popular Chinese social networks, such as Weibo, Tiktok, Tencent, Wechat, Zhihu, can also be practical in learning and teaching Chinese as a foreign language. Teachers can use the social network as a resource for students to analyze certain speech acts, use memes to let students analyze the cultural humor and increase their motivation, ask learners to create their own social media content like vlog, and even encourage them to engage in online communities to interact with real Chinese people. With the rapid

development of technology, the potential for utilizing technologies for strategy-based pragmatics instruction and curricular development should be explored by educators.

CONCLUSION

The subjects performed well in the survey, with 27 questions having more than 73.5% of subjects choosing the correct options. This is within our expectation that the current materials and approaches for Mandarin Chinese instruction have provided the students with an immersive TL environment whereby they may acquire pragmatic knowledge through social interactions. It also affirms our understanding that languages and cultures share many pragmatic rules. Accordingly, in language instruction, especially in pragmatics teaching, we need to address the individual parameters or differences between the learners' native and the target languages and cultures. Explicitly and systematically addressing these individual parameters or differences in textbooks, lectures, or tasks may help students improve pragmatic skills faster than allowing them to acquire the target language and culture norms on their own.

From the findings in this study, we can see that students in the Mandarin Chinese program at the DLIFLC can perform the general functions of the speech acts like Requests, Refusals, Thanksgivings, Apologies, Compliments, Conversational Implicatures, and Formulaic Routines, but lack a thorough understanding of social distance, relative power, and severity of events in the Chinese culture. Take Thanksgivings for example; research findings from previous studies (Li, 2004) suggest that the closer it is between the interlocutors, the more indirectly they express gratitude. Showing too much gratitude is inappropriate when giving thanks to a friend. In this study, some subjects selected incorrect options due to a lack of knowledge about the way social distance and relative power impact the way one gives thanks in the Chinese culture.

Another observation of the current study supports the previous literature wherein students' performance in Chinese pragmatic scenarios is much influenced by their L1—English. The misperception of the dominance from the relative power, the social distance, and the severity levels of events in the target culture could contribute to difficulties in obtaining a desired communicative outcome in the target language. Therefore, both educators and learners need to develop more awareness of the cultural and pragmatic differences between Chinse and English to fulfill communication in a culturally appropriate way. Additionally, it is worth mentioning that conversational implicature is a pragmatic aspect that is particularly challenging for students to master. As shown in Table 7, out of the 13 questions in the survey, more than 73.5% percent of the subjects selected the incorrect options for seven questions. Many failed to go beyond the literal meaning of the expression, thus missing the implied message.

Future research may benefit from examining the comprehension and production of TL speech acts by learners across proficiency levels, instructional models, and language programs. The role of gender and socioeconomic status may also be investigated to see how learners make choices such as making requests, refusals, and apologies in speech acts.

REFERENCES

Banerjee J., & Carrell, P. L. (1988). Tuck in your shirt, you squid: Suggestions in ESL. *Language Learning, 38*, 313–347.

Beckwith, S., & Dewaele, J. (2008). The development of apologies in the Japanese L2 of adult English native speakers. *Birkbeck Studies in Applied Linguistics, 3*, 1-26.

Carrell, P. L. (1979). Indirect speech acts in ESL: Indirect answers. In C. A. Yorio, K. Perkins, & J. Schachter (Eds.), *On TESOL '79* (pp. 297-307). Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Chang, Y. F. (2010). 'I no say you say is boring': The development of pragmatic competence in L2 apology. *Language Science, 32*(3), 408-424.

Cheng, S. W. (2005). *An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development of expressions of gratitude by Chinese learners of English*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertations). The University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Eslami, Z. R., Mirzaei, A., & Dini, S. (2015). The role of asynchronous computer mediated communication in the instruction and development of EFL learners' pragmatic competence. *System, 48*, 99-111.

Fan, X. J., & Liu, J. D. (2017). Exploring a method for measuring the interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of learners of Chinese as a foreign language. *Language Teaching and Linguistic Studies*, *6*, 9-19.

Hinkel, E. (1999). *Culture in second language teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Kasper, G & Dahl, M (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*, 215-247.

Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics,   22*(4), 502-530.

Li, L. N. (2004). Study on the speech act of Chinese gratitude and its teaching discussion (Unpublished master's thesis). Jinan University, China

Masaeed, K. A., Waugh L. E., & Burns K. E. (2018). The development of interlanguage pragmatics in L2 Arabic: The production of apology strategies*, System, 74*, 98-108.

Peng, Y. Y., & Gao, X. F. (2018). A review of interlanguage pragmatics studies, *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, 283*, 532-537.

Rose, K. R. (2000). An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development, *SSLA, 22*, 27-67.

Schmidt, R. (1983). Interaction, acculturation, and the acquisition of communicative competence. In N. Wolfson, & E. Judd, (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 137-174). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Sabate, D. M., & Curell G. H. (2007). From "Sorry very much" to "I'm ever so sorry": Acquisitional patterns in L2 apologies by Catalan learners of English. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 4*, 287-315.

Shardakova, M. (2005). Intercultural pragmatics in the speech of American L2 learners of Russian: Apologies offered by Americans in Russian. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 2*(4), 423-451. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/iprg.2005.2.4.423

Sorour, N. (2018). Examining Egyptian ESL leaners' grammatical and pragmatic awareness. *Arab Journal of Applied Linguistics, 3*, 78-104.

Sykes, J. M., & Cohen, A. D. (2018). Strategies and interlanguage pragmatics: Explicit and comprehensive. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 8*(2), 381-402.

Tanaka, N. (1988). Politeness: Some problems for Japanese speakers of English, *JALT Journal, 9*, 81-102.

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics, 4*, 91-112.

Umale, J. (2011). Pragmatic failure in refusal strategies: British versus Omani interlocutors. *Arab World English Journal, 2*(1), 18-46.

Vyatkina, N., & Belz, J. A. (2006). A learner corpus-driven intervention for the development of L2 pragmatic competence. In K. Bardovi-Harlig, J. C. Félix-Brasdefer, & A. Omar (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (pp. 315-357). Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Resource Center, University of Hawai'i.

Xu, L., & Wannaruk A. (2016). Testing university learners' interlanguage pragmatic competence in a Chinese EFL context. *PASAA, 52*, 209-235.

Yus, Francisco. (2013). Cyberpragmatics. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 1-5). Oxford: Blackwell.

AUTHORS

Yonghong Cheng, *Ph.D., Associate Professor of Chinese, the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.*

Yan Wang, *Ed.D., Professor of Chinese, the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.*

Wei Chen, *Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Chinese, the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.*

Collaborative Dialogue in LCTLs: A Case Study of Turkish as a Foreign Language

Talip Gonulal
Erzincan Binali Yildirim University

The beneficial role of collaborative dialogue in second language (L2) writing has been established, with considerable research investigating the role that collaborative writing tasks play in facilitating language learning by promoting language-related episodes (LREs). However, when compared to that of commonly taught languages, research investigating the role and function of collaborative dialogue in less commonly taught languages (LCTLs) contexts is scarce. Therefore, this study explored the collaborative dialogues in an LCTL, Turkish as a Foreign Language (TFL), with a focus on the TFL students' interactional dynamics (i.e., LREs and scaffolding patterns) during collaborative writing activities. The interactions of two fourth year TFL students during the collaborative revision activities were analyzed for LRE types and scaffolding patterns. The results indicated that the TFL students focused more on grammatical structures than on lexical items during LREs. Specific grammatical features of Turkish (e.g., definite and indefinite past tense suffixes, case markers) dominated the grammatical LREs. Moreover, the results revealed that students adopted three different stances (i.e., expert/novice, expert/expert, and novice/novice) during collaborative dialogues, with expert/novice being the most common. Additionally, the TFL students clearly expressed the need for, and importance of, teacher-fronted feedback and comments in LCTLs contexts.

Keywords: *LCTLs, collaborative dialogue, language-related episode, scaffolding, Turkish as a foreign language*

1. INTRODUCTION

Whereas writing is considered to be an individual activity, often supported by teacher feedback, college learners are expected to work collaboratively on written assignments (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012). Over the last decade, pair and small group work has gained popularity in language classrooms (Shehadeh, 2011). Yet the focus of such small group work in classrooms was initially on brainstorming and peer review activities (Dobao, 2012). More recently, there has been a specific focus on the potential roles of collaborative writing in which students in small groups or pairs work together throughout the writing process (Donato, 1994; Gutierrez, 2008; Storch, 2005, 2007; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012; Zhang & Plonsky, 2020).

Collaborative writing is in line with Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of learning. That is, the process which language learners go through during a collaborative writing task is compatible with the two main tenets of sociocultural theory—scaffolding and *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD). In fact, situated within a sociocultural theoretical perspective, research addressing the employment of group and pair work in second language (L2) writing classrooms showed that collaborative writing allows L2 writers to combine their linguistic and compositional knowledge sources, which can result in better written products than they might be able to produce on their own. Swain (2006, 2010) defines such problem-solving activities as *collaborative dialogue* or *languaging*.

Although collaborative writing studies are common in L2 writing literature (e.g., Dobao, 2012; Hanjani & Li, 2014; Shehadeh, 2011; Storch, 2005, 2007; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007; and others), research on the effectiveness of collaborative dialogue in the contexts of less commonly taught languages (LCTLs) is relatively scarce and merits further consideration (Zhang & Plonsky, 2020). One probable reason is that there are not many applied linguists who are comfortable with investigating LCTLs (Gonulal, Spinner & Winke, 2016). Consequently, as Ortega (2009) and Reichelt (2021) have pointed out earlier, there appears to exist a commonly-taught-language bias, particularly toward English as a Second Language (ESL) in second language (L2) writing scholarship. To comprehend the difficulties and challenges in L2 writing and to move the area of L2 writing forward, the scope of L2 writing research should be broadened by focusing on LCTLs writing studies. The present study attempted to address this gap. This study examined the effectiveness of collaborative dialogue in a less commonly taught language, Turkish as a Foreign Language (TFL), with a specific focus on the TFL students' interactional and scaffolding patterns during collaborative revision activities.

1.1.   Collaborative Dialogue and L2 Learning

From a theoretical perspective, the use of pair work and group work in L2 classrooms aligns with several well-known theories and approaches such as interactionist approach and sociocultural theory of learning. According to the supporters of interactionist approaches (e.g., Varonis & Gass, 1985; Long, 1996), L2 interaction is one of the driving forces of L2 learning. Based on Long's (1996) *Interaction Hypothesis*, learners are assumed to benefit from interactional modifications to language that occur especially when there is a breakdown in communication, because such negotiation of meaning combines input, learners' cognitive abilities and output in beneficial ways.

In a similar vein, the sociocultural theory of learning accentuates the function of interaction and particularly collaboration in the process of second language acquisition. From this perspective, learning is considered a socially situated activity, which thus "occurs in rather than as a result of interaction…L2 acquisition is not a purely individual-based process but shared between the individual and other person" (Ellis, 2003, p. 177). That is, higher mental functions are initially social and formed between individuals within the ZPD through targeted scaffolding (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). The ZPD represents "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as

determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). As for scaffolding, it refers to the temporary and dynamic support within the ZPD. The scaffolding used in classroom contexts refers to the interventions that tutors or teachers make within the students' ZPD to facilitate their learning and improve their current knowledge and take skills to a higher level (Gonulal & Loewen, 2018). From a language learning and teaching perspective, novice language learners can co-construct knowledge in collaboration with more competent peers.

Indeed, several studies of collaborative work (e.g., Donato, 1994; Ohta, 2000; Storch, 2002) have reported that learners can positively influence one another's development when working together on a collaborative task where they take the roles of both novice and expert. Learners working collaboratively can pool mental capabilities and therefore boost one another's performance, which in turn creates a better ZPD for any learner in the group (Gonulal & Loewen, 2018; Storch, 2002, 2007). When engaging in collaborative tasks, learners give thought to their language use and attempt to solve their language problems. This process is known as *languaging* or *collaborative dialogue,* which is "the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language" (Swain, 2006, p. 89). Swain argued that collaborative dialogue is a source of L2 learning. Given that, studies (e.g., Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) have investigated the learner interaction with a specific focus on language-related episodes (LREs) in the last decade or so. LREs may be defined as a section of a dialogue in which learners reflect on their target language use by either questioning it or correcting themselves or others (Swain & Lapkin, 1995, 1998). The collaborative interaction that occurs during LREs is an example of languaging and indicates that language learning is in progress (Dobao, 2012; Kim, 2008; Swain & Watanabe, 2012). Indeed, as McDonough (2004) noted:

> Pair and small group activities provide learners with more time to speak the target language than teacher-fronted activities, promote learner autonomy and self-directed learning, and give instructors opportunities to work with individual learners. In addition, learners may feel less anxious and more confident when interacting with peers during pair or small group activities than during whole-class discussions (p. 208).

Furthermore, there is a growing body of research examining the potential of collaborative work in L2 writing (Dobao, 2012; Hanjani & Li, 2014; Shehadeh, 2011; Storch, 2005, 2007; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007; Wiggleworth & Storch, 2009). Most existing studies on pair work and group work in L2 writing indicate that learners in pairs produced higher quality texts than those produced by individual learners. Moreover, collaborative writing has been found enjoyable and useful by L2 writers in many ways. Overall, the studies investigating the merits of collaborative tasks in commonly taught languages contexts indicate that the collaborative pair and group work offer numerous benefits to L2 learners.

1.2.   Collaborative Dialogue in LCTLs

As the name suggests, a less-commonly-taught language (LCTL) refers to a language that is taught infrequently, depending on time and place. Languages other than English, Spanish,

German, and French are often labelled less-commonly-taught languages. Among these are Arabic, Russian, Japanese, and Turkish. Because of changing political and economic developments, specific LCTLs may receive more attention by language learners than do others. For instance, an increased interest in teaching and learning Arabic, Russian, and Persian Farsi in the U.S. has been witnessed in recent years (Wang, 2009). Regardless of the varying popularity among LCTLs, learning and teaching a LCTL can be a challenging experience when compared to learning and teaching more commonly taught languages because LCTLs typically have limited materials (e.g., well-designed textbooks) and fewer online and other resources (Gonulal et al., 2016). For this reason, both instructor- and classroom-interactions are important to LCTLs.

As highlighted in the previous section, collaborative dialogue research has extensively addressed the frequency, type, and resolution of LREs as well as the interactional dynamics within ESL (Storch 2007; Storch and Wigglesworth 2007), EFL (Hanjani & Li, 2014; Shehadeh, 2011), Spanish (Dobao, 2012) and French (Swain & Lapkin, 1995, 1998) settings. To expand the empirical base of collaborative work, the focus of collaborative dialogue studies should be directed not only to commonly taught languages, but also to those less commonly taught. Ortega (2009) clearly pointed out the importance of such a focus shift by stating:

> In many reports, knowledge about English as a Second Language (ESL) writing gets naturalized inadvertently as being about L2 writing more generally, with the implication that it is universally valid and easily generalizable across writing contexts, including FL and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Thus, we cannot but recognize a decided ESL bias in much L2 writing scholarship (pp. 232-233).

Consequently, few collaborative dialogue studies to date have looked at the domain of less-commonly-taught languages. One example is Kim and McDonough's (2008) study conducted with eight L2 learners of Korean, which is also a LCTL. Kim and McDonough examined the effects of different proficiency levels (i.e., intermediate and advanced levels) on the occurrence and resolution of LREs and the patterns of interaction dynamics. The results indicated that there were more occurrences of lexical LREs when the Korean learners were paired with advanced learners than with intermediate learners. Similarly, the rate of correct solution of the LREs was also remarkably higher when the Korean learners were matched with advanced learners. Furthermore, the pair dynamics varied depending on the proficiency levels. One finding about the lexical LREs was that the focus was mostly on pronunciation and spelling, which was partly attributed to the distinct characteristics of Korean.

In a more recent LCTL study, Loewen and Gonulal (2014) investigated the occurrence of negotiation of meaning and LREs in L2 spoken interactions with four college-level learners of Turkish. The participants, working in native speaker and non-native speaker (NS-NNS) dyads (i.e., expert-novice), completed two communicative tasks (i.e., *spot the differences* task and *my favorite things* task). The results showed that the focus of the negotiation of meaning and LREs was mostly on the definitions of lexical items in cases of the first-year Turkish learners, whereas the number of LREs with a morphosyntactic focus was larger in the interactions of the second-year Turkish learners. The lower-level learners probably did not focus on the formal aspects of

the language because they considered vocabulary the driving force in communicative activities.

As illustrated in these two studies, the collaborative dialogue research in LCTLs might shed a different light on the nature and frequency of LREs and scaffolding dynamics. However, further research is needed in this area. Considering that **t**he purpose of this study was to explore Turkish-as-a-Foreign-Language (TFL) students' interactional dynamics (i.e., scaffolding strategies, language-related episodes) during collaborative revision interactions and their perceptions of the use of collaborative revision activities in classroom, the following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the nature of the TFL students' interaction when working on a collaborative revision activity?
2. How do the TFL students perceive a collaborative revision task?

2. METHOD

2.1. Participants and Context

The study took place at a large American university with students who were studying Turkish as a foreign language. Two[1] American students from the fourth-year Turkish class participated in this study. Gamze[2] was in the first semester of her first year in the dual program of Economics and Art History, whereas Burak was a third-year Ph.D. student in the History department. Gamze started learning Turkish at the age of twelve and could speak other foreign languages, including German and Latin. On the other hand, Burak started learning Turkish when he was 22 years old. Burak also studied other foreign languages, namely German, Latin, French, and Hungarian. Both participants had approximately six years of training in Turkish, although they were at various stages in their majors. As there was no well-designed test to measure participants' knowledge of Turkish, they were asked to self-rate their Turkish language proficiency. For Gamze, listening and speaking averaged five, whereas reading and writing averaged four out of six. As for Burak, all skills except for speaking averaged four. Burak self-rated his speaking skill as the lowest, three out of six. Although the self-rated level of speaking between the students seems to be drastically different, their actual speaking performance in classes and activities was similar, if not equal.

At the time of the study, the participants were taking a fourth-year Turkish course that was offered to higher-level learners. The course was taught by a native Turkish speaker with several years of experience of teaching Turkish as a foreign language. The class had two students and met twice a week for two hours in each session. Students were engaged each week in reading- and speaking-integrated writing activities for one hour; that is, the instructor assigned a reading passage as a first step, and then students working in pairs discussed it. Students were also required to author an argumentative/opinion essay based on the reading passage and classroom discussion. The instructor usually provided written corrective feedback on the students' essays, with implicit feedback being the most common type.

2.2. Procedures

The present study, over a four-week period, consisted of five distinct phases. In the first phase, the participants were assigned to read an authentic newspaper article on the conversion of Hagia Sophia[3] back into a mosque. In the second phase, the participants were asked to draft an argumentative essay. The writing prompt was "Should Hagia Sophia be converted into a mosque or maintained as a museum? Why or why not?" The reason this prompt was chosen was simply because the participants showed high interest in this topic, and they had been to this place a couple of times when they visited Turkey. After authoring the essays, the participants were asked to engage in a peer review activity. In this third phase of the study, they swapped their essays and evaluated their peer's essay in terms of content, organization, and language use. In the next phase, the participants engaged in a collaborative revision activity, in which they provided the author of the essay with written and oral feedback. Although there were several code-switching and code-mixing occurrences, English was the primary medium of communication. The collaborative dialogues during the student-fronted revision activities were audio recorded. In the final stage, the participants revised their essays based on their peer's comments and suggestions. Furthermore, the participants were asked to fill out a background questionnaire and were interviewed to further investigate their perceptions and experiences of the collaborative writing tasks.

2.3. Data Analysis and Coding

The data for the present study came from three sources—the essays (two initial drafts and two final drafts), the recorded interactions (about 70 minutes), and the interviews. The recorded dyadic interactions were examined to identify and classify the TFL students' revision behaviors. More specifically, following the work of Swain and Lapkin (1995, 1998) and Dobao (2012), the recorded dyadic interactions were transcribed and analyzed for language-related episodes (LREs). An LRE was operationalized as any segment of the pair dialogue where the focus is on language use. LREs were further categorized based on what the participants focused on. Three types of LREs were identified: form-focused, lexis-focused, and mechanics-focused (see Appendix). When the participants talked about the grammatical aspects of the language such as word order, verb tenses, case markers, and word endings carrying syntactic roles, the LRE was coded as form-focused (F-LREs). As for the lexis-focused LRE (L-LRE), it refers to a segment of the interaction where the participants dealt with meanings and choices of words or phrases. In the mechanics-focused LRE (M-LRE), the focus is on spelling and punctuation problems.

In addition to the frequency, the resolution of the LREs was also coded according to whether they were correctly resolved, unresolved, or incorrectly resolved following the work of Swain (1998) and Leeser (2004). As illustrated in the descriptions of the three types of LREs (see Appendix), correctly resolved refers to an LRE where the speakers solve the problem or questions correctly either through self-correction or peer correction.

As for the unresolved LREs, the speakers identify the existence of a problem with the language use but cannot solve it. As illustrated in Example 1, both speakers agreed that there was a problem with the phrase (*Onun hayat boyunca)* [throughout his life] but could not solve the case marker issue here. The first speaker suggested using a dative case marker (*hayat<u>ına</u>*) [to his life] but neither of the speakers was sure about this suggestion.

Example 1: Unresolved LRE

> S1: You have something confusing here. *Onun hayat boyunca* [throughout his life] and I am not sure whether it should be *onun hayatına* [to his life].
> S2: Yeah, I am not sure.
> S1: That was the one I was not sure about.
> S2: Yeah, I see.
> S1: I feel like there should be '*n*' somewhere.
> S1: I am not sure.
> S2: Yeah, I am not sure either.

An incorrectly resolved LRE refers to the interaction where the speakers agree on an incorrect solution to a language-related problem, as presented in Example 2. In this dialogue, the first speaker pointed out that there was an issue with the sentence (*Bunu yapmak isteyenlerin üç tane teşviki var)* [Those who want to do this have three incentives] and the solution on which both speakers agreed was to include a pronominal suffix (-ki) to create a relative clause. Although there was a problem in this sentence, the speakers' solution was incorrect because the problem was pertinent to the wrong choice of word (*teşvik*) [incentive]. The correct word should have been *amaç* [purpose].

Example 2: Incorrectly resolved LRE

> S1: *Bunu yapmak isteyenlerin üç tane teşviki var* [Those who want to do this have three incentives]. This is confusing. I am not quite sure, but you should use '-ki' [a pronominal suffix] here.
> S2: Yeah.
> S1: So, here I think it should be *isteyenler ki üç tane tesviki var* [those have three incentives]. Like those who wanted.
> S2: Yeah, it sounds kinda true.

Following the work of Donato (1994), and Storch (2002, 2005), the LREs were further analyzed to investigate the nature of scaffolding patterns (e.g., expert/expert, expert/novice) that appeared during dialogues in pairs. In addition, the interview data went through an in-depth analysis to provide further evidence of the participants' collaborative revision behaviors.

3. RESULTS

3.1. The Frequency of LREs

The analysis of the interactions that occurred during the collaborative revision activity revealed a total of 39 LREs. The TFL students focused on grammatical structures (56%) more than they did on lexical items (36%). That is, the number of F-LREs was 22, whereas the number of L-LREs was 14. However, the mechanical aspects of language (M-LREs) had the lowest frequency. Of these 39 LREs, (64%) were solved, but approximately a quarter of the LREs was not solved. In addition, 10% of LREs was incorrectly resolved.

Table 1
The Frequency of LREs During Collaborative Revision Activity

	Correctly Resolved	Incorrectly Resolved	Unresolved	Total
F-LREs	14	2	6	22 (56%)
L-LREs	8	2	4	14 (36%)
M-LREs	3	0	0	3 (8%)
Total	25 (64%)	4 (10%)	10 (26%)	39

Form-focused LREs (F-LREs)

The problems related to morphological aspects of Turkish such as verb tense, verb form, and case markers received the most attention during the F-LREs. As can be seen in Excerpt 1, the TFL students discussed when to use the two suffixes of the Turkish past simple tense, *-dı* (seen past tense or definite past tense) and *-mış* (indefinite past tense). Burak suggested that the use of the indefinite past tense suffix might be more appropriate in the sentence *Ayasofyan'ın 3.326.591 ziyaretçi vardı* [Hagia Sophia had received 3.326.591 visitors].

Excerpt 1 (Gamze's essay)

Burak: And then, this might be unnecessary but in formal Turkish *vardı* [there was/were] would be used.
Gamze: Oh yeah, *vardı*, not just *var.*
Burak: Yes.
Gamze: I usually don't use them in this way.
Burak: Yeah. Uhhm and then another suggestion might be to turn these tenses into *'-mış'* (indefinite past tense).
Gamze: *'-mış'*?
Burak: Yeah, I know the logic behind using this tense but then I am not certain when I should use it.
Gamze: I guess we use this tense when you have not directly seen the action.
Burak: Oh, I see. Then, here, *Ayasofyan'ın 3.326.591 ziyaretçi vardı* [Hagia Sophia had received 3.326.591 visitors], there might be a *'-mış'*.

Gamze: Yeah, right.
Burak: Because you are not directly experiencing it, you are getting it from various sources. I think that would be *'-mış'*.
Gamze: Yeah, I agree.

Although it was Burak who suggested to use the *'-mış'* tense in the first place, he was not sure where and when to use it. Gamze agreed with Burak and provided a good explanation about the proper use of the *'-mış'* tense. At the end of their discussion, both agreed that the *'-mış'* tense should be used for that specific sentence.

Lexis-focused LREs (L-LREs)

In terms of the L-LREs, the participants focused mostly on the choices of words. The TFL students commented on several misused words and suggested different phrases and words. Excerpt 2 is representative of how the two students tried to resolve the wrong choice of words.

Excerpt 2 (Burak's essay)

Gamze: I am not sure whether this word is correctly used.
Burak: Which one?
Gamze: *ve tarihsel yapında* [in your historical body].
Burak: Ok?
Gamze: I guess *yapında* [in your body] means something different.
Burak: Huhhm.
Gamze: It should be *yapıda [in this structure].*
Burak: Oh, I see, yeah, I see now.

In the excerpt above, Gamze drew Burak's attention to the word *yapında* [in your body] and provided explicit correction by suggesting the word *yapıda* [in this structure]. Burak seemed convinced by Gamze's explicit feedback.

Mechanics-focused LREs (M-LREs)

The last type of LREs dealt with mechanical aspects of writing such as punctuation, and spelling. Excerpt 3 shows an example of an M-LRE where the two students shared their individual experiences of switching back and forth between Turkish and English keyboards when they wrote.

Excerpt 3 (Gamze's essay)

Burak: The quotation marks here "tamam, olsun" look…
Gamze: Oh, sorry for that mistake. Switching to a different keyboard is…I really gave it up.
Burak: Yeah, it really is annoying when I write a lot…when I write a paper that has a lot of German and Turkish, and then I switch back to… when I write in English, it happens to me

too. It is difficult.
Gamze: Yeah, agree.

In this excerpt, Burak pointed out the wrong use of quotation marks in Gamze's essay. Gamze realizes that the source of this typo was due to using two different keyboards at the same time. Burak comforted Gamze by sharing his experience with writing papers that include German and Turkish words.

3.2. The Nature of Scaffolding Strategies in LREs

The LREs that occurred during the revision activities were further analyzed to identify the instances and nature of scaffolding that the TFL students provided during the negotiations of meaning and LREs. A detailed micro-level analysis revealed that the equality of contribution and the level of mutuality differed in some LREs. More specifically, the analysis resulted in three different patterns of scaffolding. Following the work of Donato (1994), and Storch (2002, 2005), these patterns were labeled as *expert/novice*, *novice/novice,* and *expert/expert*.

In *expert/novice* scaffolding, which constitutes the largest types of scaffolding in this study, the level of equality and mutuality were slightly lower than that of *novice/novice* and *expert/expert* scaffolding. As the label suggests, one participant took on a leading (expert) role whereas the other participant played the part of a novice. Thus, in such scaffolding instances, the contribution of one of the participants was limited, and the other one dominated the negotiations. However, the roles of expert and novice changed throughout the collaborative revision activity. That is, one participant was not always in the role of expert or novice.

Excerpt 4 illustrates an *expert/novice* scaffolding pattern. Burak obviously took an expert role in this form focused LRE by offering an explanation of the distinction between active *sayabilir* structure [it counts] and passive *sayılabilir* structure [it can be counted].

Excerpt 4 (Gamze's essay, F-LRE)

Burak: So, I guess here, uhhhm, *ikinci grup için başarı sayabilir* [for the second group, it counts success] so, uhhm *sayılabilir* [can be counted]*?*
Gamze: Hhhm.
Burak: I think it would make more sense to...uhm to use passive there.
Gamze: *Sayılabilir* [can be counted] instead of *sayabilir* [it counts]?
Burak: Yeah, so, it would mean 'for the second group, it can be counted as a victory.'
Gamze: Oh yeah, it is a good idea.
Burak: Yeah, we should have a passive structure there.
Gamze: Yeah, sure.

Burak clearly dominated this F-LRE, as can be seen from his long turns and convincing explanation and suggestion. Gamze took a novice and a passive role in that she agreed with what Burak suggested.

As for the *novice/novice* scaffolding, neither of the students dominated the interactions. In fact, they were hesitant to provide any suggestions or explanations. Instead, they decided to seek help from the instructor. This scaffolding pattern occurred mostly in lexis-focused LREs and occasionally in form-focused LREs.

Excerpt 5 comes from a lexis focused LRE and illustrates a *novice/novice* pattern of scaffolding. This excerpt shows an elevated level of uncertainty among the participants regarding the correct use of the word *ideal* [utopia].

Excerpt 5 (Gamze's essay, L-LRE)

Burak: So, here I am confused a little bit.
Gamze: Yes?
Burak: *Bir yönde Atatürk'ün siyasi idealar* [from one perspective, Ataturk's political ideas], uhhm ideal? Like idea, uhhm, or ideal?
Gamze: No, like idea.
Burak: So... is that…
Gamze: Well, I am not sure.
Burak: Is that uhhhm, I have never seen that word before.
Gamze: I feel like I might have seen this word in a Turkish context.
Burak: Uhhm, I feel it is more like an English word.
Gamze: You may be right. We should get help from the teacher.

As the excerpt shows, the two participants were equally unsure of whether the use of *idealar* [ideas] is acceptable. Neither could provide a solution or a better suggestion, so they decided to get help from the instructor.

As for the *expert/expert* scaffolding, the level of mutuality and equality was high in that the students were able to solve the language-related problems. In such instances, the students spent less time on reaching mutually acceptable solutions because they combined their linguistic sources at a higher level of achievement. For example, in Excerpt 6 below, Burak and Gamze discussed whether the use of *azaltıyor* [to decrease] instead of *azaltmıyor* [not to decrease] was correct. They quickly reached a solution that was mutually acceptable. This excerpt is also rich in terms of confirmations, repairs, and explanations. Further, the flow of contribution is bilateral.

Excerpt 6 (Burak's essay, F-LRE)

Gamze: Can I say *azaltmıyor* [does not decrease] here?
Burak: Let's see, *iki kültür/din arasındaki farkı uzlaştırıyor ama azaltıyor* [it serves as a bridge between two cultures/religions but it decreases/harms].
Gamze: *Azaltmıyor* [does not decrease].
Burak: I said *azaltıyor* [it decreases]. Well, that's unfortunate.
Gamze: Yeah.
Burak: I meant *azaltmıyor* [does not decrease]. The sentence requires a negative from.

3.3. Learner's Perceptions of Collaborative Revision Activity

After the collaborative revision activities, the participants were interviewed to explore their perceptions of the collaborative work. Although the participants were familiar with the pair work in their Turkish classes (as there were only two students in class and they paired up to complete most of the classroom activities), providing feedback on their peer's essay, and then jointly revising the essays was something new. Therefore, the participants were asked how they felt about the peer review process and whether they found it useful.

Both participants reported that although they had not had any collaborative revision tasks for a foreign language before, they were accustomed to collaborative work mostly in spoken discourse throughout high school and college. Burak stated that when he taught, he usually had his students do collaborative group or pair work in his content classes (i.e., history-related classes). Overall, both participants had positive feelings about the collaborative revision tasks and found them useful in several ways. For example, working in collaboration with a peer helped them find solutions to language-related problems. Gamze stated that "two heads are better than one" to highlight the benefits of collaborative work. In addition, Burak reported how they combined their knowledge resources: "We do not have overlapping skill areas. So, she [Gamze] is much better at colloquial Turkish and I tend to know more about grammar. So, together we were able to correct each other's mistakes. That was very helpful."

However, both participants also explicitly stated that for some language issues the scaffolding that they received from their peer was inadequate to solve the problem. For instance, Gamze reported that "in some cases, we both knew something was wrong but didn't know how to fix it." Both participants agreed that they needed the instructor's scaffolding particularly for some lexical items at some points of the peer revision processes.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study attempted to investigate two high-level TFL students' collaborative revision activities through the lens of sociocultural theory. More specifically, the TFL students' revision behaviors and interaction patterns were examined, with a specific focus on the language-related episodes and the patterns of scaffolding. This study also approached the potential of collaborative revision from the students' perspectives. Following Ortega's (2009) recommendation that "we can only hope that knowledge about L2 writing will eventually be built on a broader base that includes insights from a wide range of school, university, workplace and virtual settings in varied FL contexts" (p. 233), this study was an attempt to extend the collaborative revision research to less-commonly-taught languages, which is an area about which we know so little.

Overall, the analysis of the interactions between the students revealed that collaborative revision tasks provided Turkish learners with several opportunities in which they questioned, assessed, and confirmed their language use, and provided a variety of feedback and comments

to each other. Indeed, several studies (e.g., Kim, 2008; Swain & Lapkin, 1995, 1998; Storch, 2007) have provided evidence that these language-related dialogues between the pairs can impact their language learning process. The analysis of the LREs indicated that solving grammatical, lexical, and mechanical issues, and providing explicit feedback on these issues received the TFL students' attention. More specifically, the grammatical LREs were more common, closely followed by lexical LREs. However, the focus of F-LREs was on slightly different grammatical structures (e.g., case markers) when compared to other collaborative writing studies conducted within commonly-taught-languages contexts. Certain grammatical structures of the Turkish language such as case markers (e.g., nominative, accusative, locative, dative, genitive, and ablative) and definite/indefinite past simple tense suffixes (i.e., –dı and –mış) have been reported to pose challenges for English speakers of Turkish (Gonulal et al., 2016; Haznedar, 2006). Further, since Turkish is an agglutinative language where morphemes are bound to nouns or verbs to denote tense, case, person, pluralization and so forth, the TFL students might have had to spend more time on the F-LREs. This finding is partially supported by Kim and McDonough's (2008) study in which the learners of Korean, another agglutinative language, also focused more on the grammatical LREs.

In addition, the analysis of the scaffolding patterns during the LREs also suggested that students took on three different stances (i.e., *expert/novice*, *expert/expert*, and *novice/novice*), with *expert/novice* being the most common. It is worth noting that these three patterns of scaffolding were fluid throughout the interactions that occurred during the collaborative revision activity. In other words, the participants exhibited varying roles in different LREs depending on their level of knowledge of the issues addressed in each LRE. Indeed, this finding aligns with several previous studies on collaborative work and scaffolding (e.g., Dobao, 2012; Donato, 1994; Storch, 2002, 2007; Shehadeh, 2011).

Another important finding is that the students found the collaborative revision activities beneficial for their language development. This echoes the findings of Storch's (2005) and Shehadeh's (2011) studies in which most of the students in their studies were quite supportive of the collaborative writing tasks. However, in this study, the participants clearly stated that peer scaffolding should be supported by teacher scaffolding in collaborative writing activities, particularly in a less-commonly-taught-language context probably because it is not easy to find reliable and suitable resources and hence the native speaker (the teacher) is considered a highly valuable resource (see also Morra & Romano, 2008). In such cases, computer-mediated collaborative activities might also be considered because using online resources (e.g., chatrooms, applications, *Massive Open Online Courses*: MOOCs) might help LCTL learners connect geographically remote more knowledgeable LCTL learners or teachers (Hsieh, 2017, 2020; Ward, 2018).

Although this study sheds light on the potential of collaborative revision activities in LCTL contexts, there are several limitations that need to be acknowledged. First, this study was limited to only two participants due to the nature of small class size in many LTCLs. Whereas some LCTLs such as Arabic, Russian, and Farsi have been considered as critical languages in the U.S. and have, therefore, received substantial attention by English speakers in recent years (Wang, 2009), most

LCTLs suffer from low enrollment. One potential solution for this might be that future studies can take on a more longitudinal orientation. In addition, this small-scale study exclusively examined the pair talk data between high-level Turkish learners. However, interactions with Turkish learners at different proficiency levels might yield different patterns in terms of the nature of LREs (e.g., the amount and quality of contributions everyone makes, the rate of reaching a mutually acceptable solutions), the scaffolding strategies, and their perceptions about collaborative dialogue with learners at various levels.

Despite these limitations, this small-scale study makes an important contribution not only to the context of Turkish as a foreign language but also the larger field of LCTLs. When viewed in its entirety, the current study indicates that the collaborative dialogues during revision activities can be useful in LCTL classrooms. Specifically, through collaborative revision tasks, students may have more language learning opportunities through active participation and constructive interaction. More importantly, students can receive and deliver feedback and comments on their language use. This mutual scaffolding process will make learners more responsive to the teacher feedback, which is still considered to be an important source, especially in LCTL contexts. Further research is needed to confirm the findings of this study and to expand the empirical basis of collaborative work by targeting other LCTLs.

NOTES

1. The class consisted of only two students.
2. Both names are pseudonyms.
3. The Hagia Sophia is one the most popular historical sites in Turkey and is famous for its enormous dome.

REFERENCES

Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 465–487.

Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33–56). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Dobao, F. A. (2012). Collaborative writing tasks in the L2 classroom: Comparing group, pair, and individual work. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 21*, 40–58.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford university press.

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, *51*(2), 281-318.

Gonulal, T., & Loewen, S. (2018). Scaffolding technique. In J. I. Liontas (Ed.) *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching* (pp. 1-5). https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0180

Gonulal, T., Spinner, P., & Winke, P. (2016). To err is human: An error analysis approach to Turkish as an L2. *The Journal of NCOLCTL, 20*(2), 107-131.

Gutierrez, X. (2008). What does metalinguistic activity in learners' interaction during a collaborative L2 writing task look like? *The Modern Language Journal, 92*, 519-537.

Hanjani, A. M., & Li, L. (2014). Exploring L2 writers' collaborative revision interactions and their writing performance. *System*, *44*, 101-114.

Haznedar, B. (2006). Persistent problems with case morphology in L2 acquisition. In C. Lleó (Ed), *Interfaces in multilingualism: Acquisition and representation* (pp. 179-206). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Hsieh, Y. C. (2017). A case study of the dynamics of scaffolding among ESL learners and online resources in collaborative learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *30*(1-2), 115-132.

Hsieh, Y. C. (2020). Learner interactions in face-to-face collaborative writing with the support of online resources. *ReCALL*, *32*(1), 85-105.

Kim, Y. (2008). The contribution of collaborative and individual tasks to the acquisition of L2 vocabulary. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*, 114–130.

Kim, Y., & McDonough, K. (2008). The effect of interlocutor proficiency on the collaborative dialogue between Korean as a second language learners. *Language Teaching Research*, *12*(2), 211-234.

Leeser, M. J. (2004). Learner proficiency and focus on form during collaborative dialogue. *Language Teaching Research*, *8*(1), 55-81.

Loewen, S., & Gonulal, T. (2014, August). *Task-based interaction in Turkish*. Paper presented at International Association of Applied Linguistics conference (AILA), Brisbane, Australia.

Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York, NY: Academic.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *19*(1), 37-66.

McDonough, K. (2004). Learner-learner interaction during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context. *System, 32*, 207–224.

Morra, A. M., & Romano, M. E. (2008). University students' reactions to guided peer feedback and EAP compositions. *Journal of College Literacy & Learning, 35*, 19-**3**0.

Ohta, A. S. (2000). Rethinking interaction in SLA: Developmentally appropriate assistance in the zone of proximal development and the acquisition of L2 grammar. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 51–78). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ortega, L. (2009). Studying writing across EFL contexts: Looking back and moving forward. In R. M. Manchon (Ed.), *Writing in foreign language contexts: Learning, teaching, and research* (pp. 232–255). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Reichelt, M. (2021). Linguistic bias against ESL writing? In G. Clements & M. J. Petray (Eds.), *Linguistic discrimination in US higher education* (pp. 20-37). New York, NY: Routledge.

Shehadeh, A. (2011). Effects and student perceptions of collaborative writing in L2. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 20*, 286-305.

Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language Learning, 52*(1), 119-158.

Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 14,* 153–173.

Storch, N. (2007). Investigating the merits of pair work on a text editing task in ESL classes. *Language Teaching Research, 11*, 143–159.

Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2007). Writing tasks: Comparing individual and collaborative writing. In M. P. García Mayo (Ed.), *Investigating tasks in formal language learning* (pp. 157–177). London, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Swain, M. (2006). Languaging, agency and collaboration in advanced language proficiency. In H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Advanced language learning: The contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky* (pp. 95–108). New York, NY: Continuum.

Swain, M. (2010). Talking it through: Languaging as a source of second language learning. In R. Batstone (Ed.), *Sociocognitive perspectives on second language learning and use* (pp. 112–129). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 16*(3), 371-391.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*, 320–337.

Swain, M., & Watanabe, Y. (2012). Languaging: Collaborative dialogue as a source of second language learning. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Varonis, E. M., & Gass, S. (1985). Non-native/non-native conversations: A model for negotiation of meaning. *Applied Linguistics*, *6*(1), 71-90.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wang, S. C. (2009). Preparing and supporting teachers of less commonly taught languages. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*(2), 282-287.

Ward, M. (2018). Qualitative research in less commonly taught and endangered language CALL. *Language Learning & Technology*, *22*(2), 116-132.

Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N. (2009). Pair versus individual writing: Effects on fluency, complexity, and accuracy. *Language Testing, 26*, 445–466.

Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N. (2012). What role for collaboration in writing and writing feedback? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *21*(4), 364-374.

Zhang, M., & Plonsky, L. (2020). Collaborative writing in face-to-face settings: A substantive and methodological review. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 49*, 100753. doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100753

APPENDIX

The Three Types of LREs

1. An example of form-focused LRE (F-LRE)

In the following dialogue, the first speaker (S1) highlighted an ungrammatical sentence that the second speaker (S2) wrote and explained that the sentence required a genitive case marker [-in] and a dative case marker [-ne] (i.e., birin<u>in</u> seçilmesi<u>ne</u>).

> S1: There seems to be an issue here: *Bence, aslında, diğer yollardan birisini seçilmesi gerek yoktur* [In my opinion there is no need chosen one way of others].
> S2: Hhhm.
> S1: *Birisini seçilmesi gerek yoktur* [there is no need chosen one way of others].
> S2: *Birini seçmek gerek yoktur?* [To choose one is not needed?]
> S1: Hhhhm, we can say that *birinin seçilmesine gerek yoktur* [one of them doesn't have to be chosen]. A dative case marker needed here, I guess.
> S2: Uhhhm, OK, *birinin seçilmesine* [one of them being chosen].
> S1: Yeah, *birinin seçilmesine* [one of them being chosen].
> S2: Oh yeah, that is true.

2. An example of lexis-focused LRE (L-RE)

The dialogue below exemplifies the speakers' interaction over a wrong choice of word (*bitmek*) [to finish], and the first speaker provided a more appropriate word (*son*) [the end] for the context.

> S1: So, here: *Kurtulus Savaşı bittiğine kadar* [Until the Independence War finishing]. I feel like there is a problem here.
> S2: Hhhhm, let me read it again.
> S1: *Bittiğine* [finishing]…I think we need to use a different word here.
> S2: *Bittiğinde* [finished]?
> S1: Hhhhm, I would use the word *son* [end].
> S2: *Sonu*? [the end]
> S1: Yeah, *sonuna kadar* [until the end].
> S2: Yeah, right.
> S1: *Kurutlus Savaşı sonuna kadar* [until the end of the Independence War].

3. An example of mechanics-focused LRE (M-LRE)

The speakers in the dialogue below were discussing the correct spelling of a Turkish word *(rol*) [role] considering Turkish vowel harmony, and then the first speaker noted that this word might not be a real Turkish word and thus did not follow the Turkish vowel harmony rule.

S1: I guess you also noticed this one *bu rolu* [this role].
S2: So, a different word instead of *rol* [role]?
S1: No, the word is correct, but the spelling...
S2: *Rolu* [the role]?
S1: There should be dots: *rolü* [role].
S2: Hhhm. *Neden? Bunu aslında anlamıyorum* [Why? Actually, I don't get it]. It ends with '*o,*' so when it takes a suffix…
S1: I think this is not a Turkish word, a borrowed word.
S2: Uhhh, ok, ok, I got it now.

AUTHOR

Talip Gonulal, *Ph.D., Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics, English Language Teaching program, Erzincan Binali Yildirim University. Research interests: technology-enhanced language learning and teaching, quantitative research methods, and humor and Turkish as foreign language. Email: talip.gonulal@erzincan.edu.tr*

REVIEW

Brave New Digital Classroom: Technology and Foreign Language Learning (Third Edition). By Robert J. Blake and Gabriel Guillén (2020). Georgetown University Press. p. 231.

Reviewed by **David Masters**, *University of Texas at San Antonio*

As COVID-19 spread and obviated face-to-face instruction, L2 education was introduced to digital spaces at an unprecedented pace. Many educators who had previously provided language training in face-to-face formats needed to adapt quickly to the evolving academic landscape in which Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) was a de facto component of instruction. The limited understanding of CALL held by many L2 instructors prior to this global crisis is certainly no longer acceptable when considering the transition to remote learning, not only because of the pace required by teachers to adapt, but also because they may not have had adequate time to assess available resources. Now, as we return to face-to-face instruction, we must carefully and continuously evaluate the CALL techniques and material selection that best supports student L2 development. Educators owe it to their students and institutions to develop a thorough understanding of the general principles surrounding how and why technology is important so that amid the ever-expanding array of resources they will use only the most appropriate in L2 classrooms. This book, *Brave New Digital Classroom: Technology and Foreign Language Learning,* provides a framework for L2 instructors to understand technological applications and make informed choices about their incorporation, whether in remote/digital formats or face-to-face instruction.

This edition, written from an interactionist theory perspective, frames human interaction with technology in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) contexts through a prism, deconstructing the psyche into six facets or "phylogenetically evolved human qualities" (p. x), each of which responds differently but productively to the use of technology in L2 development. These six facets are discussed at length by chapter: *1) Homo Loquens: The Speaker of Tongues; 2) Homo Analyticus*: *The L2 Analyst; 3) Homo Socius: The Social Human; 4) Homo Faber: The Tool User*; *5) Homo Ludens: The Game Player;* and *6) (Homo Fabulans: The Storyteller).* A noteworthy weakness is that the authors do not indicate how they derived these qualities, yet as a typology to enhance

the practitioner's ability to conceptualize the field, it may be helpful. This ties into the book's general purpose, which is not as a strictly academic text, but as an engaging and interactive one. The chapters conclude with thought-provoking discussion questions, activities, and links to additional materials. Although this audience could have been more explicitly stated, the references for further reading represent a solid survey of the field suitable for both pre-service and active L2 educators, particularly those working in higher education in the United States.

Chapter 1 *(Homo Loquens: The Speaker of Tongues)* and Chapter 2 *(Homo Analyticus: The L2 Analyst)* provide an overview of the ways technology can be leveraged to increase "comprehended input (as opposed to mere comprehensible input)" (p. 31), increasing student exposure to target language materials to facilitate learning. However, the authors contend that basic computer literacy skills, although important, are inadequate in the search for, and use of, effective materials. Instead, consumers of technology must develop *critical literacy* skills to make informed choices about what is valuable in the vast array of materials available. To this end, the authors provide several helpful recommendations and examples of how instructors may evaluate resources. Among these is a conveniently organized table (p. 39) from Rosell-Aguilar's (2017) work, listing essential questions for teachers to ask when evaluating language learning technology, framed around language learning, pedagogy, user experience, and technology.

Chapter 3 (*Homo Socius: The Social Human*) addresses language learning as a social act and technology's consequent role as an enabler of communication, be it between native and non-native speakers of a language or between non-native speakers. This chapter focuses on the various forms of computer-mediated communication (CMC) and from this perspective, language learning is not merely a question of one's "acquisition" of vocabulary and morphology, but a dynamic and interactive process whereby we acquire the means of communication with others, regardless of medium. The authors emphasize the way CMC is differentiated from face-to-face communication, with case studies that illustrate how text chat features during live synchronous lessons have created a novel opportunity for collaborative discourse and problem-solving during L2 instruction.

Chapters 4 (*Homo Faber: The Tool User*) and 5 (*Homo Ludens: The Game Player*) evaluate the efficacy of specific CALL resources, with a particular eye on the distinction between *tutorial CALL*, or human-to-computer interactions in the process of furthering L2 competencies, and *social CALL*, in which digital environments are the basis for human-to-human interactions. Blake and Guillén provide a detailed look at specific programs and apps on the market and their viability for supporting vocabulary, pronunciation, writing, and general comprehension. Importantly, they note that "interactivity is the essential quality of an effective CALL program" (p. 123) and suggest that a significant component of tutorial CALL's efficacy is in its ability to encourage users to engage is *social* CALL. This manifests in the chapter on the gamification of language learning, which has long been an area of inquiry nested within CALL research (Gee, 2003; Surface, Dierdorff & Watson, 2007; Reinhardt, 2019). Here, they present several options that have been explored to merge gaming with L2 learning outcomes. These gaming options include both those built specifically for L2 development, and games which merely facilitate social CALL interactions. Although they make a solid case for the *potential* of gaming to enhance learners' L2 competencies,

their examples remain vague and somewhat dated, limiting the value of their contributions. They also raise a strong concern that the cost and time to develop L2-oriented games may be prohibitive for the widespread use of games for L2 learning, but for this problem they offer no solution.

Chapter 6 *(Homo Fabulans: The Storyteller)* is an analysis of the ways in which writing, enabled by digital media, forms a crucial component of students' development. Blake and Guillén continue the discussion of tutorial CALL from Chapter 4, identifying several tools available for automated writing evaluation, but far more productive are their recommendations of tools available to L2 teachers for encouraging both individual and collaborative writing projects. The focus on digitally enabled collaborative writing, made possible through many commonly available cloud-based platforms, is a welcome one considering the difficulties imposed by COVID-19 and the reduction of face-to-face interactions in the L2 classroom and elsewhere. Whereas digital classrooms may provide students with fewer opportunities to interact with one another during the non-instructive segments between class periods, which ordinarily aid in building community, collaborative writing assignments supplement those necessary but traditionally in-person activities. Teachers must remember that by studying another language, students are engaged in an exploratory entry into a new identity space where they come to occupy a third space between L1 and L2, which is accompanied by the development of a new bilingual identity. Thus, "digital writing is one of the best channels for students to develop this new sense of self" (p. 170) due to the opportunity for creative expression in the negotiation of that identity.

Brave New Digital Classroom is an overview of CALL that is both accessible and thorough, representing a solid contribution to the discipline by not only providing examples of specific resources for digital/partially digital L2 classrooms, but by equipping L2 educators with the skills needed to assess the efficacy of materials. As we move to a post-crisis environment, L2 educators faced with the ubiquity of technology must be ready to make informed choices about CALL and its integration into classrooms—taking the lessons learned from teaching digitally during the pandemic and carrying its best practices and use of technology into those classrooms. Although technology is not a panacea for learning and not likely to provide a long-term or total substitute for face-to-face interaction in a student's L2 development, it offers powerful ways to augment the learning process, appealing to the many inherent qualities of *homo sapiens*.

REFERENCES

Blake, R. & Guillén, G. (2020). *Brave new digital classroom: Technology and foreign language learning* (3rd ed.)*.* Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Gee, G. P. (2003). *What video games have to teach us about learning and literacy.* London Borough: Palgrave Macmillan.

Guillén, G., Sawin, T. & Avineri, N. (2020). Zooming out of the crisis: Language and human collaboration. *Foreign Language Annals, 53*(2), 320-328. doi.org/10.1111/flan.12459

Reinhardt, J. (2019). *Gameful second and foreign language teaching and learning*. London Borough: Palgrave Macmillan.

Rosell-Aguilar, F. (2017). State of the app: A taxonomy and framework for evaluating language learning mobile applications. *CALICO Journal, 34*(2), 243-258. doi.org/10.1558/cj.27623

Surface, E. A., Dierdorff, E. C. & Watson, A. (2007). *Special operations language training software measurement of effectiveness study: Tactical Iraqi study final report*. Special Operations Forces Language Office.

GENERAL INFORMATION

ALL INDEX (2012-2022)

ARTICLES

Ağazade, Ali Sidki. (2014). *Frequency versus Importance: Language Learning Strategy Use in the EFL Classroom. 23-24*(1&2), p. 47.

Aiello, Jacqueline. (2014). *Variation in Second Language Learners' Strategies among Non-native English Speakers from Three Language/Culture Backgrounds. 23-24*(1&2), p. 23.

Alonso-Pérez, Rosa. (2018). *Teaching Foreign Languages Through Audiovisual Translation Resources: Teachers' Perspectives. 28*(2), p. 1.

Ayan, Hatice Ç. (2015). *(De)Motivation in Preparatory EFL Classrooms. 25*(1&2), p. 16.

Bikowski, Dawn. (2022). *Team Teaching in Foreign Language Courses: Characteristics of High-performing Teams and Pedagogical Implications. 32,* p.1.

Bohn, Mariko T. (2015). *Pedagogical Perspectives on Gendered Speech Styles in the Teaching and Learning of Japanese as a Foreign Language. 25*(1&2), p. 41.

Brosh, Hezi. (2018). *Language-Learning Strategy Preferences among College- level Language Students. 28*(1), p. 19.

Burnham, Kevin R. (2014). *Phonetic Training in the Foreign Language Curriculum. 23-24*(1&2), p. 63.

Chen, Wei. (2022). *Assessing Mandarin Chinese Students' Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence at the DLIFLC: Results and Pedagogical Implications. 32,* p.22.

Cheng, Yonghong. (2019). *A Descriptive Study of Learning Styles and Teaching Strategy Preferences of Mandarin Chinese Teachers at the DLIFLC. 29(*1&2), p. 1.

Cheng, Yonghong. (2022). *Assessing Mandarin Chinese Students' Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence at the DLIFLC: Results and Pedagogical Implications. 32,* p.22.

Choi, Jin Soo. (2021). *The Effects of Task Complexity on Comprehensibility in Second Language Speech. 31*(1&2), p. 50.

Choi, Yujeong. (2014). *Hypothesis Testing in Task-Based Interaction. 23- 24*(1&2), p. 1.

Colovic-Markovic, Jelena. (2019). *"The Class Changed the Way I Read": The Effect of Explicit Instruction of Academic Formulas on ELS Writers. 29* (1&2), p. 17.

Crowther, Dustin. (2020). *Foreign Language Learning Motivation in a U. S. Military Academy: A Comparative Case Study on the Effects from the Learning Environment. 30*(1&2), p. 41.

Danan, Martine. (2016). *Enhancing Listening with Captions and Transcripts: Exploring Learner Differences. 26*(2), p. 1.

David, Virginia. (2016). *A Comparison of Two Approaches for Assessing L2 Writing: Process-based and Impromptu Timed Writing Exams. 26*(1), p. 65.

Diaz, Erin McNulty. (2017). *The Order of Explicit Information in Processing Instruction. 27*(1&2), p. 41.

Eisenstein Ebsworth, Miriam. (2014). *Variation in Second Language Learners' Strategies among Non-native English Speakers from Three Language/Culture Backgrounds. 23-24*(1&2), p. 23.

Falah, Abdulrazzag M. (2018). *New Insights into Students' Awareness of the Spanish Lenition Rule: A Revision of the Methodology. 28*(2), p. 73.

Gan, Zhengdong. (2015). *What Happens to Students' English after One Year of English-medium Course Study at University? 25*(1&2), p. 71.

Gan, Zhengdong. (2020). *Classroom Feedback Practices and Students' Learning Motivations: Experiences of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Students. 30*(1&2), p. 18.

Gong, Zhiqi. (2020). *The Development of Conceptual Fluency in Second Language Acquisition*. *30*(1&2), p. 1.

Gonulal, Talip. (2022). *Collaborative Dialogue in LCTLs: A Case Study of Turkish as a Foreign Language. 32,* p. 40.

González-Bueno, Manuela. (2018). *New Insights into Students' Awareness of the Spanish Lenition Rule: A Revision of the Methodology. 28*(2), p. 73.

González-Bueno, Manuela. (2021) *S-PACE to Teach L2 Grammar: Adding Structure to the PACE Model. 31*(1&2), p. 29.

He, Jinbo. (2020). *Classroom Feedback Practices and Students' Learning Motivations: Experiences of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Students. 30*(1&2), p. 18.

Hedgcock, John. (2016). *Differentiating Heritage and Foreign Language Learners of Spanish: Needs, Perceptions, and Expectations. 26*(1), p. 1.

Hernández, Todd A. (2016). *Short-Term Study Abroad: Perspectives on Speaking Gains and Language Contact. 26*(1), p. 39.

Holman, Don. (2017). *Across the Threshold: A Call for ILR Proficiency Descriptor Bank. 27*(1&2), p. 1.

Holman, Don. (2021). *Regional Language and Culture Studies: Redefining the Discipline*. 31(1&2), p. 1.

Hubert, Michael. D. (2017). *Using Writing to Teach Pronunciation: An Experimental Fourth-Year University Spanish Phonetics/Phonology Course. 27*(1&2), p. 18.

Hughes, Haning. (2018). *Second Language Acquisition: Predicting Less Commonly Taught Languages Learning Success. 28*(1), p. 41.

Kilpatrick, Cynthia. (2014). *Hypothesis Testing in Task-Based Interaction. 23- 24*(1&2), p. 1.

Kitajima, Ryu. (2018). *Compliment Responses of Non-native Speakers of Japanese in Natural Conversation Versus Classroom Talk. 28*(2), p. 49.

Koyama, Nobuko. (2016). *Introduction to a Dubbing Activity for a College First- Year Japanese Language Course. 26*(2), p. 69.

Koyama, Nobuko. (2020). *Challenges and Gains through Internships in Japan. 30*(1&2), p. 60.

Lefkowitz, Natalie. (2016). *Differentiating Heritage and Foreign Language Learners of Spanish: Needs, Perceptions, and Expectations. 26*(1), p. 1.

Li, Yang. (2016). *The Effects of Pragmatic Consciousness-Raising Activities on the Learning of Speech Acts in the Beginning CFL Classroom. 26*(2), p. 53.

Lim, Hye-yeon. (2022). *Team Teaching in Foreign Language Courses: Characteristics of High-performing Teams and Pedagogical Implications. 32,* p.1.

Liu, Fulan. (2020). *Classroom Feedback Practices and Students' Learning Motivations: Experiences of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Students. 30*(1&2), p. 18.

Ma, Yibing. (2019). *A Descriptive Study of Learning Styles and Teaching Strategy Preferences of Mandarin Chinese Teachers at the DLIFLC. 29(*1&2), p. 1.

Martel, Jason. (2018). *Postsecondary Students' and Instructors' Evaluative Comments about ACTFL's Integrated Performance Assessment. 28*(1), p. 1.

Miller, Zachary F. (2016). *Military and Civilian L2 Instructors: Decoding Perceptions of U.S. Service Academy Cadets. 16*(2), p. 25.

Miller, Zachary F. (2020). *Foreign Language Learning Motivation in a U. S. Military Academy: A Comparative Case Study on the Effects from the Learning Environment. 30*(1&2), p. 41.

Mitchell, Claire. (2020). *The Power of Positive Emotions: Cultivating Global Competence in Introductory-level Spanish through Learner Interest. 30*(1&2), p. 79.

Mohammed-Ahmed, Hamid (2021). *A Multimodal Literacy Approach to Foreign Language Instruction. 31*(1&2), p. 15.

Musayeva Vefali, Gülşen. (2014). *Frequency versus Importance: Language Learning Strategy Use in the EFL Classroom. 23-24*(1&2), p. 47.

Musayeva Vefali, Gülşen. (2015). *(De)Motivation in Preparatory EFL Classrooms. 25*(1&2), p. 16.

Oxford, Rebecca L. (2015). *How Language Learners Can Improve Their Emotional Functioning: Important Psychological and Psychospiritual Theories. 25*(1&2), p. 1.

Pardo Ballester, Cristina. (2019). *Technology-mediated TBLT in a Hybrid Environment: Bridging Content and Language Production. 29*(1&2), p. 73.

Quintana-Lara, Marcela. (2018). *New Insights into Students' Awareness of the Spanish Lenition Rule: A Revision of the Methodology. 28*(2), p. 73.

Razavi, Nikta. (2014). *Variation in Second Language Learners' Strategies among Non-native English Speakers from Three Language/Culture Backgrounds. 23-24*(1&2), p. 23.

Sánchez-Requena, Alicia. (2018). *Teaching Foreign Languages Through Audiovisual Translation Resources: Teachers' Perspectives. 28*(2), p. 1.

Santizo, Isabelle Poupard. (2017). *Correlating Aptitude with Oral Proficiency: A Quantitative Study of DLAB and OPI Scores Across Four Language Categories. 27*(1&2), p. 73.

Soekarno, Megawati. (2021). *Strategy Diaries: Learner Perspective on the Benefits of Communication Strategy Training. 31*(1&2), p. 87.

Stapleton, Paul. (2015). *What Happens to Students' English after One Year of English-medium Course Study at University? 25*(1&2)*,* p.71.

Stovicek, Thomas W. (2021). *Linguistic Stereotyping, Reverse Linguistic Stereotyping, Language Ideology, and their Potential Effects on Oral Proficiency Interview Ratings. 31*(1&2), p. 71.

Tang, Frank Lixing. (2014). *Variation in Second Language Learners' Strategies among Non-native English Speakers from Three Language/Culture Backgrounds. 23-24*(1&2), p. 23.

Tang, Xiaofei. (2019). *Use of Technology for Learning Second Language Pragmatics. 29*(1&2), p. 52.

Ting, Su-Hie. (2021). *Strategy Diaries: Learner Perspective on the Benefits of Communication Strategy Training. 31*(1&2), p. 87.

Tyndorf Jr., Darryl M. (2018). *Free Voluntary Reading: A Neglected Strategy for Language Acquisition. 28*(2), p. 25.

Ulrich, Theresa A. (2018). *Free Voluntary Reading: A Neglected Strategy for Language Acquisition. 28*(2), p. 25.

Vigil, Donny. *Using Writing to Teach Pronunciation: An Experimental Fourth- Year University Spanish Phonetics/Phonology Course. 27*(1&2), p. 18.

Wang, Yan. (2019). *A Descriptive Study of Learning Styles and Teaching Strategy Preferences of Mandarin Chinese Teachers at the DLIFLC. 29(*1&2), p. 1.

Wang, Yan (2022). *Assessing Mandarin Chinese Students' Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence at the DLIFLC: Results and Pedagogical Implications. 32,* p.22.

Xie, Qing. (2020). *Classroom Feedback Practices and Students' Learning Motivations: Experiences of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Students. 30*(1&2), p. 18.

Yang, Chi Cheung. (2015). *What Happens to Students' English after One Year of English-medium Course Study at University? 25*(1&2), p. 71.

Yeon, Sang-Hee. (2014). *It Works for Me: From the High Achievers' Perspective. 23-24*(1&2), p. 75.

Zhu, Jia. (2016). *The Effects of Pragmatic Consciousness-Raising Activities on the Learning of Speech Acts in the Beginning CFL Classroom. 26*(2), p. 53.

REVIEWS

Bigi, Brunella. (2018). *Review: Educating Second Language Teachers: The Same Thing Done Differently. 28*(1), p. 63.

Bigi, Brunella. (2020). Review: *Gameful Second and Foreign Language Teaching and Learning: Theory, Research and Practice. 30*(1&2), p. 91.

Howard, Jiaying. (2019). *Review: Talk About Teaching! Leading Professional Conversations. 29*(1&2), p. 98.

Howard, Jiaying. (2021). *Review: The Influence of the Foreign Service Institute on US Language Education: Critical Analysis of Historical Documentation. 31*(1&2), p. 106.

Hur, HyunSoo. (2015). *Review: Language Teacher Education for a Global Society. 25*(1&2), p. 92.

Hur, HyunSoo. (2016). *Review: Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words. 26*(2), p. 94.

Jackson, Gordon L. (2011). *Review: Methodology and Materials Design in Language Teaching: Current Perceptions and Practices and their Implications. 21*(1&2), p. 83.

Lee, Mina. (2014). *Review: Creativity and Innovation in Language Education*. *23-24*(1&2), p. 91.

Martel, Jason. (2014). *Review: Reflective Practice in ESL Teacher Development Groups: From Practices to Principles*. *23-24*(1&2), p. 87.

Martel, Jason. (2016). *Review: Adult Learning in the Language Classroom. 26*(2), p. 89.

Masters, David. (2022). Review: *Brave New Digital Classroom: Technology and Foreign Language Learning. 32,* p.59.

O'Reilly, Erin N. (2019). *Review: Teacher Education in Computer-Assisted Learning: A Sociocultural and Linguistic Perspective. 29* (1&2), p. 95.

Thomas, Murray R. (2016). *Review: Postsecondary Foreign Language Teaching in the United States. 26*(1), p. 83.

Xiaofei Tang. (2018). *Review: Developing Interactional Competence in a Japanese Study Abroad Context. 28*(1), p. 67.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Submission Information for Authors

AIMS AND SCOPE

Applied Language Learning (ALL) is to promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program and academic communities on adult language learning for functional purposes. The Editor encourages the submission of research and review manuscripts from such disciplines as: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields in linguistics, education, communication, psychology, and social sciences; and (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR MANUSCRIPTS

Prepare the manuscripts in accordance with the following requirements:

- Follow the American Psychological Association (APA) style (the 6th Edition)
- Not exceeding 6,000 words (not including reference, appendix, etc.)
- Use double spacing, with margins of one inch on all four sides
- Use Times New Roman font size 12
- Number all pages consecutively
- In black and white only, including graphics and tables
- Create graphics and tables in a Microsoft Office application (such as Word, PowerPoint, Excel)
- Graphics and tables should not exceed 6.5" 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
- Keep the layout of the text as simple as possible

SUBMISSION REQUIREMENT

Applied Language Learning publishes only original works that have not been previously published elsewhere and that are not under consideration by other publications. Each submission must contain (1) a title page, including author information; (2) abstract of the article, including five keywords; and (3) manuscript, including references. Send all submissions electronically to the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.

REVIEW PROCESS

Manuscripts will be acknowledged by the editor upon receipt and subsequently 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. Once an article has been accepted for publication, the author will receive further instructions regarding the submission of the final copy.

Go to: **https://www.dliflc.edu/**
Click on **Contact us**, in the pulldown menu of **e-mail contact,** select **Academic Journals**.

Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Divide your manuscript into the following sections, in the order listed below:
1. Title and Author Information
2. Abstract, with Keywords
3. Text body, including:
   - Acknowledgements (optional)
   - Notes (optional)
   - References
   - Tables and figures (optional)
   - Appendixes (optional)

REVIEW ARTICLE

It should describe, discuss, and evaluate 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 be 15 to 20 double-spaced pages.

REVIEW

Submit reviews of textbooks, scholarly works on foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, audio-video materials, computer and mobile applications, and other non-print materials. Point out both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered. In the three to five double- spaced pages of the manuscript, give a clear but brief statement of the work's content and a critical assessment of its contribution to the profession. Keep quotations short. Do not send reviews that are merely descriptive.

COMMENTARY

ALL welcomes essays that exchange ideas and views on innovative foreign language education, and comments on matters of general academic or critical interest or on articles in previous issues. Essays should not exceed 2,000 words.

CALL FOR PAPERS

Applied Language Learning, a refereed journal published semiannually by the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center and Presidio of Monterey, is soliciting articles for publication.

The Journal *(US* ISSN 1041-679X and ISSN 2164-0912 for the online version) is to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and information on
- Instructional methods and techniques
- Curriculum and materials development
- Assessment of needs within the profession
- Testing and evaluation
- Implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communications, psychology, and the social sciences

The journal seeks to serve the professional interest of language teachers, administrators, and researchers concerned with the teaching of foreign languages to adult learners. We welcome articles that describe innovative and successful practice and methods and/or report educational research or experimentation.

Deadline: Submissions are welcome at any point. Manuscripts received by *31 March* will be considered for the spring issue and by *30 September* for the fall issue of the journal.
Send your manuscript electronically to the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu

Read the recent and past issues of *Applied Language Learning* at

http://www.dliflc.edu/resources/publications/applied-language-learning/