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CONTENTS

ARTICLES

1 Enhancing Listening with Captions and Transcripts: Exploring Learner Differences
Martine Danan

25 Military and Civilian L2 Instructors: Decoding Perceptions of U.S. Service Academy Cadets
Zachary F. Miller

53 The Effects of Pragmatic Consciousness-Raising Activities on the Learning of Speech Acts in the Beginning CFL Classroom
Li Yang & Jia Zhu

69 Introduction to a Dubbing Activity for a College First-Year Japanese Language Course
Nobuko Koyama

REVIEWS

89 *Adult Learning in the Language Classroom* by Stacey Margarita Johnson
Jason Martel

94 *Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words* by Susan Strauss and Parastou Feiz
HyunSoo Hur

GENERAL INFORMATION

98 *ALL* Indexes (2006-2016)
104 Upcoming Events 2016
106 Information for Contributors
109 Call for Papers

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Enhancing Listening with Captions and Transcripts: Exploring Learner Differences[1]

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Through an analysis of students' reactions to transcription exercises, this exploratory study examined some of the differences between two forms of written help enhancing listening passages—second language (L2) captions and transcripts. This primarily qualitative analysis highlighted the role that student proficiency levels may have played in differentiating the way captions and transcripts assist language learners in the decoding process of aural input. Captions seemed to help novice learners better recognize words and keep up with a listening passage, even after the written support was removed. Advanced students found transcripts preferable to refine their comprehension of details. In contrast to the clearer preferences of the two other groups, intermediate students tended to use each type of textual support in more idiosyncratic ways, based on their linguistic needs and study habits. These initial observations demonstrated the need for more in-depth analyses to gain a better understanding of a learner's cognitive processes when listening to foreign utterances. They also suggested the importance of encouraging students to develop metacognitive awareness and explore listening strategies best adapted to their purpose and learning styles, an approach now facilitated by the plethora of multimedia material accompanied with help options encompassing transcripts and captions.

Keywords: *multimodal input; subtitles; CALL; help options; metacognitive strategies*

INTRODUCTION

What tools can educators make available to foreign language learners to help them improve their listening ability, which is usually a more challenging receptive skill to master than reading? Many language learners admit to struggling less with reading than listening, and subsequently, they often resort to checking their comprehension against transcripts, which are routinely provided by teachers, broadcasters, and multimedia course designers. A growing number of studies (to be discussed below) have also pointed to the beneficial effect of captions (same-language subtitling) for enhancing the decoding of second-language (L2) aural input and improving listening skills.

Given the interest in these two closely related forms of written support, the purpose of this exploratory study was to investigate how transcripts and captions may differ in helping learners improve their decoding of aural input and overall listening skills. More specifically, this study examined how students used input that was enhanced with either captions or a transcript to improve performance on transcription exercises initially done without any textual help. Special attention was paid to progress in the transcription tasks in light of student proficiency levels. It was assumed that novice and advanced students were likely to require differentiated forms of assistance for developing listening skills. The study, therefore, was primarily qualitative, drawing on an analysis of participant responses to questionnaires before and after they used each type of textual support. It also included a case study closely examining a student's transcriptions and attempt at error correction following exposure to a captioned passage and then a passage with a transcript. This case study highlighted how strategy awareness regarding the use of enhanced input could help struggling learners overcome some of their listening challenges. Starting to explore the interplay between learners and these two forms of textual feedback in the listening process may point to promising approaches for mastering listening skills and suggest possible directions for further research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Four main fields have informed the theoretical background for this study: second language acquisition research pertaining to listening and cognition; audiovisual translation research on captions as a language learning tool; benefits of captions versus transcripts in computer-assisted language learning (CALL); learner strategies and language learning management models.

Second Language Acquisition Research Pertaining to Listening and Cognition

Listening requires the ability to convert a continuous stream of sounds into meaningful units of information in real time. For second language learners, fluency in listening is a particularly complex cognitive activity "characterized by automatic processing at the lower levels of word recognition and sentence

parsing, leaving attention capacity free to concentrate on the higher levels of information, that is, on semantics and content" (Hulstijn, 2003, p. 419). Therefore, a successful language program must incorporate activities designed to help language learners "automatize their bottom-up processing of linguistic information" for faster, more accurate recognition and decoding of words as well as easier sentence parsing. The less effort learners can spend on these lower-level tasks, the more attention capacity is available for the top-down processing of higher levels of meaning and content (Hulstijn, 2003, p. 424).

Because automaticity in reading is usually easier to acquire, at least with first language (L1) and L2 sharing the same scripts (Hulstijn, 2003), a common scaffolding tool traditionally provided to learners after a listening activity is a written transcript. Adding a textual mode to an authentic listening passage makes it easier to visualize word boundaries, recognize known vocabulary, and segment speech. It also creates redundancies that amplify opportunities for processing the input from diverse perspectives, in addition to engaging learners interactively as they interpret the information in different modalities (Hoven, 1999; Rost, 2007). Such enhanced input makes it possible to adapt a task to the learner's level and gradually bring a novice to a higher level of competence (Hoven, 1999).

Audiovisual Translation Research on Captions as a Language Learning Tool

With an audiovisual passage, a common way to provide immediate written support is through L1 or L2 subtitles. Research on the contribution of subtitles to language learning started soon after the National Captioning Institute (NCI) launched captioned TV programs for the hearing impaired in 1980. Studies of the positive relationship between foreign language learning and captions (also referred to as bimodal input or intralingual subtitling), which began as an esoteric research domain, started gaining prominence in the early 1990s. Research on the pedagogical application of captions has grown steadily since the late 1990s, in tandem with digital technology (from DVDs to interactive television and online help functions). It has now become a major field of inquiry warranting book-length studies (see Diaz Cintas, 2008; McLoughlin, Biscio and Ní Mhainnín, 2011; Gambier, Caimi and Mariotti, 2015).

Improved global listening comprehension and significantly increased amounts of comprehensible input as well as heightened vocabulary acquisition and content recall have usually been the most quantifiable linguistic gains for students exposed to captions, as shown by numerous quantitative experiments (see, for example, comprehensive literature reviews in Danan, 2004; Vanderplank, 2010). The beneficial effects of captions on listening comprehension and vocabulary learning were statistically confirmed by Montero Perez, Van Den Noortgate, and Desmet (2013), who conducted a meta-analysis based on 18 journal articles and doctoral dissertations written between 1989 and 2011. Further, Neuman and Koskinen (1992) found that captions had a superior

effect on comprehension, vocabulary learning, and recall compared to the following three conditions: regular television viewing, listening to text and reading along, or reading a textbook alone. Garza (1991) concluded that captions also made the salient language of authentic material more accessible, memorable, and likely to be used appropriately (p. 246).

Although improved comprehension is to be expected because learners can rely on the less transient reading skill, the challenge is to demonstrate that captions do improve listening-specific processes. To address this challenge, Markham (1999) tested how captions improved English as a second language (ESL) students' ability to recognize words appearing in video passages and subsequent listening-only multiple choice tests. The beneficial effect of captions on listening ability, especially word recognition, remained constant, regardless of the passage content and the audio/video correlation. Bird and Williams (2002) further examined the effects of captions on spoken word recognition and memory by testing sound recognition independently of any semantic context in two experiments presenting familiar words and nonwords (simulating the learning of new words). These experiments demonstrated that having seen the written representation of a word changed its phonological representation in the students' minds, which helped develop a superior memory trace of this word and improve subsequent auditory recognition. In short, these experiments showed that in contrast to single modalities (sound or text only), bimodal input with the initial use of captions improved the decoding, processing, and recognition of spoken words. Rather than dividing attention, cognitive systems dealing with auditory and visual information proved to be fully interconnected and interactive, therefore increasing depth of processing, as posited in Paivio's (1986) dual coding theory.

Beyond these measurable effects, more qualitative studies have shown that captions can indirectly improve students' listening skills by lowering the affective filter, which according to Krashen (1985) encourages intake of larger amounts of comprehensible input. In addition to facilitating comprehension and generating a more positive attitude increasing time on task, Borrás and Lafayette (1994) showed that captions in a self-paced interactive multimedia program resulted in higher oral performance scores and the production of better comprehensible communicative output. Thus, helping learners associate the aural and written forms of words may play a role in improving productive skills and internalizing the language. In Vanderplank's 1988 study, one of the first longitudinal, nine-week long studies designed to gauge learners' reactions to captions, participants reported feeling relaxed while watching, more able to follow unfamiliar accents, and likely to notice new words and phrases that they could largely recall later. By the end of the study, the students felt they could process longer stretches of the aural and written input, therefore increasing their chunking ability and releasing some spare language-processing capacity to focus on conscious learning. As learners try to match sound and text, "the text provides instant feedback" and opportunity for self-correction, which relieves some of the anxiety experienced by those who feel lost or fearful of missing important information; ultimately, such feedback creates positive reinforcement

for learning, which is likely to boost motivation (Vanderplank, 1988, pp. 275-277, 280).

Most of the participants in the aforementioned studies were advanced learners. Although the research findings are less conclusive about the usefulness of captions for less proficient learners, several studies have demonstrated that captions can be helpful at various proficiency levels. Markham (1989) was one of the first scholars to show that beginning and advanced students could achieve better comprehension with captions. Danan (1992) also found that captions helped both beginning and intermediate students recall vocabulary in an experiment in which captions were added to a video program designed for L2 learners. She concluded that captions can be helpful to both beginners and more advanced students as long as the material is carefully adapted to their level. Winke, Gass, and Sydorenko (2010) reached the same conclusions in their study on the effectiveness of captions as measured by vocabulary and comprehension tests. They proposed that "captioning, as a language learning tool to aid processing, may function similarly for all proficiency levels […] as long as the videos are matched appropriately in terms of content and complexity (not too hard *and* not too easy) to the proficiency level of the language learners" (pp. 80-81). Similarly, the 2013 meta-analysis by Montero Perez et al. mentioned earlier showed that captions affected learners at all levels positively, with no statistically significant difference in the effect of captioning between proficiency levels, as long as input is at a comprehensible level.

Although all learners may benefit from captions, reliance on them for comprehension varies. To determine the extent of language learners' reliance on captions, Leveridge and Yang (2013) designed a testing instrument, "The Caption Reliance Test (CRT)," comparing how learners answered comprehension questions based on information delivered solely auditorily or with captions congruent with 75% of the audio and multi-choice questions. Test results, correlated with the proficiency level, showed that lower-level students relied on captions more than higher-proficiency learners do in order to comprehend the audio and avoid frustration. According to the authors, however, "reliance on captions is an individual learner characteristic, which varies considerably even within classes or small groups of learners" (p. 212). Such individual variations in learners' approaches to listening, Vanderplank (2010) warned, make generalizations difficult.

Benefits of Captions versus Transcripts in CALL

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) expands the degree to which learners can self-regulate their own learning by providing them with more options for processing authentic material and scaffolding listening input. A few studies of multimedia CALL programs have specifically compared the navigation patterns of learners using help options encompassing transcripts and captions. Such studies may improve our understanding of the way each form of textual support assists learners.

In a study of help navigation patterns conducted by Pujolà (2002), 22 English as a foreign language (EFL) beginners were divided into four decoding ability groups (higher, average, lower, and poorer). To facilitate comprehension tasks, the beginners could select one of the following help options: transcript, captions, or rewind/replay/pause controls. Pujolà found that the two lowest decoding ability groups tended to use transcripts and captions the most, whereas the two highest ability groups primarily relied on the replay/pause help functions. In spite of this tendency, no statistically significant correlation was found between linguistic level and the use of help facilities. Instead, "students within each group behaved in varied, idiosyncratic ways regarding the type of decoding help used most often" (p. 243). Beyond the students' ability levels, other major factors included attitudes toward listening tasks, learning styles, and perception of the purpose of transcripts and captions. The two higher achieving groups viewed the textual support as backup, whereas the two lower groups perceived it "as a more necessary tool in their understanding of authentic aural input" (Pujolà, 2002, pp. 253-54). Although Pujolà did not provide a detailed account of students' use and preference for captions or transcripts, he did note that some students seemed more wary of "the reading temptation" with transcripts and less so with captions. A transcript was also perceived a better resource to check the spelling of a word before looking it up in a dictionary (p. 254).

A 2007 study by Grgurović and Hegelheimer focused on determining which of the two forms of modified input—captions or transcript— was most helpful to language learners when comprehension breakdowns occurred during a multimedia listening activity. Of the 18 intermediate ESL students in the study, seven chose only the caption help option, three only the transcript, four used both, and four neither. Although the caption and transcript groups had similar results in terms of correct comprehension answers, the caption group had the best recall score. Moreover, in pre- and post-listening questionnaires, most participants stated an overall preference for captions as help option. Grgurović and Hegelheimer also examined help use in relation to the proficiency level of the participants. Contrary to the implications of Pujolà's findings, they noted that the higher proficiency group spent almost twice as much time interacting with both forms of textual help than did the lower proficiency group, therefore making better use of the available resources. However, beyond limitations inherent in the use of such a small sample, the data in both studies did not capture potential differences in the actual processing of captions and transcripts.

Thus, no clear pattern emerges from the above studies to explain how captions or transcripts improve the listening skills of learners at different proficiency levels, perhaps because individuals tend to tackle the decoding of a listening passage in idiosyncratic ways. Learners may also have never truly tried to benefit from these digital text options or lack the know-how to use them efficiently. Consequently, as Robin (2007) argued, "we should now teach meta-technical skills to language learners" (p. 109). A 2011 study by Romeo and Hubbard confirmed that listening strategy instruction increased reflective learning and encouraged experimentation with a greater variety of strategies,

including when to use or hide captions and transcripts to facilitate comprehension (p. 225)**.** Of course, strategy instruction cannot be reduced to the skillful use of online help. Rather, it is part of the larger debate in language pedagogy on the importance of developing successful cognitive and metacognitive strategies, considered to play an essential role in language learning, as extensive research in this domain has demonstrated.

Learner Strategies and Language Learning Management Models

Since the 1970s, following the seminal work of Joan Rubin on the "good language learner" (1975), later redefined as the "expert language learner" (Rubin, 2005), researchers have proposed that successful learners are able to use a wider range of strategies than "poor" language learners do. Research on strategy inventories gained momentum in the 1980s and early 1990s, as scholars proposed taxonomies of strategies serving distinct functions. Most important perhaps is the distinction between *cognitive strategies*, involving interacting with and manipulating the learning materials themselves (e.g., repeating, memorizing, summarizing, translating, note-taking, inferencing, etc.) and *metacognitive strategies,* dealing with higher-order strategies aimed at planning, organizing, and evaluating one's own learning process. Effective L2 learners use a greater variety of strategies appropriate to a task more frequently, especially metacognitive ones such as comprehension monitoring, self-evaluation, and problem-solving (Oxford, 1990; Chamot and Küpper, 1989). In her expert language learner model, Rubin (2005) elaborated upon the importance of metacognition by developing the concept of *learner self-management*, which requires constant interaction between metacognitive strategies and the learner's knowledge and beliefs. This latter component encompasses knowledge of one's learning styles, belief in the importance of a task, general beliefs about language learning, use of background knowledge, and strategy knowledge enabling expert learners to draw on an extensive strategy repertoire effectively.

Regarding listening specifically, cognitive strategies include predicting content based on visual clues, background knowledge, genre, and storyline; listening to the known, e.g., cognates, known words, and grammar clues; listening for redundancies; listening to tone of voice and intonation; and resourcing, i.e. jotting down words and checking their meaning. Using these strategies, the listener can make and test hypotheses about the meaning of the information while processing it. Metacognitive strategies include planning—deciding on how to listen; defining goals—deciding on what to listen for; monitoring one's comprehension and identifying sources of difficulty; and evaluating the effectiveness of the strategies used (Thompson and Rubin, 1996). In their 2007 review of listening strategy research, Macaro, Graham, and Vanderplank reached the following conclusions: There is evidence that proficient listeners use different combinations of strategies, and that there is "mounting evidence that within those strategy combinations, metacognition plays an important part." Most important among metacognitive strategies are

"strategy evaluation" and "comprehension monitoring" to correct or confirm listeners' predictions while listening (pp. 174, 182, 184).

Knowing how to use textual help to check comprehension or assist with comprehension breakdowns reflects metacognitive awareness in a learner. In the aforementioned longitudinal study by Vanderplank (1988), the participants reported that after experiencing an initial sense of disturbance, they had learned to develop strategies for maximizing the use of captions, for example, by mentally switching between sound and text according to their needs or becoming adept at processing all three channels simultaneously. In addition, in Vanderplank's three-month long follow-up study (1990), the participants noted that they had developed metacognitive skills allowing them to turn to captions when they needed support or wanted to test their listening ability.

To what extent can learners not accustomed to captions consciously use such strategies to assist with the decoding of aural input? How do these strategies differ from those used with a written transcript? Also, how can written text, either as transcripts or captions, help learners at different proficiency levels develop the cognitive and metacognitive awareness necessary to improve their decoding of aural input? Given the multiplicity of factors in the listening process and the complexity of input decoding, the current study aims at starting to explore how individuals react to either captions or transcripts and use textual feedback to self-correct their listening comprehension. More specifically, three research questions underlie this investigation:

1. Are captions preferable to transcripts for improving listening skills?
2. Do learners perceive and process captions and transcripts differently?
3. Do learner proficiency levels play a role in the qualitative differences between the two types of support?

EXPLORATORY STUDY

Participants

Fifteen military students (twelve males and three females) at a California military language institution participated in a four-part exploratory study aimed at examining how transcripts, when compared to captions, helped improve listening skills. All were members of an intensive, six-month long French program providing small cohorts of American enlisted personnel and officers with at least six hours of daily language training and 720 hours of instruction by the end of the course. The study took place over a four-week period in the third (and last) semester (weeks 18 and 19 for a first clip, and 22 and 23 for a second clip) during regular class time. The author, who was not the instructor, set up the study with the instructor's help and, after obtaining the students' consent, guided the class through all the steps of the study.

Upon finishing the 26 weeks of instruction, students must take the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) and achieve a minimum *Limited Working Proficiency* (Level 2) on the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale[2]. This level is defined as the ability to have "sufficient comprehension to

understand conversations on routine social demands and limited job requirements." At the end of the second semester (week 17), the students had taken a practice DLPT, which demonstrated a broad range in proficiency level: Six students were at the 1+ listening level, defined as *Elementary Proficiency, Plus*—sufficient comprehension beyond survival needs, but limited vocabulary and inconsistent comprehension, especially with longer coherent utterances or unfamiliar situations. Four students were already at the Level 2 graduation requirement. Three had attained the 2+ level, exceeding expectations. Further, two students had even reached Level 3 in listening, defined on the ILR scale as *General Professional Proficiency*—the ability to "understand the essentials of all speech in a standard dialect" delivered with normal clarity. The students' proficiency levels are particularly significant for the qualitative nature of this study because they are likely to influence learning strategies and help preferences.

Materials

The author selected two authentic SCOLA News[3] stories combining narration and interviews with men and women from various backgrounds and national or regional origins. Clip One, *Mariages gris* [Grey Marriages], which was 4 min and 21s long, dealt with French spouses falsely lured into "grey" marriage by foreigners seeking long-term residency permits in France. Clip Two, *Noms et Immigration* [Names and Immigration], a four-minute long passage, portrayed foreigners' decision process regarding a name change perceived to allow for better integration into French society. (The clips will be hereafter referred to as *Mariages* and *Noms*.) It was assumed that the students would have some understanding of these mostly factual stories, but would also find many of the details challenging due to the number of voices and accents as well as the use of occasional specialized vocabulary and inferences. These passages were slightly above the level of most students who had just begun listening to authentic material.

French-language captions were produced using Microsoft Windows MovieMaker (WMM). WMM allows up to 78 characters over two lines, including spaces, although some larger capital letters reduce the total number of characters. For readability and mental processing reasons, film and television industry standards recommend that subtitles consist of no more than two lines. In addition, their duration should not exceed six seconds and be less than 1.5, with 0.20 second between subtitles. Subtitles must also respect the boundaries imposed by scenes or sequences of images. Because captions are constrained by time, space, and image, they are rarely word-for-word transcriptions; rather, the original text is often condensed and reworded. Yellow was chosen for the font because it is the easiest color to read against all types of backgrounds.

WMM was also used to extract some sentences (without images) from the original video. The extracted sentences were to be transcribed verbatim during this experiment.

Procedures

The author asked the instructor to divide her class into two groups of as equal ability levels as possible by mixing weaker, average, and stronger students. Each final group of seven or eight was composed of one Level 3 and three Level 1+ students, plus three to four students at Levels 2 or 2+ (based on the practice DLPT results). One group would view a clip with captions and the other would receive a written transcript to follow along.

Each group watched the first video clip, *Mariages,* twice in its normal format without any textual help, then was asked to accomplish a transcription task. The transcription exercise consisted of ten sentences or partial sentences from the sound track, each being played twice with long pauses in between.

One week later, each group watched the same video once with either the captions or the transcript. Reading time for the transcript was limited to keep pace with the audio, thus providing students in both groups with the same amount of exposure to the written input. The one-time exposure to the written support was also intended to minimize opportunities to memorize the written text and bypass listening. The sound track without any textual help was subsequently played a last time for each group to focus again on the audio alone. Finally, the students performed the same transcription exercise as in week one so that the researcher could assess how much progress they had made on their output.

These steps were repeated two weeks later with the second video, *Noms,* but each group switched forms of written help—those who were exposed to captions switched to a transcript and vice versa. The goal was to compare how different learners reacted to each type of enhanced input and to examine whether proficiency levels had affected the transcription outcome.

To analyze their reactions to captions or transcripts in their own practice and during this study, students were also asked to respond to three questionnaires. An initial questionnaire (Appendix A) was administered after viewing the first clip (week 18) to ascertain how they had previously used transcripts and subtitles. In the second questionnaire (Appendix B) in week 19, students commented on the usefulness or potential drawbacks of the written format to which they had been exposed. The same questionnaire (Appendix B) was administered in week 23, after the viewing of the second clip with the other form of help.

QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

Overall Transcription Gains

Given the small pool of participants, quantitative results may mainly point to possible trends to be further investigated and can inform the qualitative analysis that follows. The main quantitative measure was the degree of improvement in the transcription tasks between week 18 or 22 (without written support) and week 19 or 23 (after receiving the help of either captions or transcripts). Transcriptions were scored at the word level, with one point for each correct word (including homonyms or unchanged pronunciation) and ½ point for words with slight misspellings or recognizable roots. *Mariages* had a total of 140 words; *Noms* had 149 words. A comparison of the transcription exercise results showed that both the captions and the transcripts helped to increase the percentage of correctness.

None of the differences between the two conditions (captions vs. transcript) reached statistical significance. For *Mariages*, the mean for the correct transcription gains was 7.64% with the captions and 7.91% with the transcript. For *Noms*, the mean was 6.52% with the captions and 4.32% with the transcript (see Table 1). Thus, the results did not point to captions as clearly preferable to transcripts, as might have been expected from the literature on the benefits of captions discussed earlier.

Lack of statistical significance and superior effectiveness of one form of written support over the other may be explained by the fact that results varied greatly from student to student: some improved more with either captions or transcripts, and others improved nearly equally with both forms of help. Given the range of individual results, a more significant measure may be the medians for transcription gains, which were slightly higher with captions for both video clips, as shown in Table 1: For *Mariages*, the median was 7.5% with the captions and 5.71% with the transcript. For *Noms*, the median was 9.74% with the captions and 4.86% with the transcript. In other words, improvements tended to be greater for more students in the captions than the transcript group, although the limited scope of this study should make us wary of generalizations.

Table 1
Word % Gains by Condition

Condition	*Mariages Word Gain Mean*	*Mariages Word Gain Median*	*Noms Word Gain Mean*	*Noms Word Gain Median*
Captions (C)	7.64	7.50	6.52	9.74
Transcript (T)	7.91	5.71	4.32	4.86
C + T (class)	7.76	6.79	5.35	7.04

Role of Student Level in Help Effectiveness

Unlike stronger students, for whom the effectiveness of the textual help appears more random, weaker (Level 1+) students tended to show greater improvement with captions than they did with transcripts. With the first video, all three Level 1+ students improved well about the mean and the median with captions compared to their classmates, whereas two out of the three Level 1+ students in the transcript group ranked toward the bottom in terms of improvement. A similar trend emerged after the second video: one Level 1+ learner in the caption group obtained the greatest transcription gains when compared to his peers. In the transcript group, a 1+ student ranked last (see Table 2.).

Table 2
Transcription Gains*

Students coded by level	*Mariages Condition*	*Week 2 gain %*	*Mariages Gain Rank*	*Nom Condition*	*Week 2 gain %*	*Noms Gain Rank*
S1+a	T	9.64	4	**C**	**12.75**	**1**
S1+b	**C**	**12.5**	**2**	T	-5.7	15
S1+c	C	8.93	5	T	2.68	9
S1+d	C	9.65	3	T	9.39	7
S1+e	T	5.36	13	C	2.35	10
S1+f	T	4.29	14	C	9.74	6
S2+a	**T**	**16.78**	**1**	C	10.4	5
S3a	T	8.21	6	**C**	**10.73**	**2**

* Percentage (%) and peer ranking by form of textual help for all level 1+ students and students ranking #1 and # 2 (shown in bold), regardless of proficiency level.

Interestingly, with each video, four students whose transcriptions improved the most (ranking first or second in terms of progress compared to their peers—as shown in bold in Table 2) were either among the weaker, Level 1+ students in greater need of help, or stronger Level 2+ and 3 students. The latter were probably "expert learners" particularly adept at using learning strategies efficiently, in line with the literature cited earlier. However, when weaker students improved significantly, they did so with captions. As for the two stronger students who achieved the greatest improvements, one did so with a transcript and the other with captions (see Table 2).

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Learners' Preferences for Captions or Transcripts

The questionnaires given at the end of weeks 19 and 23, after viewing the first and second video clips supported by captions/transcripts, revealed that students preferred different forms of textual help. By the end of the study, eight students leaned toward captions, five toward transcripts, one did not commit, and one chose both. Meanwhile, some patterns linked to student proficiency levels emerged, as shown in Table 3. Most striking was that none of the six Level 1+ students indicated a preference for transcripts. On the other hand, regardless of the type of written support they were initially exposed to, the two advanced (Level 3) students went from favoring captions to preferring transcripts after the second video. As for the Level 2 and 2+ students, they were evenly divided in their preference for captions or transcripts. It may be worth noting also that out of the nine students at Levels 2 and above, six switched preferences after exposure to the other form of written help. Furthermore, after the second clip, five stated a preference for the type of help they had not just immediately experienced. Thus, intermediate learners *did not* clearly identify a preferred strategy, perhaps because they could envision the benefits of both forms of support to address the various deficiencies they may have had.

Table 3
Student Preference for Captions or Transcript after First and Second Video

Students (Coded by Level)	*Mariages C / T Condition*	*C / T Preference*	*Noms C / T Condition*	*C / T Preference*
S1+a	T	C	C	C probably
S1+b	C	C	T	C
S1+c	C	C	T	No answer
S1+d	C	C probably	T	C
S1+e	T	T	C	C
S1+f	T	C	C	C
S2a	C	C	T	C
S2b	C	C	T	Don't know/both
S2c	C	Both	T	T
S2d	T	T	C	T
S2+a	T	C	C	C
S2+b	T	Either	C	T
S2+c	C	T	T	C
S3a	T	C	C	T
S3b	C	C	T	T

Contrary to the author's expectations, stated preferences for either captions or transcripts were not closely correlated with past experience. The eight students who preferred captions were evenly divided among users and non-users of captioned films. In addition, of the nine students who in the past had chosen language materials with some form of subtitling to improve their language skills, only six were accustomed to French captioned films. This information suggests the need for more work at the metacognitive level to make learners fully aware of the strategies and resources that can give them control over their learning.

Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages of Captions and Transcripts

The open-ended responses to the questionnaires were coded and grouped around the main points mentioned by the students. Analyzing the students' perception of each form of textual support could help explain their stated preferences. The greatest benefit of captions, according to eight of the students, was the simultaneous, real-time juxtaposition of visual (text and images) and auditory modalities, which helped students at all levels recognize known words heard in context. Captions even facilitated discerning words and phrases that were unknown or difficult to hear, especially when speakers had strong accents or mumbled.

As mentioned by six students at all levels, transcripts also helped listeners identify difficult or unknown words, keep up with fast speech, and understand hard-to-follow accents. The main difference with captions, however, is the less transient and not-necessarily synchronous nature of a transcript "which stays in front of you," even in the context of this study with a one-time exposure limited to the duration of the audio clips. In particular, the transcripts gave students the freedom to preview the text and vocabulary ahead of the audio input. The ability to preview, according to two students, enabled them to focus on unknown words and better identify these words once they heard them. Two other students also viewed transcripts as useful references and study tools for looking up and reviewing vocabulary again at a later stage, especially if they could spend more time processing a transcript, as in most normal self-study situations.

Both captions and transcripts were also perceived to have some disadvantages. The biggest concern about captions, according to five students at different proficiency levels, was that they might become a distraction or a crutch if learners focused too much on the words on the screen instead of listening. Four students at levels 2 and above also found the gaps between the spoken text and the captions distracting at times because they tried to note the differences. However, learners should be made aware that noticing differences entails greater depth of processing, which is considered cognitively beneficial. Two other students complained about the speed of the captions, which at times forced them to either read or listen. This reaction may be due to lack of practice since neither had had experience with French captions.

As for transcripts, the main disadvantage listed by three students across levels was the difficulty of keeping up with all the details because the transcripts matched the audio exactly, unlike the more condensed captions. Even advanced students perceived transcripts as occasionally overwhelming because there were "too many details to focus on them all."

Strategies Adapted to Student Proficiency Levels

Beyond word and phrase recognition, the benefits brought by captions depended on the students' levels. Less proficient students still need word-level assistance to automatize their bottom-up processing of linguistic input, leaving attention capacity for processing higher levels of information fast enough in the rapid flow of utterances— especially if a listening passage is above their ability level (Hulstijn, 2003). In addition to helping listeners map the sounds they hear onto words, captions help novice language learners improve their ability to grasp the overall meaning more quickly as each caption parses structural patterns and chunks speech into meaningful units against the backdrop of a visually rich context (Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010). One Level 1+ learner added that captions kept the viewer interested. This interest can probably be attributed to improved comprehension, which undoubtedly increases motivation to learn a language.

With transcripts, on the other hand, novice learners missed most of the visual clues because they could not read and watch the video simultaneously, or they were distracted by the temptation to watch the screen. Such drawbacks were mentioned by two Level 1+ students, who most likely relied more on images. One other Level 1+ student, prone to process the language more haltingly, also remarked that the transcript caused him to pause more from time to time.

Unlike novices, more proficient students (Levels 2+ and 3) used the textual support provided by both captions and transcripts to fine tune their comprehension and focus on details "not heard quite right." A transcript gave these learners the added advantage of being able to read prior to listening to the audio, especially if they were adept at scanning a passage. Thus, according to their own testimony, the hard copy made it easier to predict the sounds and meanings of the input, locate relevant information, and identify subject and verb units or keywords around which to construct sentence-level meaning. They could then concentrate on the unknown words and phrases to confirm or refute hypotheses about the possible meaning of details and unfamiliar phrases, as experienced learners normally do (Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010).

As for intermediate (Level 2/2+) learners, who may need improvement in grammar, vocabulary, decoding speed, or discourse pattern recognition, they may prefer captions to improve a bottom-up processing approach focused on form or favor transcripts to perfect their use of top-down strategies. Thus, rather than dictating an approach, educators should raise their students' strategy awareness and provide materials allowing for choices in ways aural input can be enhanced.

Case Study: Effects of Captions and Transcript on One Novice Learner

One case study may further illustrate some of the points discussed above regarding the different effects captions and transcripts can have on learners, especially on struggling students at the novice level. S1+b's case is particularly revealing since this Level 1+ student did well with captions and exceptionally poorly with a transcript. S1+b improved by 12.5% with captions after the first video; but on the second clip with a transcript, she actually scored 5.7% lower compared to her initial transcription results without any help. Her inability to take advantage of the tools at her disposal, as in this particular exercise, is probably a reflection of the difficulties she experienced in the course. She was the only student who remained at Level 1+ in listening on the final DLPT, failing to meet the minimum course requirement.

The analysis of S1+b's transcription errors after the first viewing of *Mariages* highlighted the linguistic challenges of this student who struggled with grammar, vocabulary, and sound discrimination. With many details eluding her, she was unable to come up with educated guesses about the main idea. However, after viewing the captioned clip in week 19, she noticed familiar phrases and keywords that she had missed the first time, including some less common, unknown words. Thus, she started making sense of the audio and ventured some guesses. Although these guesses often remained inaccurate or fragmented, the captions seemed to have helped remove some of her negative affective filters and instill a degree of confidence. Because she improved with only a short, one-time exposure to captions, longer and repeated exposure to them would have likely increased the amount of comprehensible input and provided the necessary scaffolding for building her listening skills.

With the second video clip, she struggled again with the initial transcription exercise and understood only isolated, often approximate words and phrases. Her biggest challenge, however, might have been an inability to use the second week's transcript help and re-listening opportunities to build on the first week's understanding. In fact, her transcription worsened because she either repeated the same mistakes or even omitted phrases she had previously heard correctly. Thus, the transcript confused her and made her more tentative in her interpretation. This example confirms the theoretical premise that weaker students may benefit most from multimodal forms of input to help them keep up with the audio, parse sentences, and process foreign utterances.

In her own rating of the usefulness of the help provided after seeing each enhanced video, she stated that captions were "very helpful" because reading and listening simultaneously "helped a lot with recognition." Not surprisingly, given her performance on the second transcription exercise, she perceived the transcript as "not really helpful." S1+b's example may show that for some novice students, finding ways to overcome mental blocks while listening to foreign utterances is the first step toward progress. For such students, captions may be the means to surmount this obstacle. Her case may also illustrate the difficulties of a "poor language learner" who, in contrast to the

"expert learner," lacks the metacognitive knowledge to use strategies flexibly and in accordance to the demands of the task (Rubin, 2005).

Systematic teacher intervention to help such students develop greater metacognitive awareness in how to approach tasks and gain self-confidence might be as crucial to success in a language course as increasing their linguistic knowledge. Teaching learning strategies, as summarized by Rubin (2013), involves strategy awareness-raising techniques, explicit presentation of new strategies, practice opportunities, and evaluation of their effectiveness. Due to the complexity of this process, Rubin (forthcoming) stresses that teachers themselves "need a lot more training and support to incorporate learning strategies into their own classes." Close analyses of error and error correction patterns before and after exposure to captioning or a transcript could be one of the techniques to teach metacognition in relation to a listening task. By learning to compare initial hypotheses with written feedback from captions and transcripts, students may develop effective strategies to self-assess their weaknesses and seek solutions to overcome them, at first with instructor guidance, and ultimately on their own.

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The preceding exploratory study suggests that learners at different proficiency levels can derive distinct benefits from captions and transcripts during a listening task. Captions, which provide more readily-accessible multimodal input and pre-parsed text, appear particularly helpful to novice students. For students who may be at risk of failure, as exemplified by the case study, it is crucial to find ways to overcome the seemingly overwhelming challenge of processing fleeting listening material above their comfort level. On the other end of the spectrum, advanced students find that transcripts give them greater freedom to focus on comprehension gaps, thereby enhancing comprehension of details. Beyond these extremes, most learners benefit from both forms of multimodal input and use each type of textual support in idiosyncratic ways. The more learners are exposed to different strategies, the more they are likely to be successful in using strategies that serve their purpose.

We should, however, avoid over-generalizing with reference to learner differences, given the obvious limitations of this exploratory study. First, with a larger pool of students, a control group without textual help could be created to compare its progress with that of the other two treated groups and measure the impact of the practice effect. Second, this study only examined differences in learner proficiency levels. Follow-up analyses should consider the role of learning styles as another important variable. Third, participants were exposed to captions and transcripts only once under very strict time constraints. One may wonder how repeated timed or self-paced exposures to the same enhanced input would affect the results. Beyond all these short-term approaches, a longitudinal study could investigate the impact of increased familiarity with captions,

compared with the routine transcript support. Finally, researchers may use additional instruments to examine the role of captions and transcripts during the decoding of aural input. Interview data, think-aloud protocols, and computer tracking may shed light on a learner's cognitive processes; moreover, recall protocols may reveal how much of a listening passage a student has understood and remembered.

Although there is still much to learn on the far-reaching effects of both types of textual help, the preliminary observations of the current study can serve as a basis for pedagogical recommendations. As one of the ways to encourage self-correction and reflection, teachers should consider providing students ample listening material with both types of written support, or, at the very least, alternating caption and transcript help. Thus, under their teachers' guidance initially, learners can learn to benefit from these multimodal approaches and develop the self-monitoring strategies best adapted to their linguistic needs and learning styles. With the plethora of multimedia material enhanced with such help options, the hope is that increased metacognitive awareness and intellectual curiosity will inspire students to explore these tools on their own, thus becoming autonomous, self-reflective lifelong learners. Where researchers can benefit is to closely follow and chronicle students' cognitive journeys as they learn to use these tools with increasing skill and confidence in their linguistic capabilities.

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NOTES

1. The views expressed in this article are those of the author and do not reflect the official policy of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, the Department of Defense, or the US Government.
2. US Government. *Interagency Language Roundtable*. http://www.govtilr.org/Skills/ILRscale3.htm
3. SCOLA is a non-profit educational organization that provides authentic foreign language resources. In particular, it receives and re-transmits foreign TV programming, such as news broadcasts, from around the world. http://www.scola.org

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APPENDIX A

Sample Initial Questionnaire

Week One Questionnaire

Name: _____ Date: _____

1- You have just watched the short video on **"**Les Mariages gris" and answered some questions about the clip. What percentage of the video do you feel you have understood?
   a. 75 – 100%
   b. 50 – 74%
   c. 25 – 49%
   d. Less than 25%

2- In your opinion, what was the difficulty level of this clip in relation to what you most often see in class?
   a. harder than the average clip
   b. easier than the average
   c. at about the same level as the average

3- Explain how you usually use a transcript to increase your understanding of a clip shown by your instructor? (For example, do you read first and watch again? Do you read and listen simultaneously? Do you read the transcript multiple times, and if so, how many?)

   _____
   _____
   _____

4- Do you watch French subtitled films? _____ How many per month? _____

5- If you answered "yes" to # 4, please specify the following:
   a. % of French films with French subtitles? _____
   b. % of French films with English subtitles? _____
   c. % American films dubbed into French with French subtitles? _____
   d. % American films dubbed into French with English subtitles? _____

6- If you watch subtitled films, please explain how you feel they help your language learning. If you do not watch subtitled films, please explain why not.

   _____
   _____
   _____

APPENDIX B

Sample Second Week Questionnaire

Week Two Questionnaire (Subtitling)

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. You have just watched "Les Mariages gris" again this week and answered some questions about the clip. What percentage of the video do you feel you have understood after today's session?

a. 75 – 100%
b. 50 – 74%
c. 25 – 49%
d. Less than 25%

2. Please rate the usefulness of the same-language subtitles:

a. Very helpful to you

b. Somewhat helpful

c. Not really helpful

Please explain your rating:

_____

_____

3. To what extent did your comprehension of the clip increase as a result of listening to the final audio-only format today?

a. A lot

b. A little

c. Not much

Please explain your rating:

_____

_____

4. Did the subtitles present any disadvantages? If so, please explain.

_____

_____

5. If you had a choice between watching a clip with same-language subtitles or a transcript, which of the two formats do you think would be most beneficial to your learning style, and why?

_____

_____

6. Please provide other comments you may have about the clip, its various presentation formats, or regarding what you have learned from this experiment?

_____

_____

Military and Civilian L2 Instructors: Decoding Perceptions of U.S. Service Academy Cadets

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This study examined whether cadets at a U.S. service academy perceived attitudinal differences toward their military and civilian L2 instructors along three variables: foreign language expertise, communicative anxiety, and relatability. Cadets' proficiency levels (divided by beginning and intermediate classes) and current instructor (civilian or military) were also analyzed to determine their bearing on the perception data. Beginning and intermediate learners of Arabic, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish (n=267) completed an instructor perception questionnaire and volunteer students (n=9) participated in group interviews to provide opinions of the two instructor types. Descriptive statistics indicated that cadets viewed civilian instructors as more knowledgeable in foreign languages, whereas military instructors as more relatable. Ratings for communicative anxiety were evenly spread between the two groups. Separate two-factor, between groups ANOVAs revealed significant differences between the two language level groups (beginning and intermediate) with respect to expertise and anxiety, but not for relatability. Current instructor (civilian or military) was not found to influence opinions. Interview data, while providing nuanced perspectives, generally aligned with the quantitative results. Findings from this study can help service academy L2 instructors modify their teaching approaches to better enhance foreign language achievement in the classroom. Team-teaching between the two instructor types is also viewed as a helpful pedagogical strategy. Lastly, the data provide insight into important topics in second language acquisition within the military community.

Keywords: *student attitudes, second language instruction, service academies, instructor differences, military education*

At U.S. service academies, cadets (U.S. Military Academy at West Point and the U.S. Air Force Academy) and midshipmen (U.S. Naval Academy) often receive foreign language instruction from both military and civilian educators. These distinct professional cultures may uniquely impact second language (L2) learning in ways not observed in civilian institutions. Currently, no researchers have explored whether undergraduate military students (henceforth designated as *cadets*) perceive a dissimilar L2 learning experience between the two different instructor sets. It is not clear, for example, if cadets experience anxiety in the presence of officers due to their authoritative influence, hindering full participation in L2 classroom communicative activities. Similarly, cadets may identify less with civilian foreign language instructors because they feel that military members offer a better understanding of foreign language use within a military context. Also, the question remains whether cadets perceive civilian instructors, many of whom possess more advanced academic credentials than their military counterparts, as better teachers of foreign languages.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous Student Perception Research[1]

Research on student attitudes toward L2 classroom instructors has centered on native speaker (NS) versus non-native speaker (NNS) teachers in an English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environment (Beckett & Stiefvater, 2009; Lasagabaster, 2002; Liu, 2007; Mahboob, 2004; Sakurai, 2012; Tanabe & Mori, 2013). The common goal of these studies is to identify perceived advantages and disadvantages of each instructor type as conveyed by learners' opinions and attitudes. Various methodological approaches have been employed to gather and analyze student perception data. For example, ethnographic data analysis by Beckett and Stiefvater (2009) revealed that ESL students from a U.S. university viewed non-native English speaking ESL teachers as more empathetic towards L2 learning experiences, but did not favor the instructors' non-native-like accentedness. Through a questionnaire, Sakurai (2012) pointed out that Arabic learners' concepts of "good" Japanese language instructors depended upon their personal expectations of native and non-native speaker teachers. In yet another student perception study, Ma (2012) utilized semi-structured, focus group interviews with secondary EFL students in Hong Kong to measure different strengths and weaknesses of the native and local (non-native) English teachers assigned to three different institutions.

Studies on the attitudes of American students enrolled in foreign language courses at the undergraduate level, however, are limited (Hertel & Sunderman, 2009; McKay, 2004; Meadows & Muramatsu, 2007). Hertel and Sunderman (2009), for instance, used questionnaires to evaluate how college language learners of Spanish viewed their NS and NNS instructors. They

concluded that learners perceived different advantages with NS teachers (vocabulary, pronunciation, and cultural information) and NNS teachers (grammar instruction), with students offering no clear preference for either type of instructor. Meadows and Muramatsu (2007) gleaned perception data from a university in the American Southwest. They used a mixed-methods approach to explore undergraduates' perceptions of NS and NNS teachers in four different foreign language courses. Quantitative results showed a preference for NS teachers in Asian over Romance languages. Qualitative responses, however, advocated a tag-team approach (incorporating both instructor sets) to foreign language instruction, highlighting the respective expertise NS and NNS instructors possessed. McKay (2004) surveyed over 80 undergraduate Japanese learners on their preferences for NS versus NNS instructors. Results indicated an overall inclination for NS teachers due to their perceived ability to provide more authentic language instruction. Whereas undergraduate perception data emanate exclusively from civilian universities, no major study has been conducted at military academies.

An additional concern regarding L2 perception research is that studies are often methodologically one-sided, focusing on either a qualitative (Ma, 2012; Mahboob, 2004) or quantitative (Hertel & Sunderman, 2009; Lasagabaster, 2002; Sakurai, 2012) approach to data collection. Although these studies have provided invaluable data about learner attitudes towards their instructors, researchers (Lasagabaster, 2002; Moussu & Llurda, 2008) often indicate a need for mixed-design methodologies to balance findings. For example, Hertel and Sunderman (2009) opined that future [quantitative] studies might benefit from a qualitative perspective to "gain a deeper understanding of student perceptions and further adjust instructor education programs and TA (teaching assistant) preparation to better meet learners' needs" (p. 480). Fortunately, several researchers have accepted the challenge as the amount of mixed-methods research studies within students' perceptions regarding native versus non-native teachers is on the rise (Alseweed, 2012; Callahan, 2006; Meadows & Murmatsu, 2007). This study comprises a similar mixed-methods design.

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

One of the factors considered in this research is foreign language anxiety and its effect on communicative behavior in the classroom. In their seminal work, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) detailed "fear of negative evaluation" (p. 128) as a founding principle of L2 production anxiety in an academic context. Students may avoid participation in L2 communicative activities out of fear of not meeting standards imposed by the instructor. To measure this facet of L2 anxiety in an instructional setting, Horwitz et al. (1986) developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). A variety of studies have implemented the FLCAS to gauge sources of anxiety and explore the fear of negative evaluation (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Shabani, 2012). For instance, Shabani's (2012) analysis of Iranian undergraduate students

studying English literature revealed a significant correlation between students' anxiety and their fear of provoking a negative appraisal of their L2 abilities by peers and instructors. This study used an adaption of the FLCAS as part of the anxiety testing materials. In addition to its negative effects on communication, language anxiety also appears to hamper L2 acquisition in certain individuals (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz, 2001; Saito & Samimy, 1996). For example, in a recent study involving almost 700 secondary education EFL students from Spain, Bernaus and Gardner (2008) found that language anxiety, as measured by the Attitude Motivation Test Battery, negatively contributed to English achievement. Reading and listening comprehension skills tests were used to evaluate L2 learnability for each individual. Similarly, Sheen (2008) discovered that language anxiety negatively impacted certain focus-on-forms learning techniques. Specifically, instructor-provided recasts were only effective for low-anxiety ESL learners, who produced significantly higher levels of modified output than their high-anxiety counterparts. Sheen related the increase in modified output as evidence of language learning. In concert with these studies, cadets perceiving higher anxiety from their L2 instructors may experience similar impediments toward foreign language achievement in the classroom.

Along with foreign language anxiety, students in L2 courses at U.S. service academies may also be prone to common stressors found within a military environment. As members of the U.S. Armed Forces, cadets are trained to respect the hierarchical rank structure of military officers. Such strict superior-subordinate relationships can influence communicative encounters between the two groups, even in the L1. Halbe (2011) noted that members of a U.S. Army battalion altered use of language depending upon with whom they were speaking. During non-combat office situations, lower ranking soldiers used an elevated politeness with superiors, which was born out of regulations and a respect for the military institution. In a study of conversational interactions between members of the U.S. Navy, Dean, Willis, and Hewitt (1975) counted the number of floor tiles between the two interlocutors. Results indicated that the distance in tiles became greater when the differences in rank were greater. Similarly, it is possible that some cadets may view military instructors as not merely foreign language teachers, but figures of authority and possible triggers of L2 speaking anxiety.

Instructor Relatability

Another area examined is how instructor relatability may motivate cadets to acquire a second language. In this context, *relatability* is defined as the ability to form a connection and display common interests (see Kendall & Schussler, 2013). Research specifically linking cadets to their military instructors in the context of relatability is perhaps nonexistent. Instead, parallels can be construed from literature and studies dealing with *occupational homophily* (the notion that a similar occupational or organizational role facilitates connection; see McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001) and the

concept of student-teacher relatability in adult education. McPherson et al. (2001) described how similarity (e.g., in terms of race, gender, etc.) often breeds stronger connected networks than dissimilar entities. Learning benefits from homophily in social networks included facilitation of information transfer and the exchange of ideas. In the current case, cadets graduate from academies and become military officers, a fact that cements the two groups in similar career goals and interests. Additionally, military instructors are likely to elaborate on certain occupational perks of L2 acquisition, such as the Foreign Language Incentive Program which provides monetary bonuses for high language proficiency (Christensen, 2013). Although homophily strengthens interconnectedness within certain groups, McPherson et al. (2001) suggested that the phenomenon exhibits negative qualities as well, often limiting social interaction and hampering the reception of new information from perceived outsiders.

In terms of learning motivation, researchers are starting to examine how student-teacher relatability can enhance the educational experience (Frisby & Martin, 2010; Kendall & Schussler, 2013; Muzaka, 2009). For instance, Frisby and Martin (2010) found in their survey of over 230 college-level students that perceived instructor rapport was positively related to self-assessed cognitive learning and affective understanding of the content material. Students were also more likely to participate in classroom activities and enroll in similar courses if a strong personal connection with their teacher was noted. Kendall and Schussler (2013) detailed the importance of anecdotes from their research on undergraduate students' descriptions of their biology professors. On one occasion, a student associated relatability with "the stories or anecdotes they [professors] use to make the material engaging" that is "something I can understand or relate to in some way" (p. 207). Muzaka (2009) also highlighted the educational benefits of relatability through shared life experiences. Muzaka conducted a survey at a university in the United Kingdom and found undergraduates perceived graduate teaching assistants as more approachable due to their "recent experience of undergraduate university life" (p. 5), making them more relatable than the general academic staff. Similarly, military-related L2 anecdotes and a shared military culture may contribute to higher relatability ratings for military instructors at the service academies.

The ability of students to relate to their foreign language instructors may also contribute to their ideal L2 self. Dörnyei (2005) described the ideal L2 self as a component of one's broader L2 Motivational Self System. One's ideal L2 self is one's imagined, ideal future self. In the case of foreign language use, it is how the person sees him or herself (ideally) using the language in the future. Dörnyei claimed that one's ideal L2-speaking self "can be seen as a member of an imagined L2 community whose mental construction is partly based on our real-life experiences of members of the community/communities speaking the particular L2 in question and partly on our imagination" (p. 102). The function of the military role model, in this case, could enhance the ideal L2 self by reflecting an image of the military teacher (a future, successful foreign language user) onto the cadet. Previous studies on ideal L2 self (e.g., Dörnyei & Chan,

2013; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; LoCastro, 2001; Magid & Chan, 2012) have focused on ESL, EFL, or foreign language learning exclusively through the lens of civilian instruction. The current study focuses on the ideal L2 self and foreign language learning through the perspective of military instruction.

THE PRESENT STUDY

This study examined cadet attitudes towards their military and civilian instructors at a U.S. service academy. The research questions were as follows:

1. Do cadets at a U.S. service academy perceive a different L2 learning experience with military versus civilian instructors with respect to the following factors: perceived subject-matter expertise, communicative anxiety, and relatability?

2. Do cadets' perceptions vary depending on proficiency levels or current instructor type?

In order to orient the broader second language acquisition community to a possibly unfamiliar learning environment, a brief description is provided regarding foreign language instruction at military colleges in general and the particular military college where this research was conducted. U.S. service academies are four-year, undergraduate institutions that educate and train students to become officers in the U.S. military upon degree completion. Thereafter, members serve as officers in their respective military branch (Army, Navy, Marines, or Air Force) for a minimum of five years. This research focused on a major U.S. service academy due to the extensive number of foreign languages offered for study at that institution.[2] Table 1 provides a breakdown of the academy's Department of Foreign Languages (DFL) teaching staff, as well as their academic credentials, at the time of data collection.

Table 1
DFL Teaching Staff Information

	No. of Instructors	*Held Master's Degrees**	*Held Doctorate Degrees**
Military	27**	24	3
Civilian	24	4	20
Total	51	28	23

*The majority of degrees were within foreign language or language-related fields of study

**This group included one German, one Brazilian, and one Mexican exchange officer

METHOD

Participants

A large sample of cadets (*n*=267) from the U.S. service academy described above participated in the quantitative portion of the study. Of the total number, 178 had experienced both military and civilian instructors throughout their foreign language coursework (henceforth referred to as the *Both Instructor* group), becoming the focus group for the research. From the remaining participants, 84 had experienced only military instructors (*Military* group) and five only civilian instructors (*Civilian* group).

Cadets in the *Both Instructor* group (*n*=178) were enrolled in various foreign language courses, including Arabic, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish. There were 73 beginning students enrolled in a second-semester language course and 105 intermediate students in a fourth-semester course. At the time of the questionnaire, 98 were being taught by a military instructor and 80 by a civilian instructor; 17 were enrolled with a NS teacher, 159 with a NNS teacher, and two did not know about their teachers' nativeness. Finally, 156 were male and 22 were female. In addition to the questionnaire participants, nine cadets volunteered to engage in semi-structured interviews, adding a qualitative perspective to the study. Of this group, six were from a beginner course (one female) and three were at the intermediate level (no females).

Materials and Procedure

This study used a mixed-methods approach to data collection and analysis. Specifically, a convergent parallel design was employed to compare and contrast qualitative results with quantitative findings for developing a more robust understanding of the L2 environment (see Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Cadets completed a paper questionnaire (see Appendix A) to assess their overall L2 learning experiences with military and civilian instructors. The instructor perception questionnaire was divided into two sections. The first section contained participants' background information, including gender, L2 instructor history at the academy, current course enrollment, and present instructor status (military or civilian; native or non-native speaker). The second section consisted of 18 perception questions on a 9-point Likert scale, from "1" (definitely military) to "5" (no difference) to "9" (definitely civilian), with equal gradation in between. To eliminate any left-side bias, the direction of the scale was reversed in 50% of the distributed surveys. For this particular study, a 9-point Likert scale was chosen in order to create greater variance and higher reliability given the sample size of respondents to the questionnaire (see Winke, 2014).

The 18 items on the questionnaire equally represented aspects of the three dependent variables: perception of subject-matter expertise, foreign language communicative anxiety, and instructor relatability. The study adapted a portion of the statements from Hertel and Sunderman's (2009) questionnaire of NS and NNS teacher perceptions, as well as from the FLCAS (Horwitz, et al., 1986); added a supplementary question to examine students' views on the importance of having a NS teacher instruct their foreign language courses (7-point Likert scale from "1" (very unimportant) to "7" (very important)); it also provided an additional feedback section.

Two separate group interviews were conducted (divided by learner proficiency level) for those involved in the qualitative portion of the study. Group interviews afforded the opportunity to dialogue with the maximum number of cadets given time constraints, facilitated interactivity, and established a more relaxed atmosphere for participants (see Ma, 2012). Both interviews were conducted in a private office provided by the academy's DFL and recorded for subsequent coding. Six beginner-level cadets participated in the first interview, and three intermediate-level cadets participated in the second. Much like Ma's (2012) qualitative study on student attitudes of their L2 instructors, the semi-structured, group interviews allowed cadets the freedom to highlight and explore related issues arising from the established questions (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Although focus questions existed (see Appendix B), the goal of the interviews was exploratory, allowing cadets the opportunity to add personal stories to the conversation (Richards, 2003). Content and thematic references addressing cadet perceptions of the three dependent variables supplemented the quantitative data results.

RESULTS

Quantitative Data and Results

The first research question of the study addressed whether cadets at a U.S. service academy perceived a different L2 learning experience with military versus civilian instructors in perceived subject-matter expertise, communicative anxiety, and relatability. To answer this question, data from the *Both Instructor* group were examined. As a first step, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were estimated for questionnaire scales of the three dependent variables. The results (Table 2) indicated high reliability amongst the internal items.

Table 2
Information about the Questionnaire Scales

Scale	*No. of items*	*Cronbach's alpha*	*Items*
Expertise	5*	.873	• Which instructors are better able to teach you cultural information? • Which instructors are better able to teach you pronunciation in your foreign language? • Which instructors have more expertise in foreign languages? • Which instructors know more foreign language vocabulary? • Which instructors have more experience with foreign languages?
Less Anxiety	6	.874	• Which instructors make you feel more comfortable when you have to speak your foreign language in front of them? • In the presence of which instructors is it easier for you to practice speaking a foreign language? • Which instructors make you feel less stress when you speak a foreign language in front of them? • In front of which instructors does it bother you less if you make speaking errors? • In the presence of which instructors do you worry less about speaking incorrectly in your foreign language? • In front of which instructors do you feel more confident when you speak a foreign language?
Relatability	6	.850	• Which instructors are the best models for how you will use your foreign language in the future? • Which instructors inspire you to learn a foreign language?

	• To which instructors do you relate better when learning a foreign language? • Which instructors have a better understanding of how you will apply your foreign language skills in the future? • With which instructors is foreign language learning more purposeful? • Which instructors are better role models for how to apply foreign languages post-graduation?

*One survey question that did not correlate well with the other items on the scale was removed (i.e., *Which instructors are better able to explain foreign language grammar?*)

The last inquiry on the instructor perception questionnaire (i.e., *How important is it to have a native speaker teacher instruct your foreign language classes?*) acted as a control item to determine whether NS teacher favorability influenced the cadets' opinions of their foreign language teachers. Descriptive statistics determined that NS teacher preference (M=4.36, SD=1.44) for the *Both Instructor* group fell between "no difference" and "slightly important" on the 7-point NS teacher Likert scale. Intermediate students (n=105) generated a higher mean (M=4.59, SD=1.31) compared to the beginner students (n=73), (M=4.03, SD=1.55). An independent samples t test revealed a significant difference in the mean values between the two proficiency groups, t (176) = -2.62, p = .01, r = .19, indicating a higher preference for NS teachers at the intermediate level.

After considering NS teachers as an influence, descriptive statistics were used to determine if students perceived differences between military and civilian instructors. The percentages of respondents from the *Both Instructor* group to all three dependent variables using a collapsed Likert scale rating are presented in Table 3. Here, rating scores "1-4" represented a preference for military instructors, "5" no difference (the neutral value), and "6-9" a preference for civilian instructors. The collapsed scale revealed a general pattern in the data. In terms of foreign language expertise, over half of the respondents perceived civilian instructors as more knowledgeable. Military instructors were perceived as generating slightly less anxiety and exhibiting much higher relatability. One-sample t tests indicated that all mean values of the three scales were significantly different from the neutral value.

Table 3
Instructor Perceptions Based on the Three Dependent Variables (Both Instructor Groups)

	Mean (SD)	*Military*	*No Differ-ence*	*Civilian*	*Mean Difference from Neutral Value*		
					t	*r*	*p*
Possesses more expertise	5.55 (1.36)	23.0%	22.5%	54.5%	5.41	.38	.000*
Generates less anxiety	4.83 (1.13)	39.9%	29.2%	30.9%	-1.97	.15	.050*
Has higher relatability	3.98 (1.27)	73.6%	12.9%	13.5%	-10.67	.63	.000*

n=178; *$p < .05$

Table 4 provides a more nuanced display of the *Expertise* ratings, which spans different aspects of foreign language instruction and knowledge. Similar to Table 3, data are presented using a collapsed Likert scale. One-sample *t* tests showed that four of the five items from the scale were significantly different from the neutral value.

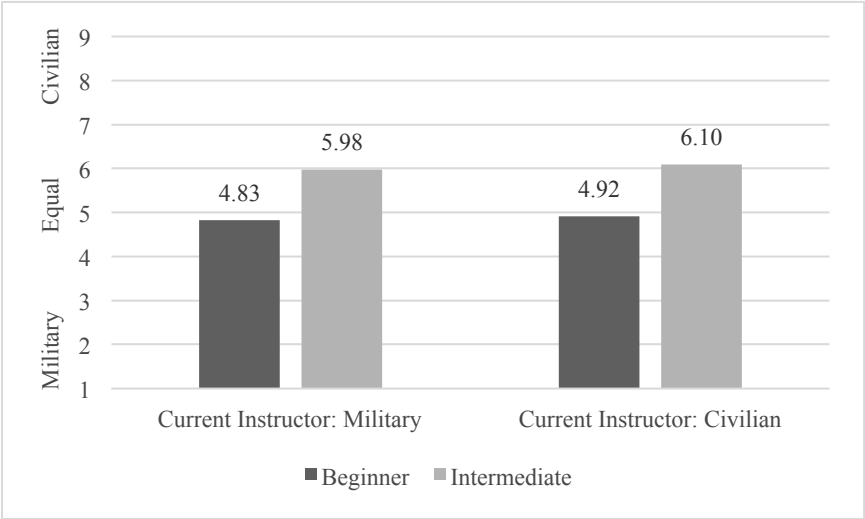
Table 4
Perceptions of Each Instructor Type Based on Expertise

Item	*Mean (SD)*	*Military*	*No Differ-ence*	*Civilian*	*Mean Difference from Neutral Value*		
					t	*r*	*p*
Better able to teach cultural information	5.16 (1.88)	28.1%	39.9%	32.0%	1.12	.08	.267
Better able to teach L2 pronunciation	5.48 (1.47)	10.7%	55.1%	34.2%	4.32	.31	.000*
Has more expertise in the L2	5.71 (1.68)	11.8%	43.8%	44.4%	5.64	.39	.000*
Knows more L2 vocabulary	5.74 (1.59)	7.9%	51.1%	41.0%	6.22	.42	.000*
Has more experience with the L2	5.67 (1.71)	13.5%	42.7%	43.8%	5.26	.37	.000*

n=178; *$p < .05$

Responses were more evenly distributed regarding the dependent variable *Less Anxiety*, although mean results supported a significant preference towards military instructors. Lastly, almost three-quarters of cadets perceived military instructors as exhibiting significantly more *Relatability* in the context of post-graduation L2 application. Findings indicated that cadets perceive significant differences among the two instructor types with respect to the study's three dependent variables.

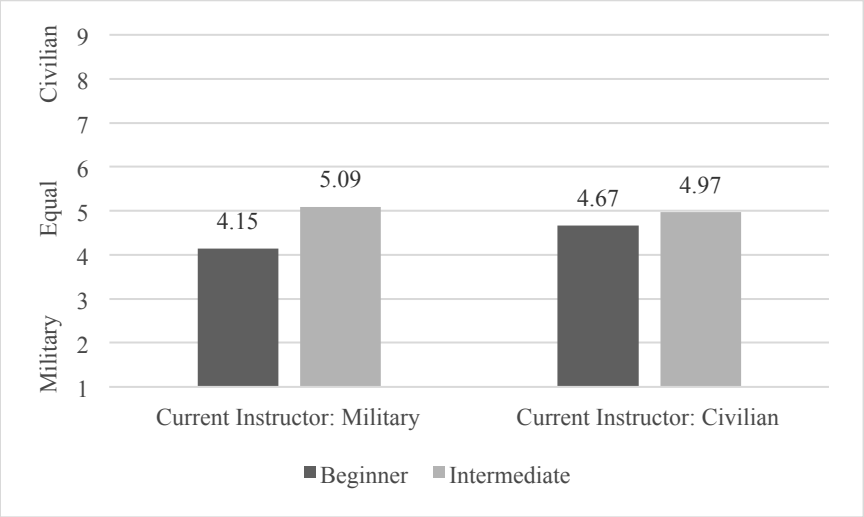
The second research question inquired whether cadets' perceptions varied depending on proficiency level or current instructor type. Values from the 9-point Likert scale were used to capture a more specified degree of perception. Separate, two-factor, between groups ANOVAs were run to determine any significant main effects between the two independent variables, proficiency level (beginner, intermediate) and current instructor (military, civilian), for each of the three dependent variables. Response patterns for *Expertise* are visualized in Figure 1. Analysis revealed a significant main effect for proficiency level, F (1, 174) = 30.43, p = .000, n_ρ^2 = .15, *power* = 1.00, but no main effect for current instructor. The interaction between the two factors was also not significant. Findings suggest intermediate learners perceived civilian instructors as greater foreign language experts than their lower proficiency counterparts perceived.



n=178

Figure 1
Mean Perception Rating of Expertise by Proficiency Level and Current Instructor

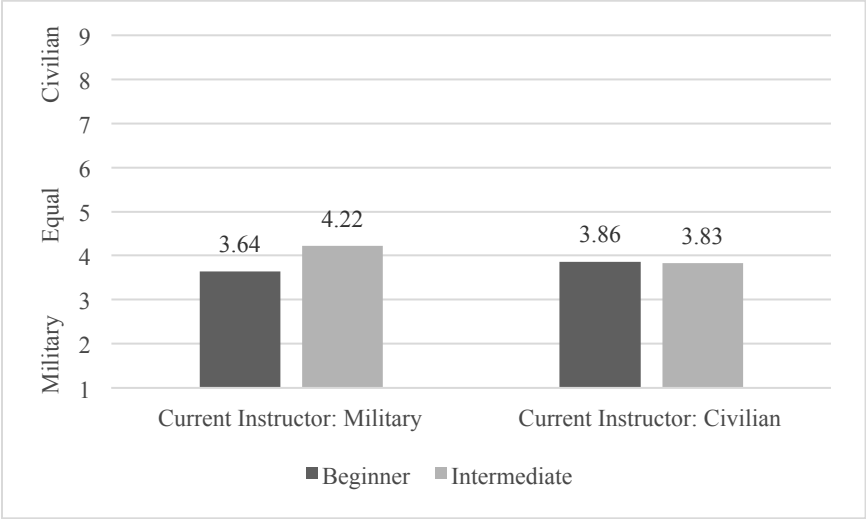
Figure 2 summarizes response data for *Less Anxiety*. Analysis revealed a significant main effect for proficiency level, F (1, 174)=11.33, p=.001, n_ρ^2 =.06, *power*=.92, but no main effect for current instructor. There was, however, a trending significant *Proficiency by Instructor* interaction, F (1, 174)=2.94, p=.088, n_ρ^2=.02, *power*=.40. Findings suggest intermediate learners perceived no difference in the instructor types with respect to *generating less anxiety* in the classroom. Beginning learners, however, viewed military instructors as slightly lesser sources of communicative anxiety.



n=178

Figure 2
Mean Perception Rating of Less Anxiety by Proficiency Level and Current Instructor

Figure 3 shows comparisons for the variable *Relatability*. Analysis revealed non-significant main effects for both proficiency level and current instructor. The interaction between the two factors was also not significant. Findings suggest all cadets from the *Both Instructor* group perceived military instructors as more relatable than civilian ones.



n=178

Figure 3
Mean Perception Rating of Relatability by Proficiency Level and Current Instructor

Lastly, an analysis determined whether cadets experiencing only one kind of instructor (*Military* or *Civilian* groups) maintained stereotypes toward the other type. Because of the low number of participants in the *Civilian* group (*n*=5), only data from the *Military* group (*n*=84) were examined. See Table 5 for the percentages of respondents to all three dependent variables on the collapsed Likert scale rating.

Table 5
Instructor Perceptions Based on the Three Dependent Variables, Military Group

	Mean (SD)	*Military*	*No Differ-ence*	*Civilian*	*Mean Difference from Neutral Value*		
					t	*r*	*p*
Possesses more expertise	4.67 (1.43)	34.5%	38.1%	27.4%	-2.13	.23	.036*
Generates less anxiety	4.36 (1.35)	45.2%	41.7%	13.1%	-4.36	.43	.000*
Has higher relatability	3.45 (1.34)	78.6%	21.4%	0.0%	-10.62	.76	.000*

n=84; *$p < .05$

Whereas responses were somewhat uniform between the instructor types in terms of foreign language expertise, a one-sample *t* test indicated a significant preference toward military instructors. Cadets believed military instructors generated less communicative anxiety, followed closely by "no difference." In addition, 78.6% of students perceived military instructors as more relatable, with civilian instructors garnering zero responses. Finally, descriptive statistics determined that NS teacher preference (*M*=4.06, *SD*=1.28) was not an important factor for cadets in the *Military* group, as the total mean value approximately equaled "no difference" on the NS teacher Likert scale.

Independent samples *t* tests were conducted to determine if differences between the two language-proficiency levels existed. Table 6 shows significant differences between the proficiency groups with respect to perceptions of expertise, whereas overall opinions about who generates less anxiety and possesses higher relatability remain stable for military instructors.

Table 6
Results of Independent Samples t Tests, Military Group

Variable	*Proficiency*	*n*	*Mean (SD)*	*t*	*r*	*p*
Expertise	Beginner	59	4.45 (1.40)	-2.17	.23	.03*
	Intermediate	25	5.18 (1.42)			
Less Anxiety	Beginner	59	4.23 (1.42)	-1.44	.19	.16
	Intermediate	25	4.65 (1.14)			
Relatability	Beginner	59	3.40 (1.40)	-.53	.06	.60
	Intermediate	25	3.57 (1.22)			

*$p < .05$

Qualitative Data and Results

Interviews involving the two proficiency groups (*Beginner* and *Intermediate*), along with comments from the instructor perception questionnaire, revealed that cadets perceive a different L2 learning experience with military versus civilian instructors. From the data, themes were identified for each instructor type based on *Expertise*, *Less Anxiety*, and *Relatability*. Comments generally aligned with the quantitative results, but the responses provided a more nuanced perspective on the differentiations between the two instructor types. The main themes from the student comments are as follows:

Expertise

1. Civilian instructors are perceived as generally more knowledgeable in foreign languages.
2. Military and civilian instructors provide different but complementary types of L2 expertise.

Less Anxiety

3. Instructor personality regulates the level of foreign language classroom anxiety.

Relatability

4. Military instructors offer better examples of L2 applicability post-graduation.

The first theme that emerged from the interviews related to the perception of foreign language expertise among the instructor types. Examples 1 and 2 denote how civilian instructors seem to exhibit more overall L2 knowledge than their military counterparts.

Example 1. "I think that the civilian instructors tend to have a little bit more knowledge on colloquialisms than some of the military instructors do. Sometimes they'll just be a little more familiar with how the terms and the phrases that we are learning are used in social life or just in everyday conversation" (Beginner, Cadet Foxtrot).

Example 2. "I think my civilian instructor had more experience in the language. He had a lot more cultural experience and knew a lot more about the different dialects and different forms and stuff" (Intermediate, Cadet Golf).

With respect to the second theme, several cadets mentioned that both instructor types provided different but complementary sources of foreign language knowledgeability. Examples 3 and 4 focus on this distinction and Example 5 explains the benefit of learning a foreign language via a team approach.

Example 3. "I would not necessarily say that there is much of a difference…it's a different source of knowledge" (Beginner, Cadet Charlie).

Example 4. "The civilian instructors are going to tend to be, you know, more experts in the language. But then the military instructors tend to be more experts in learning the language as a second language" (Beginner, Cadet Bravo).

Example 5. One thing that I've seen that I actually appreciate was having one of each, with emphasis on having the military instructor before having the civilian instructor. With my military instructor…their goal is to make it so that you can be in a situation and you can be understood and understand and you can go from there. They really set you up and then I think most of the civilian instructors, their goal really is to refine (Beginner, Cadet Charlie).

The third theme highlighted that instructor personality influenced the level of foreign language anxiety within an L2 classroom more so than instructor type. Examples 6, 7, and 8 address this perception.

Example 6. "I think that in terms of there being a difference between military and civilian instructors and being comfortable speaking in the classroom, I don't think in this case...that there is much difference based on military versus civilian, but rather just individual instructor" (Beginner, Cadet Bravo).

Example 7. "Yeah I would agree that it [anxiety] has to do with the individual instructor" (Beginner, Cadet Foxtrot).

Example 8. "More personality dependent than occupation. A tough civilian is more intimidating than a relaxed officer" (Questionnaire comment).

Whereas there was no clear distinction between which instructor type generated the least amount of L2 communicative anxiety, Example 9 offers a unique perspective of one cadet's apprehension to speak in front of military officers.

Example 9. "I'm prior service and all that and even here at the academy I'm not used to, like, being as comfortable being in front of officers as I am in front of civilians" (Intermediate, Cadet India).

In the example, "prior service" indicates the student served as an enlisted soldier before entering the academy, likely conditioning him to the hierarchical separations within the military rank structure.

Finally, interview data revealed a fourth theme that indicated military instructors as the best sources of L2 applicability for cadets post-graduation. Examples 10, 11, and 12 describe how military teachers are more relatable in this sense for students.

Example 10. "I find that with my uh, my military instructor…a lot of the anecdotes and the learning was, was kind of goal oriented, like 'here's what I've been able to do with this language'" (Beginner, Cadet Alpha).

Example 11. "The military instructors are going to be focused more on the goals and application of the language in that, for us as cadets being in the military, it's kind of like a relation that we have with the military instructors that we can see in their lives how...it kind of builds more excitement towards...motivation due to excitement of learning a language, like this is beneficial to me" (Beginner, Cadet Bravo).

Example 12. "Military teachers understand how we will use our language. It makes it easier to relate to them" (Questionnaire comment).

DISCUSSION

This study was to determine if cadets at a U.S. service academy perceived a different L2 learning experience with military versus civilian instructors. An instructor perception questionnaire and group interviews revealed that cadets do identify dissimilarities among the two foreign language instructor types based on the three dependent variables: perceived subject-matter expertise, communicative anxiety, and instructor relatability. Despite the different context, cadet observations (Table 3 and Examples 1-12) align with findings from previous student perception research (Hertel & Sunderman, 2009; Ma, 2012; Mahboob, 2004; Meadows & Muramatsu, 2007; Sakurai, 2012) that uncovered certain perceived strengths and weaknesses among NS and NNS teachers. Similarly, no specific instructor type, military or civilian, stood out among the cadets as the superior foreign language educator.

With respect to foreign language subject-matter expertise, civilian instructors were perceived as more knowledgeable than their military counterparts (Tables 3, 4 and Examples 1, 2). Academic training and occupational focus may help explain this finding. Civilian L2 teachers have

seemingly dedicated their careers toward foreign language instruction, whereas the majority of military instructors serve on a rotational basis and, once complete, enter back into the general military force. Civilian instructors at the current study's service academy also possessed overall more advanced academic credentials than their military counterparts (Doctorates versus Master's degrees), a fact likely recognized by cadets. Data from the focus group interviews (Examples 3-5), however, found that both instructor types may infuse their own unique levels of expertise to enhance foreign language acquisition. Learners may benefit from an exposure to both military and civilian teachers during their L2 course requirements as described in Example 5. This proposition is supported by recommendations from NS and NNS teacher perception research that extol maximizing the educators' respective strengths via a team approach to L2 instruction (Callahan, 2006; Hertel & Sunderman, 2009; Meadows & Muramatsu, 2007).

Foreign language anxiety and data from Table 3 showed that ratings were evenly spread across the two instructor types. Examples 6, 7, and 8 indicated that levels of classroom anxiety are ultimately driven by teacher personality. Interestingly, whereas the mean rating for *Less Anxiety* (M=4.82, SD=1.13) fell close to "no difference" on the instructor perception questionnaire, military instructors were perceived as lesser sources of communicative anxiety. The finding is at odds with previous research on communicative anxiety between soldiers of different ranks (Dean et al., 1975; Halbe, 2011). One possible explanation is that cadets, many of whom had not enlisted[3] prior to enrollment and attended service academies directly after high school, are not yet fully conditioned to the military hierarchical rank structure. Even after their initial summer basic training period[4], cadets were surrounded by and interacted daily with high-ranking officers, which may create a level of comfort not normally found within a typical military unit. As seen in Example 9, a cadet with prior enlisted military service seemed to understand the rank distinction and behaved according to findings from Dean et al. (1975) and Halbe (2011).

In terms of relatability, military instructors were seen to offer better examples of L2 use for cadets post-graduation (Table 3). Similar to previous research of teacher relatability at the university level (Frisby & Martin, 2010; Kendall & Schussler, 2013; McPherson et al., 2001; Muzaka, 2009), qualitative data from the present study showed that anecdotes and occupational homophily were key factors in providing L2 focus (Examples 10, 11, 12). In terms of L2 acquisition, instructor relatability may enhance both cognitive and affective learning, as well as stimulate student motivation to acquire a skill perceived as having real-world applications and benefits. Although not all cadets will utilize the L2 learned at a service academy in a military environment, the idea of engaging in foreign language interactions during a military operation, reinforced by the presence of a military instructor with proven experience, may nonetheless inspire learners to become functioning members of a specialized L2 community and contribute to their ideal L2 self (see Dörnyei, 2005). Efforts by civilian instructors to enhance their relatability should help facilitate teacher-student relationships, especially with cadets who have not yet experienced the particular

instructor type (as seen in Table 5, where cadets only experiencing military instructors stereotyped civilian teachers as lacking relatability). Civilian instructors may improve relatability with cadets by interspersing examples of L2 use in a military context within the classroom, utilizing their military counterparts for assistance. In addition, participation in summer training events (e.g., as a role player during field exercises) or visits to foreign service academies might help civilian teachers become familiarized with military L2 application.

The second research question examined if learner proficiency levels or current instructor influenced cadet perception results. There were significant differences between beginner and intermediate students with respect to *Expertise* and *Less Anxiety*. In both cases, intermediate learners exhibited a greater preference for civilian instructors. A likely explanation for the differences is that as cadets advance into higher-level L2 courses, their exposure to civilian instructors is greater, generating favorable perception ratings. These results are supported by prior L2 instructor perception research (Alseweed, 2012; Hertel & Sunderman, 2009; Sakurai, 2012) that indicate diverse preferences based on proficiency levels and length of foreign language study.

The current research has its limitations. To begin, a cross-sectional methodology was used for data collection. As such, the findings represented characteristics of a population group at a discrete point in time. To better understand transitional influencers on student perceptions, future research should employ a longitudinal framework. The procedure would allow analysis of multiple data points over a given period and better identify when variations occur between proficiency levels. Secondly, military and civilian instructors were not surveyed or interviewed as a part of this study. Allowing teachers to self-evaluate with respect to the three dependent variables would provide a point of comparison to the cadets' opinions. Results would yield a balanced evaluation of the L2 learning environment. Lastly, data from the qualitative section of this study was single coded. The addition of a second coder may have identified further thematic content relevant to the study's findings and increased the overall reliability of the results.

CONCLUSION

This article investigated whether or not cadets enrolled in basic and intermediate foreign language courses at a U.S. service academy perceive a different L2 learning experience with civilian and military instructors and if the perception varies based on proficiency level and current instructor. Data were collected from cadets at a major U.S. service academy using both quantitative (instructor perception questionnaire) and qualitative (group interviews) methods. Specific factors considered included perceived subject-matter expertise, communicative anxiety, and instructor relatability. Results indicated that cadets perceive differences between the two kinds of instructors. Civilian instructors were thought to be more knowledgeable in foreign languages, whereas military teachers more relatable, specifically with regard to post-graduation L2

applicability. Individual personality appeared to be a better indicator of communicative anxiety in the classroom. Cadet perceptions varied with respect to proficiency level for *Expertise* and *Less Anxiety*, but not for *Relatability*. No main effects were found for current instructor. The outcomes confirmed similar research where L2 students perceived different strengths and weaknesses of their NS and NNS teachers.

Findings from this study have several pedagogical implications for L2 educators. Foreign language departments at U.S. service academies can tailor new faculty training seminars to better inform both incoming military and civilian instructors on how students may initially perceive them. Understanding of cadets' perceptions will allow instructors to dispel certain preconceived biases early on and modify their teaching approaches to better adapt to the unique learning environment. As identified in the literature, lower language anxiety (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz, 2000; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Sheen, 2008) and positive student perceptions of instructor relatability (Frisby & Martin, 2010) have even been linked with higher L2 achievement and cognitive learning in the classroom. Establishing a low-stress, constructive atmosphere for L2 development, along with providing relevant examples of foreign language use in a military context, may serve well to enhance individual performance and overall learnability. Next, the two instructor sets were perceived to possess varying strengths for facilitating foreign language education. A team-teaching approach throughout foreign language coursework may offer a better-rounded L2 educational experience for learners. Finally, this study contributes to the body of research on learner attitudes of foreign language instructors, as well as provides further insight into second language acquisition practices within the military community.

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NOTES

1. For the purposes of this study, *perception research* denotes studies or inquiries related to student attitudes toward their second language instructors.
2. At the time of data collection from six languages, the focus U.S. service academy provided cadets the opportunity to choose among eight languages to satisfy the two-semester foreign language requirement: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Persian, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish. Related academic majors included Single or Double Languages, as well as Foreign Area Studies (foreign languages combined with regional studies courses).
3. Enlisted soldiers, as described by the U.S. Army, "carry out orders and complete missions" while serving in a variety of occupational specialties. They are subordinate to commissioned officers (http://www.goarmy.com/careers-and-jobs/enlisted-soldier.html). Of the entire Cadet Wing at the Air Force Academy, only 3.7% of 4,040 students were prior enlisted in 2014 (http://www.usafa.af.mil/information/factsheets/factsheet.asp?id=21371). From the Naval Academy, 5.5% of the 1,191 students admitted to the Class of 2018 were former enlisted (http://www.usna.edu/Admissions/_files/documents/ClassPortrait.pdf). The U.S. Military Academy at West Point claimed 1.3% of the initial 1,261-member Class of 2015 as combat veterans (http://www.usma.edu/classes/siteassets/sitepages/2015/2015profile.pdf).
4. All cadets and midshipmen undergo an initial summer basic training program prior to starting their freshman academic year. This six-week period serves to transition students from a civilian to military lifestyle, focusing on soldier skills, pre-officer leadership training, and physical fitness (see http://www.usma.edu/admissions/sitepages/faq_basic.aspx; http://www.usna.edu/PlebeSummer/; http://www.academyadmissions.com/the-experience/military/basic-training/).

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APPENDIX A

Instructor Perception Questionnaire

Participant ID# (*to be filled in by researcher*)_____

Part One:
Please provide the following information about yourself by circling the correct item:

1. Gender:

   Male Female

2. I am currently enrolled in…

French	Basic Course	Intermediate Course
Portuguese	Basic Course	Intermediate Course
Spanish	Basic Course	Intermediate Course
Arabic	Basic Course	Intermediate Course
German	Basic Course	Intermediate Course
Russian	Basic Course	Intermediate Course

3. My current foreign language teacher is…

   Military Civilian

4. My current foreign language teacher is a…

   a) native speaker of the language.
   b) non-native speaker of the language.
   c) I don't know

5. In my previous foreign language courses here at the U.S. Military Academy, I have had…

   a) only military instructors.
   b) only civilian instructors.
   c) both military and civilian instructors.

Part Two:
On the next page you will find a series of statements regarding certain aspects of learning and teaching a foreign language at a U.S. military academy. Please circle the number to indicate your response for each statement. Turn over to start.

Circle 1 for Definitely Military Instructors Circle 2 for Military Instructors Circle 3 for Somewhat Military Instructors Circle 4 for Slightly Military Instructors Circle 5 for No Difference Circle 6 for Slightly Civilian Instructors Circle 7 for Somewhat Civilian Instructors Circle 8 for Civilian Instructors Circle 9 for Definitely Civilian Instructors	**Definitely Military**	**Military**	**Somewhat Military**	**Slightly Military**	**No Difference**	**Slightly Civilian**	**Somewhat Civilian**	**Civilian**	**Definitely Civilian**
1. Which instructors (military or civilian) are better able to explain foreign language grammar?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Which instructors make you feel more comfortable when you have to speak in your foreign language in front of them?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Which instructors are better able to teach you cultural information?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Which instructors are the best models for how you will use your foreign language in the future?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. In the presence of which instructors is it easier for you to practice speaking a foreign language?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Which instructors are better able to teach you pronunciation in your foreign language?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Which instructors make you feel less stress when you speak a foreign language in front of them?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Which instructors inspire you to learn a foreign language?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Which instructors have more expertise in foreign languages?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. In front of which instructors does it bother you less if you make speaking errors?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. To which instructors do you relate better when learning a foreign language?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

12. Which instructors know more foreign language vocabulary?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
13. Which instructors have a better understanding of how you will apply your foreign language skills in the future?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
14. In the presence of which instructors do you worry less about speaking incorrectly in your foreign language?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
15. With which instructors is foreign language learning more purposeful?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
16. In front of which instructors do you feel more confident when you speak a foreign language?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
17. Which instructors have more experience with foreign languages?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
18. Which instructors are better role models for how to apply foreign languages post-graduation?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

19. How important is it to have a native speaker teacher instruct your foreign language class? (Circle the response)

    Very unimportant
    Unimportant
    Slightly unimportant
    Doesn't matter
    Slightly important
    Important
    Very important

Comment Box: Do you have any questions or comments for the researcher?

APPENDIX B

Semi-structured Student Group Interview Questions

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of being taught a foreign language by military instructors?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of being taught a foreign language by civilian instructors?
3. Who do you feel more at ease with when participating in classroom communicative activities? Why?
4. Who do you think are the foreign language subject matter experts and why?
5. Who motivates you more to learn a foreign language and why?
6. Would you rather have a native or non-native speaker teacher instruct your class? Why?

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The Effects of Pragmatic Consciousness-Raising Activities on the Learning of Speech Acts in the Beginning CFL Classroom[1]

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This study investigates the effects of instruction on learners' pragmatic competence by integrating pragmatic consciousness-raising (PCR) activities into a beginning-level Chinese language course during one academic semester. The study also examines the effect of integrating the PCR activities, i.e., before or after the instruction of a lesson-unit that focuses on vocabulary and grammar. Results show that the integrated approach helps beginning-level learners improve speech act competency, but do not indicate any significant difference in terms of when to incorporate PCR activities into language instruction. This study has implications for teaching pragmatics in a foreign-language instructional setting.

Keywords: *pragmatic competence, pragmatic consciousness-raising activities, speech acts, Chinese language*

INTRODUCTION

A growing number of studies in interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) have investigated the effects of instruction on learners' pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2010). Although most of these studies have reported overall benefits of the instruction, they have not yielded consistent findings about the most effective teaching

approaches (Takahashi, 2010). In addition, a review of these studies shows an imbalance in the target languages and language proficiencies that have been researched, with scant attention paid to less commonly taught languages (e.g., Chinese) and learners with limited linguistic competence. This study examines the effects of instruction on the development of learners' ILP competence by focusing on beginning-level learners of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) through incorporating consciousness-raising activities into a Chinese language course.

Noticing and Pragmatic Consciousness-Raising

The majority of instructional interlanguage pragmatics studies have been grounded in Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990, 1993a, 1993b, 1995, 2001). According to Schmidt, noticing is necessary for pragmatics learning. The language environment presents learners with multiple sources of information, but learners do not need to, nor can they, process all the information to develop their pragmatic competence. To enable relevant pragmatic input to become intake being further processed, "attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features" is required (Schmidt, 1993b, p. 35). Schmidt supports this claim by referring to his own experience of learning Brazilian Portuguese. In a study composed in diary form, he found that only the linguistic forms, verbal constructions, and corrective feedback that he had noticed were successfully reproduced in subsequent interactions (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Therefore, Schmidt advocates direct instruction in pragmatics to make learners notice target pragmatic features rather than to expose them to mere input. Schmidt and other researchers also indicate that noticing is a necessary, but may not be sufficient, condition for developing learners' ILP competence, many other factors making a difference between the stages of noticing and target-like pragmatic performances (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Schmidt, 2001).

In addition to direct instruction, another approach is pragmatic consciousness-raising (PCR) that can draw learners' attention to target pragmatic features in the input and thus make them notice the features. The PCR approach, based on grammatical consciousness-raising, is "an inductive approach to developing awareness of how language forms are used appropriately in context" (Rose, 1999, p. 171). The goal of the PCR approach is not to teach students about different aspects of pragmatics, but to expose them to contextual uses of language, to provide analytic tools, and to assist them in conducting analyses and forming generalizations (Rose, 1994, 1997, 1999).

Different PCR techniques have been employed to promote learners' noticing in ILP instruction. For example, Rose (1999) illustrates his four-step PCR activities when teaching making requests in English to college students in Hong Kong. The four steps are (1) introducing requests to gain learners' interest; (2) familiarizing learners with information about different request strategies and contextual factors that constrain request making; (3) guiding learners to analyze

the use of requests in learners' native language; and (4) asking learners to carry out similar analysis in English.

A PCR technique that has become popular in recent years is comparison and analysis of the contextual use of language between native and target languages. This reflects the standards of language and culture comparisons in ACTFL's *World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages* (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). The purpose of this technique is to direct learners' attention to differences in linguistic and cultural aspects of target pragmatic features between their native and target languages because learners are claimed to have often ignored or not noticed such differences (Judd, 1999). This technique also has variations—learners can be asked to find similarities and differences in the use of pragmatic features between their native and target languages, or to make comparisons between their use of pragmatic features and target pragmatic norms (e.g., Kondo, 2008; Narita, 2012; Safont, 2003; Takahashi, 2001).

Instructional ILP Research

Previous instructional interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) studies have reported the overall effectiveness of instruction over mere input (Jeon & Kaya, 2006), but the question of which teaching approach yields relatively more benefits remains unanswered. Several instructional ILP studies have explored how different types of instruction affect learners' pragmatic development (e.g., Fukuya & Clark, 2001; Lyster, 1994; Martinez-Flor, 2008; Pearson, 2006; Rose & Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Takimoto, 2009). Instructional approaches vary from functional-analytic teaching to the inductive-deductive approach.

The pragmatic consciousness-raising (PCR) approach has received much attention in ILP instruction. Several studies have integrated this approach into classroom teaching to test its effectiveness (e.g., Fukuya & Clark, 2001; Ishihara, 2007; Kondo, 2008; Narita, 2012; Safont, 2003; Tateyama, 2009), but the findings have proved inconclusive. Kondo (2008) takes the consciousness-raising approach to teach Japanese learners of English how to perform refusals, reporting that learners' choices of refusal strategies converge more toward English norms after the instruction. Narita (2012) integrates PCR activities into instruction and finds that students who have participated in the PCR activities outperform those who have not, in both knowledge and production of Japanese hearsay evidential markers. Nevertheless, some studies also report minimal effectiveness of this approach. For example, Tateyama (2009) provides learners of Japanese with two different types of instruction and compares their relative effectiveness. One approach gives learners regular instruction in Japanese requests, whereas the other combines instruction with PCR activities. The results reveal no significant difference between the two, though both approaches seem to facilitate learners' appropriate request making.

In addition to various approaches used in ILP instruction, a review of these studies shows that most have included learners at the intermediate or

advanced level (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose, 2005), examining whether instruction in pragmatics contributes to pragmatic development of learners who have achieved certain level of grammatical competence. They have paid less attention to beginning learners, perhaps assuming that pragmatics acquisition requires learners to reach a definite linguistic threshold. In addition, the limited number of studies exploring the effects of pragmatics instruction on beginning learners reports mixed findings. For example, both Tateyama, et al. (1997) and Wilder-Bassett (1994) find that pragmatic routines are teachable to learners at low proficiency levels, but Pearson (2006) reports no statistically significant effects of instruction on novice learners' production of directives. To answer the question of pragmatics as teachable to beginning or low-level learners, more studies of students with limited linguistic competence in their learner language are needed.

Integrating Pragmatics Instruction into Language Curriculum

Although most instructional ILP studies are conducted in classroom settings, it is not a common practice for researchers to design studies by developing and implementing the instruction of pragmatics within an existing language curriculum. In other words, pragmatics instruction seems to have mostly been separated from the language learning materials and the language curriculum. According to the ACTFL's *World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages* (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015), if the instruction of linguistic and pragmatic components go hand-in-hand in language classrooms, it will not only be beneficial for learners' linguistic and pragmatic development, but also help them achieve the five goal areas (i.e., communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities).

When incorporating pragmatics instruction into an existing language curriculum, a practical question is how to integrate the teaching of linguistic and pragmatic components so that learners' competencies in both develop concomitantly. For beginning-level learners in particular, linguistic components such as vocabulary and grammar are often the focus of classroom instruction and practice. This leads to the question of when is the best time to incorporate the pragmatic components into classroom instruction—before or after the instruction of linguistic components. This pedagogically practical and important question needs to be answered.

As an attempt to fill the gaps in prior research and teaching practices, this case study focuses on beginning-level CFL learners by incorporating PCR activities into a Chinese language course. The two research questions are as follows:

1. Can the PCR approach be integrated into a beginning-level language curriculum?
2. Are there differential effects on CFL learners' pragmatic competence by incorporating PCR activities at different time of instruction, i.e., before or after the regular lesson instruction?

METHODOLOGY

The Research Setting

This study was set in a Chinese language program at a public university in the south central United States. The beginning-level CFL course in the program was chosen because (1) it was designed for beginners with no prior exposure to the language; and (2) it focused on instruction of vocabulary and grammar, excluding teaching of pragmatics. As a four-credit undergraduate course, the class met four times a week, with 50 minutes per meeting. The assigned textbook was *Integrated Chinese, Level 1 Part 1 Simplified – Textbook (Edition 3)*. Throughout the semester of the study, the first five lessons of the textbook were taught in accordance with the program's curriculum. The researchers designed PCR activities and integrated them into the language instruction for this beginning-level CFL course. Two parallel sections of the course, taught by one of the researchers, were investigated. One section incorporated the PCR activities before the regular lesson instruction (hereafter, pre-PCR section), whereas the other incorporated the PCR activities after the lesson was taught (hereafter, post-PCR section).

Participants

Twenty-two students were enrolled in two parallel sections of the beginning-level CFL course, 10 in the pre-PCR section, and 12 in the post-PCR section. The participant background information was collected by means of a student information survey and student online academic profiles (explained in Instruments).

Both groups consisted of undergraduate students. Six males and four females comprised the pre-PCR section. Between the ages of 20 and 26, the had an average age of 22.4. English was their native or dominant language. The twelve students in the post-PCR section consisted of five males and seven females; between the ages of 19 and 23, averaging 20.9; all were native English speakers, except for one who identified English and Japanese as her native languages. Before enrolling in the CFL course, none had exposure to the Chinese language.

PCR Activities

Before the course started, the two researchers examined the five lessons (Lessons 1 to 5 of the *Integrated Chinese, Level 1 Part 1 Simplified and Traditional – Textbook (Edition 3)*, which would be the learning material for the semester, and identified a list of speech acts, as among which were greetings, gratitude, requests, and compliments. These everyday speech acts were included in the textbook without being explicitly introduced and explained. The

researcher who would be teaching the parallel sections designed the PCR activities based on the list. After the course started, the PCR activities were incorporated into classroom instruction.

The PCR activities used in this study included a series of questions that guided students to discuss and compare the use of everyday speech acts between English and Chinese. Taking the greetings as an example, in order to familiarize students with different types of pragmatic strategies commonly used to offer greetings in Chinese, the researcher designed discussion questions to draw student attention to the ways people greet one another in the United States. Once the students provided a wide variety of greeting strategies used in English, the researcher directed them to analyze how specific contextual factors, such as the social status, affect the choice of greeting strategies. A similar analysis of Chinese greetings followed, which was based on student observations and/or their existing knowledge about Chinese language and culture. Finally, the researcher guided the students in comparing and contrasting greetings in American English and in Chinese.

Instruments

Data were collected through a student information survey and an oral interview based on speech act scenarios. The student information survey designed by the researchers was distributed at the beginning of the semester to collect students' demographic information; i.e., gender, educational background, and any previous experience in the acquisition of Chinese, if applicable. In addition, the course instructor, who was one of the researchers, had access to student academic profiles on the university website. These two sources of information provided a detailed learner profile.

Based on the list of the speech acts identified from the textbook and the teaching materials, the two researchers created an oral interview sheet including 10 speech act scenarios to assess students' use of everyday speech acts that were introduced in the class (see Appendix A). These scenarios were primarily selected and adapted from either real-life conversations that students were familiar with or textbook scenarios. To ensure an accurate understanding, these scenarios were given in English before students orally responded in Chinese.

Procedures

The pragmatics instruction in the form of PCR activities was integrated into the language curriculum of the beginning-level CFL course throughout the academic semester. After all students who were enrolled in this course completed a student information survey at the beginning of the semester, the PCR activities were incorporated into the two parallel sections at different time of the classroom instruction. Specifically, the pre-PCR section incorporated these activities prior to regular lesson instruction, whereas the post-PCR section did so subsequent to lesson instruction. As five lessons were taught throughout the semester, pragmatics instruction was conducted five times, each session

lasting from 25 to 30 minutes. Towards the end of the course, each student in the two parallel sections took the oral speech act scenario interview as part of the final examination; the oral interviews were audio-recorded for analysis.

Data Analysis

The 22 audio-recorded interview responses were transcribed, and then rated by the two researchers using a six-point *Acceptability Scale* adapted from Eisenstein and Bodman (1986, 1993) (see Appendix B). The rating scale was used to assess the pragmatic appropriateness of student oral responses to the given situations, including the use of vocabulary and grammar. The two researchers rated the students' interview responses in three steps: (1) a sub-set of the data was randomly chosen and rated by the two researchers independently until the inter-rater correlation (.90) was obtained; (2) the two researchers rated all data independently; and (3) the two researchers discussed the results to resolve any discrepancies between the two sets of independent ratings. Upon reaching a consensus on these independent ratings, the data were analyzed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 22.0.

In addition to the ratings, the students' oral responses were qualitatively analyzed to see what linguistic strategies or specific linguistic devices that students used to perform the speech acts. The qualitative analysis helped the researchers understand what characterized the student oral production and how students used the existing language resources to complete the speech act tasks.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

During analysis, the researchers discovered that the 10th speech act scenario of the oral interview failed to elicit students' pragmatic performance in responding to gratitude, responses to the 10th speech act were consequently excluded from the final data analysis. Table 1 summarizes the results of the students' rated performances on each of the remaining nine scenarios. Students' speech act performances varied from scenario to scenario. For example, when offering greetings, expressing gratitude, and responding to compliments and apologies, most reached the target; but they had difficulty appropriately making requests and extending invitations in Chinese.

Table 1
Summary of Results of All Students on Individual Scenarios

Scenario	*Speech Acts*	*Rating** *(Percentage %)*						
		0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
1	Greeting	0	0	18.2	0	22.7	0	59.1
2	Gratitude	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	0	77.3
3	Request	50	18.2	13.6	0	18.2	0	0
4	Response to invitation	18.2	18.2	0	22.7	18.2	0	22.7
5	Invitation	36.4	0	31.8	4.5	4.5	0	22.7
6	Introduction	4.5	0	9.1	27.3	18.2	22.7	18.2
7	Response to compliment	0	4.5	9.1	0	45.5	0	40.9
8	Suggestion	13.6	9.1	4.5	9.1	45.5	9.1	9.1
9	Response to apology	9.1	4.5	0	0	0	13.6	72.7

* 0=Not ratable; 1=Not acceptable; 2=Problematic; 3=Acceptable; 4=Near-native; 5=Native-like; 6=Native

Once the students' oral responses were rated, an independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. The results showed that the difference between the pre-PCR and post-PCR groups was not statistically significant (p = .923). There were no statistically significant differences of student performances between the sections that incorporated the PCR activities before and after the regular lesson instruction, although the post-PCR group did have a higher mean rating than the pre-PCR group. Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations of ratings of the students in these two sections.

Table 2
Means and SDs of Ratings of Students' Oral Responses

	Pre-PCR section		*Post-PCR section*	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Ratings	3.59	1.02	3.77	.73

In addition, the researchers conducted qualitative analyses of the students' use of speech act strategies. The qualitative analyses showed that the majority of the students used appropriate formulaic expressions to respond to scenarios, such as *xiexie* (thank you) in gratitude and *mei guanxi* or *mei shir* (that's alright; it's okay) in responding to apologies; or employed combinations of different formulas to appropriately perform speech acts, such as using *hao jiu*

bu jian (Long time no see.) and *ni hao ma* (How are you?) in tandem when extending greetings.

Nevertheless, many students seemed to have problems performing certain speech acts, such as invitations and requests. Their responses to these two scenarios received a relatively high percentage of *not ratable* or *problematic* ratings, as indicated in Table 1. For example, when responding to the scenario that asked students to extend an invitation, a considerable number of students failed to produce responses that would successfully carry out the speech act, or used imperatives to inappropriately extend an invitation. Likewise, as in the case of requests, most students had difficulty producing sentences that conveyed requestive meaning. Some were able to utter certain words that made a partial reference to the function of request, but their responses were still rated *not acceptable* or *problematic* for lack of appropriate address terms (e.g., *laoshi* "teacher") or alerters (e.g., *qing wen* "excuse me") when making a request to a person of higher social status.

DISCUSSION

Effects of PCR Activities on the Beginning-level CFL learners

The results showed that after one semester's integration of the PCR activities, the majority of students in this study were able to choose and use appropriate formulaic expressions to carry out different speech acts in the oral interview, and many of their performances were rated near-native. In other words, these students, whether from the pre-PCR section or the post-PCR group, benefited from the PCR activities incorporated into classroom instruction. PCR activities seemed effective in promoting learners' pragmatics learning, which corresponded to the findings of previous studies such as those of Kondo (2008) and Narita (2012), with both reporting the effectiveness of using PCR activities to teach pragmatics in classroom instruction. These findings also supported Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990, 1993a, 1993b, 1995). According to Schmidt, noticing is a necessary condition for input to become intake as being further processed in learners' minds. The PCR activities that asked students to analyze and compare the use of different speech acts in their native and the target languages directed their attention to the linguistic devices that could be used to convey certain pragmatic meanings, and raised their awareness of the possible effects of contextual factors on the choice of these linguistic expressions. In other words, these specifically designed PCR activities promoted learners' noticing of target pragmatic strategies and contextual factors in the input, thus facilitating pragmatic performances.

Participants were beginning-level CFL learners with no prior exposure to the target language; the majority of them benefited from the PCR activities integrated into the existing language curriculum and showed progress in carrying out everyday speech acts. This suggests that pragmatics is teachable to beginning-level language learners, and the PCR activities seem to be an effective teaching approach for beginning-level learners. In particular, the

results indicated that most students performed speech acts based primarily on unanalyzed formulaic expressions or combinations of different formulas, which corresponded to the results reported by previous studies such as those of Tateyama et al. (1997) and Wilder-Bassett (1994).

Despite the pragmatics instruction, students still had difficulty performing certain speech acts. This might be explained by the varied difficult levels of speech act realization in Chinese. For example, many speech acts in Chinese, such as expressions of gratitude, apology, and greeting, can be realized by using formulaic expressions or combinations of formulas. But the execution of invitations and requests may need more use of creative combinations of words and/or phrases and less reliance on formulaic expressions, and thus require more time and practice to acquire. In light of the students' low proficiency in Chinese and limited exposure to pragmatic input, speech acts that require a specific linguistic threshold may be challenging to acquire within one semester.

Effects of Incorporating PCR Activities at Different Time of Classroom Instruction

Statistical analysis revealed no significant difference between the pre- and post-PCR groups. In other words, when to incorporate the PCR activities into classroom instruction seemed to have no significant impact on students' pragmatic performances. This may be attributed to the limited time applied for the pragmatics intervention. Although the intervention (i.e., the integration of the PCR activities) was incorporated into the CFL course for an academic semester, the instructor was able to implement the activities only five times. Previous ILP findings (e.g., Kasper & Rose, 2002) report that pragmatic competence seems to develop slowly. It is likely that the intervention time in this study was not long enough for noticeable differences between the two groups to emerge.

Although no significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of rated speech act performances, the results showed some qualitative differences. For example, when responding to a scenario that asked students to make a request of their teacher, eight students from the post-PCR group used politeness gestures before the request head acts (i.e., the minimal unit to realize a request), such as appropriate address terms (e.g., *laoshi* "teacher") or alerters (e.g., *qing wen* "excuse me"), whereas most students in the pre-PCR section failed to do this. Similarly, in the speech act of making an invitation, some in the post-PCR group went beyond formulaic expressions by using external modifiers such as presenting reason behind the invitation, which strengthened the force of this speech act. The post-PCR group performed the PCR activities following the instruction of regular lesson (i.e., the teaching of new vocabulary, grammar, and the text). As a result, when carrying out the relevant PCR activities, they were better prepared to integrate the newly learned linguistic knowledge into the analyses and discussions of pragmatics. Therefore, the students in the post-PCR

group might show more improvement in their pragmatic performance than those in the pre-PCR group.

Implications

The findings indicate that the awareness-raising approach is helpful to learners' pragmatics learning. The CFL learners had no prior knowledge of the Chinese language, but most benefited from the PCR activities integrated into the language instruction and made progress in speech act production. It supports the claim that pragmatics should and can be taught from the start of language learning rather than at the point learners have achieved certain linguistic competence. In short, pragmatics is teachable to entry-level language learners.

This study integrated pragmatics instruction into an existing language curriculum by incorporating PCR activities that were specifically designed for the course content. The findings suggest that merging the instruction of both linguistic (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, text) and pragmatic components promotes the development of learners' pragmatic competence, which has been given insufficient attention in many foreign language classrooms. Integration not only advances learners' pragmatic competence, but helps hone linguistic skills in contextually appropriate ways. This is more effective and time-saving than teaching linguistic and pragmatic components separately.

CONCLUSION

This study showed that overall, the beginning-level CFL learners benefited from integrating language instruction with PCR activities because the majority were able to select and use appropriate formulaic expressions to carry out everyday speech acts in Chinese. No significant difference was found between the pre-PCR and the post-PCR groups in their rated speech act production, suggesting that timing of the incorporation of PCR activities into classroom instruction had little impact on learners' pragmatic performances.

This study had its limitations, one of which was the small sample size. A larger one might have led to more significant findings that can be generalized. Without a control group, the effect of teaching pragmatics on speech act performance could not be fully examined. The design of the case study was largely dependent on the resource availability in the language program. With only two beginning-level CFL sections offered during the semester when this study was conducted, it was infeasible to have a control group. To have a more accurate measure of the possible effects of the PCR activities on learners' pragmatics learning, future studies may add a control group. Nevertheless, this case study initiated a new approach not commonly practiced in prior ILP instruction research by integrating PCR activities into an existing beginning-level language curriculum.

NOTE

1. The authors contributed equally to this article.

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APPENDIX A

Ten Speech Act Scenarios

1. You ran into one of your Chinese friends on the way to your Chinese class. What would you say to him/her?
2. You arrived late to your Chinese class, and your classmate passed a handout to you. What would you say to your classmate in Chinese?
3. During the class discussion, you want to know how to say certain words in Chinese and you ask the teacher for help. What would you say to your teacher?
4. One of your Chinese friends, *Xiaobai,* invites you to see a movie. How would you respond?
5. You want to invite your Chinese friend *Xiaobai* to dinner this weekend. What would you say to *Xiaobai*?
6. You invite your Chinese friend *Xiaobai* to your house. You want to introduce *Xiaobai* to your elder brother who is at home. What would you say?
7. (Following scenario 6) Your Chinese friend *Xiaobai* comments on how spacious and nice your house is. How would you respond?
8. You offer your friend *Xiaobai* something to drink. *Xiaobai* wants to have some hot tea, but you do not have tea left at home. What would you say to *Xiaobai*?
9. Your Chinese friend *Xiaobai* is about five minutes late for your appointment at the library. When *Xiaobai* arrives, he/she apologizes for being late. What would you say to *Xiaobai*?
10. You helped your Chinese friend *Xiaobai* check his/her grammar for one of his/her course papers. He/She thanks you and gives you a small present. How would you respond?

APPENDIX B

Acceptability Scale

0 Not Ratable
Failure to respond to the task, or to respond with utterances that are extremely hard to comprehend

1 Not acceptable
A violation of social norms, utterances that may potentially offend the hearer; likely instances of socio-pragmatic failure

2 Problematic
Errors that might cause misunderstandings, but of a less serious nature. Language so strange or garbled that interpretation might be difficult. Often instances of pragma-linguistic failure

3 Acceptable
Appropriate utterances for the specified context, but may contain some minor grammatical errors that do not interfere seriously with native speakers' understanding

4 Near-native
Grammatically accurate and pragmatically appropriate utterances, but still sounds a little awkward compared to native speakers, e.g., its length, choice of vocabulary, or register

5 Native-like (less fluent)—for speaking in particular
Clear and appropriate utterances, close to native responses in content, syntax, lexicon, etc., but less fluent expressions of the target utterances compared with native speakers

6 Native
Clear and appropriate utterances, close to native responses in content, syntax, lexicon, etc.

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Introduction to a Dubbing Activity for a College First-Year Japanese Language Course

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This case study presents a description and outline of a dubbing activity in which students utilized their basic linguistic skills holistically. Authentic materials such as television dramas and feature films are "a rich repository of various speech acts, lexicon and linguistic emotivity" (Koyama, 2009) and as such have the potential to serve as significant components of an integrated learning approach in L2/foreign language education. This case study describes the implementation of an audio dubbing activity in a non-intensive first-year Japanese language course at the college level and suggests its feasibility in accommodating a language program's set curriculum. A post-performance survey revealed that the first-year students found dubbing to be a helpful, fun activity that improved their pronunciation and intonation. Furthermore, the survey showed that the students thought the activity helped them acquire native-like diction in spite of their limited linguistic skills. Thus, the findings suggest that regardless of the level of proficiency among students, dubbing activities can be beneficial. With careful adjustments made by instructors, authentic materials taken from eclectic sources, such as television dramas and feature films, are appropriate for fostering an integrated learning approach among students at all proficiency levels in L2/ foreign language classes.

Keywords: *dubbing, class activity, integrated learning, authentic materials, beginner-level*

INTRODUCTION

In the foreign language classroom, authentic materials have provided a way to introduce cultural and intercultural aspects of language learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Sherman, 2003; Nunan, 2004). Authentic materials are "produced for native speakers of the language" (Stryker & Leaver, 1997, p.8), and because they help provide students with context, using them in the classroom also fosters a more integrated approach to the target language and culture (Omaggio Hadley, 2001; Hinkel, 2006). One such example of authentic material is the feature film. Viewing films is beneficial for promoting linguistic, cultural, and intercultural understanding (Cf. Herron, Cole, Corrie & Dubreil, 1999; Pegrum, Hartley & Wechtler, 2005). As such, film viewing can be successfully incorporated as a useful prompt for students to discuss the target language and culture (Crous & Noll, 1980; Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989; Lutcavage, 1990; Stryker & Leaver, 1997; Herron, Cole, Corrie & Dubreil, 1999; Sherman, 2003; Pegrum, Hartley & Wechtler, 2005; Bueno, 2009; Sturn, 2012). Sturn (2012) further noted that using films in a foreign language classroom fits both content-based instruction (CBI) and task-based language teaching (TBLT), because films could be "a stimulus for information-gathering, and problem-solving, and evaluation" (p.248). Of course, it is important to select and integrate films conscientiously (Lutcavage, 1990; Sherman, 2003). Ideally, films should be relevant to students' life, interests, and needs and stimulate and engage them in making connections between films and their language learning. One of the ways Lutcavage (1990) addressed these characteristics was by establishing three to five minutes as the ideal length of video segments for classroom viewing.

The purposeful integration of carefully selected film clips into a foreign language classroom can contribute to *The Five C's of Foreign Language Education*—communication, cultures, connections, comparisons and communities (ACTFL, 1996, 2013). Instructors can use film clips to focus on cultural and intercultural aspects in the classroom, where "students can communicate with each other or native speakers about the content of the film" and "make connections to other disciplines," such as discourse analysis, literature, cultural studies, cinema studies, and sociology (Sturn, 2012, p.248). Furthermore, "personal enjoyment and enrichment" through film viewing goes beyond the school setting and allows students to reach out to "multilingual communities at home and around the world" (ACTFL, 1996, 2013, *Communities*).

Integrating films into a foreign language classroom enriches language learning. In addition to the five C's, this integration further involves "the six S's … sounds, segmentation, semantics, syntax, systems of discourse, and systems of culture" in processing (Altman, 1989, p.5). Along the same lines, Sherman (2003, pp.2-3) listed six practical benefits of using video in language teaching: (1) gaining access to the world of the target language media, (2) comprehending the spoken language, (3) establishing a language model, (4) learning culture, (5) utilizing video as a stimulus or input, and (6) utilizing video as a moving picture

book. Film viewing can be pedagogically beneficial in teaching colloquial expressions and speech patterns in naturalistic conversations. With this notion in mind, what if students took the activity one step further and performed the role of one of the film's characters through a dubbing activity? This activity would entail repeated close viewing that combines listening comprehension and visual learning, as well as repeated recitals that combine oral and performative aspects. Furthermore, the activity would enhance students' practical skills through improving their grasp of Altman's six S's and Sherman's six benefits, ranging from the most basic elements of diction and prosody to higher concepts of cultural discourse.

With advancements in technology and the availability of a wide variety of media, language instructors and students can readily access film clips and television dramas in and out of the classroom. Koyama (2009) reported that students used television dramas and film clips for dubbing as "an integrated class activity to improve the four basic language skills" (p.19). Note that in Koyama's 2009 study, as well as in this study, dubbing is defined as a language class activity for students to provide voices for television dramas and film clips by muting the original voices and by synching their own with the images. In Koyama's 2009 study, as a pilot exercise model, dubbing was implemented in an advanced oral-intensive Japanese course at a satellite campus of an American university in Japan. This pilot model was inspired by Kumagai (2003) and Iida (2004) regarding the use of dubbing in the classroom. Both researchers noted that integrated learning incorporates the four basic language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, as well as metalinguistic and paralinguistic comprehension of the target language and culture. For instance, Kumagai (2003) reported that one of her students practiced colloquial phrases that she had heard on a television drama and began actively using those phrases in her daily conversation.

Kumagai (2003) suggested the use of television dramas for the dubbing activity and discussed its effectiveness in L2 learning. She explained that dramas present likely situations and settings encountered in real life from which L2 speakers can learn many new communicative patterns. Similarly, Iida (2004) found in her survey that advanced learners of Japanese in Taiwan used Japanese television dramas to learn and practice novel expressions and phrases. This finding prompted her to introduce a semester-long dubbing project at a Taiwanese university. Iida's survey revealed that the effectiveness of the dubbing activity was largely due to the fact that television dramas and feature films provide both linguistic and pragmatic input that is challenging. Television dramas are particularly rich resources because of the trend of ever-changing cultural icons and the abundance of colloquial expressions that ensures student exposure to new lingo. Iida noted that students learned discourse, verbal and non-verbal communication while they were actively applying all four linguistic skills. Thus, she contended that dubbing was an effective class project through which language and culture learning could take place.

Television dramas also hold theoretical implications for viewers. As suggested by input approaches (Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Wong, 2005), viewing and dubbing television dramas and feature films can also help foster the learner's language acquisition and cultural competency. As learners attend to how characters use their language in particular contexts, they learn "the minutiae of daily life—body language, styles of dress, table manners, gender roles …—and indeed the whole feeling of the social landscape" (Sherman 2003, p.12). Television dramas and feature films abound with interactive, fast-paced colloquial speech in unique contexts, which goes beyond what orderly language textbooks teach and offer to learners. The dubbing material, slightly more difficult than learners' proficiency level, helps raise the bar for them as comprehensible input. As a caveat, we must keep in mind that if dubbing material is too difficult, the activity could discourage and demoralize learners. However, a balanced combination of comprehensible and challenging input could stimulate learners' interest and help them want to understand the language. Learners' motivation is certainly a driving force for raising the bar.

This case study describes one possible way to raise the bar with a dubbing activity that integrates the four basic linguistic skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening. Selecting a video clip for dubbing requires listening comprehension, transcribing the script requires writing and reading by converting spoken to written text, and performing and dubbing require speaking. From beginning to end, dubbing requires students to apply their linguistic skills. The case study implemented dubbing for three main reasons: 1) to introduce authentic materials to a first-year Japanese language course; 2) to encourage and foster collaborative learning with peers through a fun, integrated activity; and 3) to motivate the students by tapping into their natural interests. The goal was that the dubbing activity would help improve the students' pronunciation and intonation in particular because prosodic features of Japanese are important, yet often perceived to be difficult by beginners.

From a pedagogical perspective, this study focused on the following two research questions:

(1) Is it feasible to introduce authentic materials into a first-year language course at the college level without compromising the curriculum or syllabus? In other words, is it possible to incorporate authentic materials without significantly adjusting or rearranging the set curriculum, content, and schedule of the course?

(2) How are authentic materials received by beginners whose linguistic skills and knowledge are limited?

Research question 1 represents a challenge for language instructors at the college level. Research question 2 is essential for instructors who must determine what authentic materials are suitable at the beginner level. Because learning outcomes can be influenced by affective factors such as motivation and willingness to achieve a goal, students' reaction to authentic materials is important both for planning and designing similar activities in the future and for introducing such activities into the curricula.

PREVIOUS STUDY

Following Iida's dubbing project model (2004), Koyama (2009) designed a dubbing activity for advanced Japanese language learners and introduced it as an integrated learning activity to improve students' oral skills and prosodic features. The activity progressed as follows: Students (1) formed groups, (2) selected video segments, (3) transcribed scripts by converting speech to written text, (4) practiced and rehearsed individually and in groups out of class, and (5) performed in class. Each step of the process entailed multiple tasks and required various skills such that it contributed to *The Five C's of Foreign Language Education—Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities* (ACTFL, 1996, 2013). By communicating in the target language, students gained in-depth understanding of the corresponding culture, distinctive viewpoints, and more cultural references. The process also fostered collaboration with peers, which is central to integrated learning, because students learned to negotiate and work with peers. Furthermore, a post-performance survey revealed that advanced students found dubbing to be effective in improving their prosody and acquisition of new colloquial expressions and phrases, which was also supported by the instructor's observation of students' post-activity performance in class.

However, the study also revealed unexpected drawbacks that affected performance quality. Although students were encouraged to form small groups and select segments in which characters interact with one another, these two tasks were not strictly enforced. Consequently, six of the fourteen students worked individually and presented monolog segments which, by their nature, sound monotonous and require less synchronization with visual imagery. They also lack emotive and pragmatic elements. Hence, dubbing a monolog segment is similar to reading a prepared speech with little emotivity.

Two additionally important reasons for emphasizing interactivity are that interactive language emulates "the language of daily conversational exchange" (Sherman, 2003, pp.13-14) and entails a wide variety of speech events and acts. Gestures, facial expressions, interlocutor actions and reactions, and changes in prosody all add to the interactivity of language, which is present in daily conversations. Although dubbing is a performed, memorized conversation, it is quite different from the interaction in a spontaneous, unrehearsed conversation, the fact remains that some L2 learners may never have a chance to interact with native speakers, other than their language instructor. TV dramas and films are among the closest simulations to natural conversations. Thus, for beginning students in this case study, the instructor stressed working with peers on interactive dialogs.

In the present study, Koyama's 2009 pilot model for advanced Japanese language learners was modified and experimentally implemented at the beginner level in one of the foreign language courses open to any student at a large university in northern California. The course was designed to cover the four basic linguistic skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, and the activity was modified to suit the competency and performance of the target

interlanguage level. In the experiment, dubbing was used to replace a skit performance assignment. The following description of the dubbing activity outlines how it was integrated into the beginner-level Japanese language course.

CASE STUDY: DUBBING ACTIVITY FOR BEGINNER-LEVEL STUDENTS

A dubbing activity was implemented in the second course (Japanese 2) of a first-year Japanese language sequence (Japanese 1, 2, 3) in the 2014 spring quarter at the university. A quarter is ten weeks long. The present experiment differed from Koyama's 2009 study in the following aspects:

(1) Koyama's 2009 study was implemented in a setting wherein Japanese was a second language (JSL), whereas this study was conducted in a setting wherein Japanese was a foreign language (JFL). Students in the JSL setting had greater exposure to the language and native speakers outside a classroom; they were more familiar with day-to-day interactions and contexts depicted in the video segments than students in the JFL setting.

(2) Students in the 2009 study possessed Advanced Low to Mid proficiency, whereas in the JFL setting, students possessed Novice Mid to High proficiency (cf. ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 2012). Students' proficiency level at the time of their participation in the dubbing activity was determined by their overall performance and daily interaction with the instructor and peers in class.

The abovementioned disparity in proficiency may imply that beginning students were at a disadvantage because of their lack of advanced lexico-syntactic knowledge, in addition to their lack of exposure to the target culture outside a classroom; yet, there are some advantages as well, such as the students' high level of motivation.

With regards to motivation, Sherman (2003) stated that "authenticity itself is an inducement—there is a special thrill in being able to understand and enjoy the real thing" (p. 2). Moreover, many first-year students at the university express their interest in Japanese popular culture such as anime, television dramas, manga comics, games, and J-Pop (popular music). These cultural aspects are often cited as the factors that initially prompted these students to learn Japanese. In this digital age, students are also tech-savvy (Sturn, 2012). By the time students enter their first Japanese language class, they have been exposed to anime and television dramas through a variety of media, both with and without English subtitles. Because students are eager to learn more about eclectic authentic materials, their motivation to learn Japanese is relatively strong in spite of their limited linguistic readiness in terms of lexico-syntactic knowledge. Instructors can raise the bar in such a way that helps improve the language skills of these motivated beginner students.

Outline of Japanese 2

At the time of the study, the designated textbook for Japanese 1, 2, and 3 was *Nakama 1* (Hatasa, Hatasa & Makino, 2011). Japanese 2 covered Chapters 6 to 9, corresponding to covering one chapter every two weeks, with one language lab session per chapter. Skit presentations were incorporated at the end of Chapters 6, 7, and 9. This study replaced a skit for Chapter 7 with a dubbing activity.

The class met in 50-minute sessions, five times a week, for ten weeks. A regular class session included the following components: a daily quiz on grammar; vocabulary, or kanji (Chinese characters); an introductory lecture on grammar; grammar exercises; conversation (including both oral and aural) practice; and kanji practice. A language lab session might include textbook dialog and conversation practice, skit and performance practice, and practice in role-playing. Skit presentations lasting two to three minutes each were a part of the class performance grade. For the skit presentation, students were required to form their own groups, submit the first and final drafts of their script, and perform in class.

The skit was incorporated as an integrated learning and creative activity. Accordingly, the students (1) used newly learned grammar and vocabulary, (2) created an original script, (3) worked after class with their peers in preparing and practicing their skit, and (4) performed in collaboration with their peers in class. The skit performances took one or two class sessions, depending upon the class size. Although a skit allows students to explore a creative aspect of language learning, it tends to be filled with "more limited, less contextualized input such as sets of functional phrases and mini-dialogues," which may not be "the best way to help students produce appropriate language" (Sherman, 2003, p.14). In fact, there is always a gray area in grading scripts, particularly when assessing naturalness vs. grammaticality, and even more so at the beginner level. Naturalness requires an understanding of colloquial phrases, idiomatic expressions, and cultural context, all of which beginners have yet to learn. Students' speech could consist of sentences that are grammatically correct but do not sound natural or appropriate. In contrast, native speaker's speech is not necessarily grammatically correct but sounds natural in context. Teachers are challenged to determine how to grade a grammatically correct string of sentences that may not be appropriate or natural in context. An expression or a particular style of speech may be preferred to make speech sound natural, but it takes time for students to develop the skill of choosing an appropriate word and style. These factors influenced the decision to replace a skit presentation with a dubbing activity.

Instructor's Role and Instructional Intervention

Necessary modifications were made to the dubbing activity for the beginner-level course. In particular, the following two objectives were considered:

(1) Designing a more enjoyable dubbing activity for first-year students by making it less taxing and daunting for them; and
(2) Reducing the relative impact on the overall course grade by treating the activity as an assignment rather than an exam.

Achievable goals and certain restrictions were also set to ensure success. In pursuance of the first objective, the dubbing segment was set to a minimum of thirty seconds and a maximum of two minutes; each group member was responsible for dubbing one of the characters in an interactive segment. Additionally, the instructor assisted each group with transcription during a lab session while giving the students ample time to work with their peers.

In pursuance of the second objective, the dubbing activity replaced the skit performance as an in-class activity. This meant that student performance would not significantly impact the overall course grade. Fostering student interest and the enjoyment of language learning through authentic materials was emphasized.

Half of the spring quarter was dedicated to careful planning and incorporation, giving students more time for preparation. Table 1 summarizes the instructor's role and tasks.

Table 1
Instructional Intervention in Dubbing

Schedule & Time Frame	*Instructor's Role and Tasks*
Pre-Quarter	• Planning and setting up the schedule and time frame for students • Selecting a demo film and preparing a script for dubbing practice
4th Week: Guidelines	• Directing students to form small groups • Emphasizing the importance of selecting an interactive segment
5th Week: Lab Activity	• Dubbing demonstration (chorus practice) and group practice • Providing instructor assistance in transcribing and deciphering difficult lines
7th Week: Entry Sheet	• Examining student selections
7th Week: Presentation-1	• Grading performances and transcripts
8th Week: Presentation-2	• Grading performances and transcripts • Feedback and comments on students' performances

The lab session was the focus of instructor assistance. The lab was equipped with a projector and a viewing screen, Internet access, and audio-visual software for listening, viewing, and recording, which were utilized for demo and group practice. During the first ten minutes of the lab session, the instructor led a demo dubbing practice with a prepared script to demonstrate how to voice the characters' lines in sync by muting the characters' voices, and then instructed students to dub accordingly. After demo practice, the instructor monitored each group's progress by viewing the video clips chosen by the group. All the clips were subtitled in English, which helped the students better understand the content. Still, listening to characters' rapid speech that contained unknown words and phrases was challenging, as subtitles do not render word-to-word literal translations. The students required instructor assistance in deciphering what they had heard. The instructor listened to the video clips with students; rather than transcribing and deciphering difficult lines for them, the instructor enunciated the lines more clearly and slowly. This practice prompted the students to look up words and phrases in online dictionaries to decipher the meanings themselves.

At the time of performance, each group submitted their script typed in Japanese so the instructor could check the accuracy of their transcription and match it with their dubbing performance. Afterwards , the instructor provided individual feedback to students and commented on their overall performances and how they might improve their diction and prosodic features.

Guidelines for a Beginner-Level Class

Students were introduced to the dubbing activity with the distribution of the guidelines and schedule in the fourth week of the quarter. The implementation of the activity is summarized in Table 2, which parallels the instructor's role and tasks outlined in Table 1. Note that the total class time devoted to the dubbing activity was 135 minutes, or 2 1/2 class sessions.

Table 2
Dubbing Activity Time Table

Schedule & Time Frame	*In-Class Activities & Tasks*
4th Week: Guidelines 15 minutes	• Guidelines ("Be a Voice Actor!") were distributed in class (See Appendix 1). • Students were instructed to form small groups
5th Week: Demo Practice One class session (50 minutes)	• Lab Activity: Dubbing demonstration (chorus practice) and group practice • Demo film: *Majo no Takkyuubin* (*Kiki's Delivery Service*)
7th Week: Entry Sheet	• Entry Sheet (names of group members and selected video clip title) was distributed in class and collected the following day
7th Week: Presentation-1 20 minutes	• Performance presentation: two groups • Transcript submission
8th Week: Presentation-2 One class session (50 minutes)	• Performance presentation: three groups • Transcript submission

The guidelines (Appendix 1) specified that students form small groups and select segments in which their characters interacted. These two specifications were lacking in the pilot dubbing activity reported by Koyama (2009). In accordance with the guidelines, students formed groups and selected the dubbing segments (Table 3). They then transcribed and practiced the scripts outside of class. Interacting with one another as characters in a film or a television drama motivated students to concentrate when synchronizing with the fast-moving images. Lacking this concentration, students could quickly fall behind or interpose between their peers' lines. Student comments in the post-performance survey revealed that the need for synchronizing and performing within the given time constraints helped them focus on accuracy in prosodic properties critical in Japanese, such as pitch, intonation, and vowel lengthening.

Table 3
The Video Segment Selections

Group	*Video Segment*
Group 1 (3 students)	*Daily Lives of High School Boys* (TV anime)
Group 2 (3 students)	*One Piece* (TV anime)
Group 3 (2 students)	*Legal High* (TV drama)
Group 4 (3 students)	*Samurai Champloo* (TV anime)
Group 5 (4 students)	*Naruto* (TV anime)

For the performance presentation, each group was required to submit a typed script so that the instructor could verify its accuracy and assess the dubbing performance. In addition, students were encouraged to engage in *kosupure* [Costume Play] to make the performances more entertaining.

METHOD

The Participants

Fifteen students participated in this study, all enrolled in one of the sections of Japanese 2—the second in the three-course sequence of first-year Japanese—in the 2014 spring quarter. The students began their Japanese language education at the university in the previous quarter with Japanese 1. Prior to taking Japanese 1, four students studied Japanese in high school, community college, through on-line courses, or through self-study. They were placed in Japanese 1 based on a placement test, which they took upon entering the university. Participant demographic information is displayed in Table 4.

Table 4
Summary of Student Participant Demographics

	Japanese 2 (2014 Spring)
Enrollment	15
Gender	Male: 5
	Female: 10
Year in School	Freshman: 13
	Sophomore: 1
	Junior: 0
	Senior: 1
L1 Language	English: 9
	Chinese: 4
	Vietnamese: 1
	English & Spanish: 1
Proficiency Level	Novice Mid-Novice High
	(Cf. ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 2012)

Data Collection

A post-performance survey (Appendix 2) was conducted to elicit student feedback on the dubbing activity. The survey focused on discerning students' overall learning experience. It was also to discover, from a student's perspective, the feasibility of the dubbing activity in a beginning Japanese language course at the college level. Specifically, the survey was to determine (1) how the students prepared themselves for their dubbing performances; (2) how they rated individual and group performances; (3) how they rated the dubbing activity as a class project; and (4) how they rated their overall experience with the dubbing activity. Eleven of the 15 participants completed the survey (n =11).

Note that for the purpose of grading, audio portions of student performances were recorded, supplemented by the instructor's notes and observation. Although student perception and activity implementation were the focus of this case study, the recorded performances and instructor's notes provided additional insight into the implementation of dubbing at the beginner level.

FINDINGS

Student Performance

When the announcement of the dubbing activity was made, students reacted with cheers and excitement. The idea of voice acting captured their attention and heightened their interest. Learners' positive attitude is an important affective factor in successfully learning a language (Mitchell & Myles, 2004) as well as "a powerful incentive for instructors to try dubbing as a method" of learning (Koyama, 2009, p.22). Thus, the students' initial excitement boded well for the dubbing activity.

In their performance, the students embraced the idea of *kosupure* [Costume Play] by either dressing up as the characters they portrayed or by using small, identifying props. The fact that students added these creative elements to their performances demonstrates their full involvement in, and enjoyment of, the activity. It also indicates their high level of interest to participate in this language-learning activity.

The Post-Performance Survey, Student Reactions, and Feedback

Student responses to Part I of the post-performance survey reveal that they prepared by engaging in multiple tasks that require all four basic skills. Responses to Part II show that the majority of students rated their performance relatively high on the scale (4 or 5).

Table 5
The Post-Performance Survey—Parts I & II (n=11)

I: Preparations	
(1) How did you prepare yourself for this performance? Check all the items applicable.	
• Watching the clip repeatedly	9
• Shadowing the character you chose to act	7
• Reading the script repeatedly	11
• Listening to the character repeatedly	10
• Trying voice-over on your own with the sound muted	8
• Others	1
o Group rehearsal outside of class and other Japanese students would read my other group member's parts.	
(2) How did you prepare and practice with your group? Check all the items applicable	
• Watching the clip repeatedly	10
• Shadowing the character you chose to act as	7
• Reading the script repeatedly	10
• Listening to the character repeatedly	9
• Trying voice-over on your own with the sound muted	9
Communicating with the members. How did you communicate?	5
• Meeting with one another regularly	
• Giving tips or encouragement	
• Helping each other fix our lines and use correct emphasis	
• I listen to the clip with voice first, and listen to the partners' voices and tell them the difference I heard.	
Others	1
• Acting out the scene in person rather than just reciting	

II: Performance (Lowest 1—Highest 5)	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
Rate your performance			1	8	2
Rate your group's performance				7	4
Rate the dubbing project as a class project				3	8

Part III of the post-performance survey elicited student comments and feedback. The majority of respondents enjoyed the dubbing activity as a group project and found it helpful in improving their intonation and pronunciation.

Students evaluated the dubbing activity positively. They considered the activity to be a fun group project that gave them an opportunity to study cultural contexts, engage in simulated authentic conversation, and learn colloquial expressions. Overall, students found that the linguistic and cultural benefits of the activity far outweighed the more difficult aspects. Crouse and Noll (1980) noted the importance of collaborative language activities as a course component

because during participation "language learning is heightened, camaraderie grows, and so does satisfaction with the total foreign language experience (p.393)." The dubbing activity conveyed these very aspects to the classroom.

Motivation

Tackling fast, casual speech was perceived as good practice to achieve more fluent speech and improved prosody (intonation and pronunciation). Many students thought the most challenging part of the activity was synchronizing their performance with the video clip and keeping up with it. Some considered the most difficult task to be transcribing the lines, in part because repeatedly listening to the video segment required focused attention.

In response to a question about the most interesting and enjoyable aspects of the dubbing activity (Part III, 2), students commented: "We get to talk and act like the cartoon characters," "Acting the voice-over with action is very interesting," "Choosing the clip was fun," "I really enjoyed this project because I knew that I could act for two different voices and this project gave me characters to play." Overall, the students enjoyed the entire process from selecting clips to presenting the dubbing performances. Some students gained a sense of achievement when they realized they could speak as quickly as the characters in the video segments. Furthermore, beyond enjoyment, the dubbing activity opened up possibilities for language learning, as suggested by the following comment: "I get to look into the different word elements and phrases to make sense of it, not just listening and reading the subtitles." This student turned a fun activity into a learning opportunity and began to pay closer attention to the input for its lexico-syntactic structures by becoming more attentive and conscious of the language. An increased awareness of the language, from the rather passive enjoyment of input into active learning, could be a key for successful second language learning.

In general, the dubbing activity stimulated students' motivation to learn more, provided them a sense of achievement, and raised awareness of the learning environment and the language. The overall sentiment was summarized by one student: "It was way more educational this way than with a textbook!"

IMPLICATIONS TO LEARNING AND TEACHING

To improve aural/oral skills, it is important to expose students to voices other than their teacher's. Thus, listening to the characters and dubbing "stimulates…encounters with native speakers and affords the student practice in understanding a range of timbre and register" (Lutcavage, 1990, p.186). Despite their limited lexico-syntactic knowledge of Japanese, the participants transcribed their scripts accurately, deciphered the selected contents, and synchronized and performed the characters vividly. Students learned to enunciate the lines clearly with an appropriate pitch and intonation without falling behind the images. Furthermore, they were exposed to an array of male and female voices of different ages and sociocultural backgrounds in various contexts, which

introduced a cultural aspect of Japanese. In fact, the video clips selected by students illustrated how people are expected to behave when using public transportation, how the seniority of speakers determines speech styles, and how male speakers express their masculinity with particular expressions and intonations. These sociocultural aspects are part of the Japanese language. Teaching culture in the language classroom remains a challenge for several reasons, one being the time and care required to plan and create "a viable framework for organizing instruction around cultural themes" (Omaggio Hadley, 2001, p.349). Television dramas and feature films are a window to cultural materials and the social landscape. Through the dubbing activity, students learned how people act, react, interact, and speak differently when certain situations or social conventions are imposed on them. The dubbing activity allowed beginner students to have a glimpse into the target culture.

From a pedagogical perspective, dubbing promoted learning. Some reticent students became more active and articulate in class after the dubbing activity; other students continuously used phrases and expressions they had learned through dubbing. By mimicking their favorite characters' voices in dubbing, many students learned new phrases and expressions and gained a better grasp of Japanese prosodic features. From a practical perspective, the university-level foreign language curriculum could be rigidly structured and have little room for implementing new concepts. This study replaced a skit with a dubbing activity without significantly modifying the set curriculum or schedule. This approach did not compromise the course curriculum or syllabus. It is clear that with careful modifications to the existing curriculum and providing clear guidelines to the students, beginning students can also benefit from the use of authentic materials.

CONCLUSION

Introducing authentic materials at the onset of L2 learning poses challenges to language instructors; incorporating projects or tasks with authentic materials into a foreign language curriculum at the college level can be difficult. Many language instructors are intimidated by the notion of using authentic materials at the beginner level unless the setting is an immersion program, a language school, or personal communication. Among the many valid concerns, one is time constraints. It is quite common that the structure of university-level foreign language courses is sequential from first to fourth year, and each level and course must complete a fixed set of course materials within a designated term. At the intermediate and advanced levels, authentic materials may be used either as supplemental or main teaching materials, as described in Lutcavage's (1990) advanced German course and Bueno's (2009) advanced Spanish course. At the beginner level, however, instruction often centers on the textbook because the focus is on teaching basic linguistic skills and helping students build a solid linguistic foundation. Instructors may be hesitant to introduce authentic materials because they are concerned that these materials are too taxing for a student with only fledgling linguistic knowledge and limited comprehension of

the language. Hesitation may also be attributed to the equally valid concern that rendering the materials less taxing would make them less "authentic" and thereby require more preparation and learning time than the course schedule allows.

This study focused on two research questions regarding the feasibility of a dubbing activity and students' reaction to authentic materials at the beginner level. As demonstrated by the positive feedback, the dubbing activity was well received, and the authentic materials derived from eclectic sources were a welcome supplement to the textbooks. As shown by the instructional intervention and outline of the course, it is feasible to introduce authentic materials into a first-year language course at the university level. The key to ensuring success is to make authentic materials exciting, fun, and interesting to students. Tapping into students' interest in Japanese popular culture boosts student motivation in learning. Using a carefully designed learning task based on authentic materials also encourages collaborative learning.

As described in this study, an easy way to integrate a dubbing activity into a curriculum is to replace a comparable activity. At the beginner level, the instructor's preparation is essential. Instructors need to have a clear objective when designing activities. For example, the expected learning outcome of the dubbing activity was to improve students' prosodic features. Specific learning outcomes appropriate for the students' proficiency level should structure the instructor's preparation and execution of the activity. For instance, if students are expected to focus on cultural aspects, then post-performance discussion may be a valuable component to achieve the goal. The instructor's awareness and understanding of student needs and proficiency level are most important in activity design.

This case study also has its limitations. The data sample examined was relatively small with no control group to compare. Moreover, this study relied on the post-performance survey and the instructor's observation for assessment, and lacked more vigorous assessment tools. As a result, the findings of this study cannot be generalized for different groups of learners or educational settings. Nonetheless, the process of using a meaningful learning task based on authentic materials at the beginner level may provide valuable information for classroom practices and future studies.

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APPENDIX 1

Guidelines Distributed in Class

Mini Project for Class
Be a voice actor!
(Tentative Presentation Dates: February 21, 24)

Form a group of 3 or 4 (2 is fine, too). Find a short segment (2 mins max) from your favorite movie / anime / TV drama in Japanese, and dub each character to perform in class!!!

(1) Pick your segment: Ideally, the characters are interacting in the scene.
(2) Write up a script: This is the hardest task, so work together and come to me if you have trouble deciphering any of the dialogs.
(3) Practice with your script: Nail your lines. Practice with the segment. Pay special attention to tone, pitch, voice, and performance!
(4) Dub with the sound muted: Act it out with your group members!

Remember! The segment does not have to be very long. Just 20 seconds or 30 seconds is fine. But, nail your lines completely! Perfect tone, perfect pitch, perfect performance!!!

APPENDIX 2

Post-Performance Survey

How was your dubbing performance? Did you enjoy your presentation? Did you enjoy your classmates' presentations? For this survey, please share your experiences and thoughts on your dubbing performance so that I can improve this project for future Japanese courses. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated!

I. Preparation
(1) How did you prepare for your performance? Check all the items that apply.
( ) Watching the clip repeatedly
( ) Shadowing the character you chose to act
( ) Reading the script repeatedly
( ) Listening to the character repeatedly
( ) Trying the dubbing on your own with the sound muted
( ) Other~~s~~ (Please specify)

(2) How did you prepare and practice with your group? Check all the items that apply.
( ) Watching the clip together
( ) Shadowing the characters together
( ) Reading the script together
( ) Listening to the characters together
( ) Trying the dubbing together
( ) Communicating with the other group members.
If you checked "communicating" above, please specify here in a sentence or two:
Other (Please specify)

II. Performance (Lowest 1---Highest 5)

Rate your performance	1	2	3	4	5
Rate your group's performance	1	2	3	4	5
Rate the dubbing project as a class project	1	2	3	4	5

III. Comments
(1) What was the most challenging or difficult aspect of this project?
(2) What was the most interesting or fun aspect of this project? Did you enjoy the project?
(3) Would you like to do another project like this in a future Japanese language class? If so, please briefly explain why:
(4) Do you think this project helped improve your Japanese? If so, please briefly explain how you think it helped:
(5) Please add any additional comments or thoughts here.

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REVIEWS

Adult Learning in the Language Classroom. (2015). By Stacey Margarita Johnson. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters. Pp. 144.

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Understanding the various ways in which students learn is a key facet of the knowledge base associated with teaching. Case in point: Standard 3b of ACTFL/CAEP's (2013) *Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers* requires that candidates "demonstrate an understanding of child and adolescent development to create a supportive learning environment for each student" (p. 13). Although the ACTFL/CAEP Standards are used predominately in K–12 contexts, they apply equally as well to higher education; in other words, an effective teacher of foreign languages to adults will possess a sophisticated knowledge of the ways in which adults develop in service of implementing teaching that maximally stimulates learning. This being said, Stacey Margarita Johnson's recent volume entitled *Adult Learning in the Language Classroom* fills an important void, highlighting a topic that is arguably not as visible as it should be amongst teachers of adult foreign language learners.

In *Adult Learning in the Language Classroom*, Johnson's aims are threefold:

> (a) to understand the teaching methods that promote the deeper, more critical language learning advocated by scholars and professional organizations; (b) to understand how adult students learn and transform through language study; and (c) to reinforce the immense value of beginning language courses (2015, p. xi).

These goals are explored over the course of eight chapters. Chapters 1–3 pose questions and describe the constructs that frame the study. Chapters 4 and 5 detail the study's context. Chapters 6 and 7 present the study's findings. Finally, Chapter 8 connects these findings to the greater body of scholarship on adult foreign language learning. Each chapter is then summarized in the paragraphs that follow.

In Chapter 1, Johnson (2015) describes "two conflicting forces" (p. 2) in foreign language education: the need for more proficient foreign language users for business/economical reasons and the continued defunding of language

learning programs, with particularly limited access for adults. In addition, she wonders whether fluency is a reasonable goal for adult learners, noting that most do not continue their studies beyond elementary levels and that developing functional (let alone advanced) proficiency is time-consuming. Thus emerges the central question underpinning her study: "if fluency is not a possible result of short-term language study, then what is its value?" (p. 4). After explaining that she chose her eight focal student participants "because they seemed to be experiencing deep learning" (p. 8), Johnson concludes the chapter with a statement of positionality in which she laments the meager pedagogical training offered to many collegiate foreign language teachers.

Chapter 2 provides overviews of major frameworks in adult learning, which emanate from fields such as education and human resources. The first, experiential learning, holds that effective learning occurs through experience and that adults, in particular, have a wealth of experience on which to draw. The key is mining these experiences for their educational value (see Moon, 2004). Within this framework, Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle, consisting of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation, is highlighted as a tool for designing curriculum that capitalizes on experience. The second, self-directed learning, connects with Knowles, Holton, and Swanson's (2005) scholarship on andragogy, which characterizes adults as seekers of learning experiences that align with their goals and motivations. The third, transformative learning, "describes the learning process that takes place when adults reevaluate previously held beliefs and attitudes and begin to interpret experiences in a new way" (Johnson, 2015, p. 18). Several concepts from the work of Mezirow (1991) are evoked, including meaning perspective (the lens through which adults see the world), perspective transformation (the process of developing awareness of assumptions), disorienting dilemmas (occurrences that stimulate perspective transformation), and critical reflection. The final framework, which Johnson terms "the effects of adult learning," focuses on diversity development. Chávez, Guido-DiBrito, and Mallory's (2003) stage-based model is described, which ranges from unawareness and lack of exposure to difference to integration and validation.

In Chapter 3, Johnson provides a multi-faceted characterization of adult language education, in two main sections: a state of affairs and new directions. To paint the state of affairs, she describes the Standards for Foreign Language Learning (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015), common foreign language teaching methods, student/teacher roles, and sources of knowledge (e.g., deductive presentations of grammar points encapsulated in textbooks and delivered by teachers versus knowledge generated inductively by students from examples). Notably, she associates a grammar-based approach to foreign language teaching with the liberal arts tradition and communicative language teaching with progressive adult education, the latter of which focuses on the practical (see Elias & Merriam, 2005, for more on this distinction). Concerning new directions, Johnson explains current advances in adult language education, such as adopting critical pedagogy lens, taking into account learners' identities/motivations/investments (see Gardner, 2001; Norton, 2013; Ushioda &

Dörnyei, 2012), and cultivating intercultural (communicative) competence (see Byram, 1997).

Returning to methodological details, Johnson elaborates in Chapter 4 on the context in which she conducted her study. Her focal case was an Elementary Spanish I class in an urban community college in the southern United States. There were 22 students in the class, eight of whom were invited to participate in individual interviews. The principal instructor was Ms. Salazar (a pseudonym), who grew up in Spain. Ms. Salazar led the class in a predominately teacher-centered fashion, and the textbook used, which formed the basis of the course curriculum, was *Dos Mundos* (Terrell, Andrade, Egasse, & Muñoz, 2005).

In Chapter 5, Johnson describes the ways she observed Ms. Salazar teach her Elementary Spanish I class. Ms. Salazar's core practices included the following: direct grammar instruction, English as the *lingua franca*, small group oral activities in Spanish, student learning journals, and cultural "sidebars." In other words, Ms. Salazar taught grammar points (e.g., stem-changing verbs) in an explicit, deductive fashion; used English as the primary means of conducting lessons; put students in small groups to ask and answer questions using targeted forms and vocabulary in Spanish; asked students to write in a learning journal (in English) during the last few minutes of every class, answering questions such as "What did you learn in class today?" and "Is there anything we learned or discussed in class that caused you to feel excited, shocked, or disturbed?" (Johnson, 2015, p. 131); and interspersed activities with cultural anecdotes, like the Spanish practice of rounding time (e.g., saying 9:00 instead of 8:59). Ms. Salazar also showed a film called *In the Time of the Butterflies* and required students to write a follow-up report, both of which were in English.

Student learning related to Ms. Salazar's class is broadly characterized in Chapter 6, commencing the study's findings. The main categories of learning are: content, skills, personalized/contextualized learning, learning about learning, learning about differences, learning about connections, learning to make sense of accents, and what students did not know they learned. Content and skills refer to the traditional goals of a language class: vocabulary, grammar, and communication skills. The other categories speak more directly to the types of adult learning highlighted in Chapter 2. For example, in learning to make sense of different accents, a focal student, Ten, underwent a transformation regarding his relationship with different languages and varieties. Before taking Ms. Salazar's Spanish class, Ten experienced strong reactions to seeing commercials in Spanish, stating, "last time I checked, this was the United States of America…" (Johnson, 2015, p. 90). However, after spending a semester in class with Ms. Salazar, whose English was accented and whom he respected, his attitudes toward other languages and accented varieties became less negative.

Chapter 7 represents the crux of Johnson's study; that is, focal students' learning as conceptualized through a transformative/adult-learning lens. Again, this chapter's sections connect with the theories and constructs described in Chapter 2, including examples of students' changing perspectives, becoming more self-directed, etc. For example, some focal students explored new sources

of knowledge by seeking out contact with native speakers of Spanish. Johnson closes the chapter by highlighting two of Ms. Salazar's instructional techniques that seemed particularly associated with transformation: the cultural sidebars described above and the showing and processing of *In the Time of the Butterflies*. It should be remembered that these activities occurred in English.

To conclude the volume, Chapter 8 connects Johnson's findings to other research and states implications for adult foreign language teaching. Practical examples of activities that teachers can use to encourage transformative learning are provided, such as stimulating critical reflection through learning journals. Furthermore, important areas for further consideration are highlighted, such as incorporating adult learning into grading systems and discussing adult learning in teacher education/professional development.

Adult Learning in the Language Classroom has many strengths. First and foremost, Johnson brings awareness to often overlooked forms of learning that occur in adult language classes beyond the development of metalinguistic knowledge and communicative competence. Her discussion of foreign language requirements in American higher education is particularly strong in this regard; where many may not consider one or two years of language as terribly significant in terms of language learning, Johnson has demonstrated that just one semester of a language class may foster other types of adult learning, such as perspective transformation. She makes her case using a highly accessible writing style and via practical examples that foreign language teachers can easily implement in their teaching. Furthermore, her call for more robust forms of assessment of adult learning (e.g., via learning journals) is quite apt, as much of the assessment that currently occurs in adult language classes these days focuses primarily on language.

Considering weaknesses, the author might wish to define certain key terms (especially those used often) earlier and more robustly. For example, what exactly is meant by the phrase "deep learning," especially when set as a criterion for selecting students for individual interviews? Also, perhaps stronger boundaries could be drawn around the phrase "language classroom," for the study deals principally with adult learners in a traditional foreign language context rather than, say, adult learners of English in interrupted schooling/refugee settings. Second, the dichotomy drawn between liberal arts/grammar translation and progressive education/communicative language teaching does not seem helpful. Although these foci may accurately reflect the historical development of foreign language teaching, there are currently many liberal arts institutions where the target language is used communicatively to explore the very ideas that lie at the heart of a liberal arts education. Finally, and most importantly, adult learning and communicative competence feel regrettably positioned as mutually exclusive throughout most of the book. The author states toward the end, "one of the premises underlying this research is that postsecondary foreign language study rarely results in communicative competence" (p. 127). Should this claim be so readily accepted? Why can we not cultivate adult learners who experience impactful perspective transformation *and* workable levels of language proficiency? In this volume, it could be argued

that the author risks "throwing the baby out with the bathwater" by not exploring, even if only briefly, ways in which the focal teacher could have scaffolded student Spanish use more frequently than she did. For example, the instructor could have used visuals like clocks, arrows, and maps drawn on the board to render accessible an explanation in the target language of differing Spanish and American cultural approaches to expressing time.

All told, *Adult Learning in the Language Classroom* is a well-timed contribution to the literature on foreign language teaching in learning. It should be studied in earnest by any foreign language teacher who works with adults and particularly by foreign language teacher educators who prepare future teachers for higher education and community-based settings.

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Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words. *(2014). By Susan Strauss & Parastou Feiz. New York and London: Routledge. Pp. 411.*

Reviewed by HYUNSOO HUR
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

We may have encountered the term "discourse" if we have been involved in linguistics, language education, or activities related to language learning and acquisition. What is discourse? What does discourse imply? Should we consider discourse only at the verbal level or does it embrace non-verbal aspects as well? Strauss and Feiz's book *Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words* is a good start for those who would like to expand their knowledge of discourse and discourse analysis. The authors start with the idea that discourse is not based on individual theory. They explore the notions of discourse from interdisciplinary perspectives such as communication, anthropology, sociology, psychology, education, literature, history, languages, media studies, arts and architecture, geography, medicine, and engineering.

Written more as a textbook and reference, the book provides step-by-step explanations of the concepts related to discourse and discourse analysis. Introducing concepts and methodologies related to discourse, each chapter includes excerpts from various authentic materials (e.g., talk shows, dramas, sitcoms, advertisements, magazines, etc.) in English and other languages. Various exercises with guiding questions at the end of each chapter encourage readers to analyze discourse step by step. Each chapter also includes a list of references and sources of English and non-English data excerpts for further reading.

Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words differentiates language from discourse. Discourse is more than letters and words. Strauss and Feiz define it as "the social and cognitive process of putting the world into words, of transforming our perceptions, experiences, emotions, understandings, and desires into a common medium for expression and communication, through language and other semiotic media" (p. 2). Discourse is "the composite process whereby elements of language combine with other elements of semiosis, like gestures, eye gaze, fluctuations in voice – rhythm, intonation, rate of speech, and spates of silence" (p. 2). Discourse includes color, shape, and imagery, and is visual and aural, creative and musical.

Strauss and Feiz believe that every stance of discourse reflects a perspective; that is to say, discourse can never be neutral. They call, as a consequence, for a variety of unit analyses, such as grammatical units, register,

reference, deixis, information structure, intonation units, speech acts, politeness and face threatening acts, indexicality, identity, and the social construction of ideology and power (p. 3). These units are explored in each chapter.

Chapter 1 introduces the authors' stance and how they define discourse. It also provides an overview of each chapter.

Chapter 2 illustrates the inextricable relationship between grammar, discourse, and stance. Strauss and Feiz begin with the notion of discourse based on grammar. They view grammar as "a socio-cultural-cognitive system of language" (p. 10) that projects people's underlying intent in language use in everyday life. Depending on choices people make in language use in communication, lexicons and syntax vary (e.g., verbs: transitive vs. intransitive; adjectives: attributive vs. predicative; adverbs). The chapter elaborates on what discourse reveals about the speaker, his or her feelings, thoughts, and relations with the topic of communication, namely, stance.

Chapter 3 introduces the concepts of genre, register, modality, and participation framework. Genre, modality, and register are inextricably linked, and they are driven by the context. Genre is "a metaphorical, socioculturally shaped frame of discourse" (p. 5), and information is organized and sequenced on relevant lexico-grammatical features, which differentiates one genre from another. Modality is the medium that produces discourse, by means of oral/spoken (e.g., face-to-face, telephonic interactions), written (e.g., paper, pencil, printed documents), or e-discourse (e.g., social media, texting). Register is the range of multiple possibilities of lexical and grammatical choices (e.g., degrees of formalities). Depending on the participation roles between the speaker and the hearer, different participation frameworks take place. The audience can be involved in direct communication, be present within the communication zone as overhearers, or be present but unknown to the speakers as eavesdroppers. The chapter delves into discourses in various genres by examining genre forms, such as cookbook recipes, narratives, job applications, and weather reports.

Chapter 4 discusses reference, deixis, and stance. Reference "involves the relationship between words and the things, ideas, entities, states, and people that such words designate" (p. 99). Deictic expressions (e.g., I, you, this, that, here, there) indicate the point of reference within context and reveal the speaker/writer's stance. Strauss and Feiz claim that socio-cognitive motivations underlie "the range of meanings of possible markers of referential choice" (p. 5).

Chapter 5 examines the frameworks of information structure focusing on the functioning of cohesion and intonation units. Cohesion represents "a culturally-shaped logical coalescence of discourse" (p. 139) through development and progression of primary topics, events, entities, and ideas. Cohesiveness may be accomplished through reference, ellipsis and substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. New information alternates with known, understood, or inferred information. Intonation units also serve as a window to human consciousness through rising and fallen pitches, amplitudes, and so on.

Chapter 6 focuses on Conversation Analysis (CA), which reveals talk-in-interaction—a co-constructed understanding arising in a naturally occurring conversation. CA uncovers "an extraordinary systematicity that underlies our interactional practices in conversation and in institutional talk" (p. 177). As such, CA examines discourse from everyday conversation between friends and acquaintances to institutional talk such as business and government meetings, and courtrooms. One way to analyze mechanisms underlying talk-in-interaction is by examining turn taking; i.e., "how participants in conversation are oriented to the turn and its construction, organization, and sequencing; how turns are held; and how speakers change" (p. 178). The Turn Construction Unit (TCU) is the basic unit of analysis. Strauss and Feiz focus on various undercurrents beneath the surface of words, grammar, and vocal contours, and CA helps identify these undercurrents.

In Chapter 7, the authors move to the notion of pragmatics, "the area of linguistic and sociolinguistic study that is concerned with the ways in which speakers/hearers and writers/readers create and derive meaning from non-literal interpretations of spoken, written, electronic, and hybrid discourse" (p. 6). Whereas CA does not consider the context (e.g., individual identities, interlocutors' relationships, surrounding environment, etc.), pragmatics rely on the context and shared common ground and knowledge of interactants. In Pragmatics, Strauss and Feiz focus on inference (construction of meaning beyond what is provided literally), conversational implicature (interactants' meaning-making through implications and inferences), speech acts (utterances fulfilling social actions, such as locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act), and politeness (linguistic and non-linguistic patterned behaviors effected for smooth, efficient, and mutually cooperative interactions based on the notion of face and appropriate social and cultural norms).

Indexicality-centered approach to discourse analysis is the center of discussion in Chapter 8. Indexicality is "the patterned, context-dependent connections of linguistic forms to meaning evoking abstract concepts" (p. 7) that are deeply embedded in human lives and existence. Meaning derives from "the combined elements of signs, symbols, and context" (p. 267). Personal pronouns (e.g., I, we, you), deictic time reference (e.g., now, today, yesterday), and deictic space reference (e.g., here, there) reveal indexicality, through which abstract concepts such as stance, identity, gender, morality, and agency emerge.

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is the focus of Chapter 9. CDA views discourse as social practice that creates and is created by social structure and culture, belief systems and ideologies. As such, word choices, grammatical constructions, prosodic fluctuations, gestures, grimaces, eye gaze, colors, and images embed ideologies with "hidden dimensions of power, control, injustice, and inequity" (p. 7). CDA intends to disclose and bring to the surface the underlying invisibleness. Strauss and Feiz have also introduced Discourse Historical Approach, an examination of "historical background information and prior related discourse as necessary and essential to the interpretation of specific current texts" (p. 325).

Strauss and Feiz assert that discourse refers not only to processes but also the outcomes and products of such processes. Their intent is to examine beyond the surface level. For example, when a political text projects a particular stance towards a presidential candidate and his or her campaign, be it critical, supportive, or cynical, Strauss and Feiz highlight the importance of identifying linguistic elements that exist to convey this message rather than taking the surface message only. Discourse analysis is a medium that facilitates identifying the cause of a particular effect by analyzing linguistic elements and various units of analysis, and considering the interconnectivity that exists among these units. This process helps language learners read between the lines and identify the underlying messages, which is critical in dealing with higher-level texts.

Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words is an effective resource in understanding discourse analysis. It provides several approaches in analyzing discourse and explains the frequently used linguistic jargons. Although linguistic concepts are explained in an easy-to-follow manner, the reader may need time to grasp them. The book provides an introduction to discourse analysis by contemplating multiple modalities, language skills, different foreign languages, cultures, and disciplines.

ALL INDEX
(2006-2016)

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.

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

Bae, Gyseon. (2008). *What Causes Reliance on English? Challenges and Instructional Suggestions in a Drive for Using a Target Language Only*. *18*(1&2), p. 63.

Baker, Wendy. (2010). *Exploring Diverse Settings for Language Acquisition and Use: Comparing Study Abroad, Service Learning Abroad, and Foreign Language Housing*. *20*(1&2), p. 45.

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.

Bown, Jennifer. (2010). *Exploring Diverse Settings for Language Acquisition and Use: Comparing Study Abroad, Service Learning Abroad, and Foreign Language Housing*. *20*(1&2), p. 45.

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

Byon, Andrew Sangpil. (2007). *Process-Driven Culture Learning in American KFL Classrooms*. *17*(1&2), p. 73.

Campbell, Christine. (2006). *Action Research as a Professional Development Tool for Teachers and Administrators*. *16*(1), p.75.

Cheng, An Chung. (2006) *The Effects of Formal Instruction and Study Abroad on Improving Proficiency: The Case of the Spanish Subjunctive*. *16*(1), p.17.

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

Cohen, Andrew D. (2007). *Being a Strategic Language Learner in CALL*. *17*(1&2), p. 57.

Daloglu, Aysegul. (2007). *Teacher-Student Partnership in Evaluating and Revising a Multidisciplinary Sustained-Content English Language Course*. *17*(1&2), p. 15.

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.

DeSantis, Paulina. (2008). *Text Enhancement and the Acquisition of English Verbal Infliction -s by L1 Haitian Creole Speakers*. *18*(1&2), p. 27.

Dewey, Dan. (2010). *Exploring Diverse Settings for Language Acquisition and Use: Comparing Study Abroad, Service Learning Abroad, and Foreign Language Housing*. *20*(1&2), p. 45.

Dow, Kathleen A. (2006). *Linguists: The Hidden Strength of U.S. Intelligence*. *16*(1), p.1.

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.

Ewald, Jennifer. (2006). *Students' Evaluations of Dialogue Journals: Perspectives on Classroom Themes*. *16*(1), p.37.

Felix-Brasdefer, J. Cesar. (2009). *Dispreferred Responses in Interlanguage Pragmatic Refusal Sequences in Learner - NS Interactions*. *19*(1&2), p. 1.

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

González-Bueno, Manuela. (2011). *The Teaching of Second Language Pronunciation through Processing Instruction*. *21*(1 & 2), p.57.

Graham, John. (2008). *Quantifying the Efficiency of a Translator: The Effect of Syntactical and Literal Written Translations on Language Comprehension Using the Machine Translation System FALCon (Foreign Area Language Converter)*. *18*(1&2), p. 17.

Graham, C. Ray. (2011). *The Effect of Explicit Instruction versus Exposure Only on ESL Learners' Ability to Recognize, Use, and Recall Phrasal Verbs*. *21*(1&2), p. 31.

Han, Hyunjoo. (2007). *Issues of Validity of SAT Subject Test: Korean with Listening*. *17*(1&2), p. 33.

He, Lei. (2011). *Metacognition in English as a Foreign Language Pronunciation Learning among Chinese Tertiary Learners*. *21*(1&2), p. 1.

Hedgcock, John. (2006). *Sound Effects: Social Pressure and Identity Negotiation in the Spanish Language Classroom*. *16*(2), p. 13.

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

Hernández, Todd A. (2008). *Integrative Motivation as a Predictor of Achievement in the Foreign Language Classroom*. *18*(1&2), p. 1.

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

Houston, Tony. (2006) *Communication Strategies in the Foreign Language Classroom. 16*(2), p. 65.

Jantzi, Jennifer K. (2008). *Quantifying the Efficiency of a Translator: The Effect of Syntactical and Literal Written Translations on Language Comprehension Using the Machine Translation System FALCon (Foreign Area Language Converter). 18*(1&2), p. 17.

Johnson, Cary. (2010). *Exploring Diverse Settings for Language Acquisition and Use: Comparing Study Abroad, Service Learning Abroad, and Foreign Language Housing. 20*(1&2), p. 45.

Kennedy, Lauren. (2010). *The Reading Proficiency Interview (RPI): A Rapid Response Test Development Model for Assessing Reading Proficiency on the ILR Scale. 20*(1&2), p. 1.

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

Kim, Eunju. (2008). *What Causes Reliance on English? Challenges and Instructional Suggestions in a Drive for Using a Target Language Only. 18*(1&2), p. 63.

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

Lee, Saekyun H. (2007). *Issues of Validity of SAT Subject Test: Korean with Listening. 17*(1&2), p. 33.

Lefkowitz, Natalie. (2006). *Sound Effects: Social Pressure and Identity Negotiation in the Spanish Language Classroom. 16*(2), p. 13.

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.

Li, Shaofeng. (2009). *The Differential Effects of Implicit and Explicit Feedback on Second Language (L2) Learners at Different Proficiency Levels. 19* (1&2), p. 53.

Lim, Hye-Yeon. (2009). *Culture, Attributions, and Language Anxiety. 19*(1&2), p. 29.

Lord, Gillian. (2007). *The Role of the Lexicon in Learning Second Language Stress Patterns. 17*(1&2), p. 1.

Marsh, Fulya. (2007). *Teacher-Student Partnership in Evaluating and Revising a Multidisciplinary Sustained-Content English Language Course. 17*(1&2), p. 15.

Martinez-Flor, Alicia. (2006). *A Comprehensive Pedagogical Framework to Develop Pragmatics in the Foreign Language Classroom: The 6R Approach. 16*(2), p. 39.

Martinsen, Rob A. (2010). *Exploring Diverse Settings for Language Acquisition and Use: Comparing Study Abroad, Service Learning Abroad, and Foreign Language Housing. 20*(1 & 2), p. 45.

McCulloh, Ian A. (2008). *Quantifying the Efficiency of a Translator: The Effect of Syntactical and Literal Written Translations on Language Comprehension Using the Machine Translation System FALCon (Foreign Area Language Converter). 18*(1 & 2), p. 17.

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

Mills, Susana V. (2006). *An Exploratory Study of Differing Perceptions of Error Correction between Teachers and Students: Bridging the Gap. 16*(1), p. 55.

Mojica-Diaz, Clara C. (2006). *The Effects of Formal Instruction and Study Abroad on Improving Proficiency: The Case of the Spanish Subjunctive. 16*(1), p. 17.

Morton, Jillian. (2008). *Quantifying the Efficiency of a Translator: The Effect of Syntactical and Literal Written Translations on Language Comprehension Using the Machine Translation System FALCon (Foreign Area Language Converter). 18*(1&2), p. 17.

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.

Plonsky, Luke. (2006). *An Exploratory Study of Differing Perceptions of Error Correction between Teachers and Students: Bridging the Gap.* 16(1), p. 55.

Podoprigora, Serguei A. (2010). *Passage Rating: L4 versus L5 Characteristics in the Russian Text Typology. 20*(1&2), p. 17.

Quintana-Lara, Marcela. (2011). *The Teaching of Second Language Pronunciation through Processing Instruction. 21*(1&2), p. 57.

Raugh, Harold. (2006). *The Origins of the Transformation of the Defense Language Program. 16*(2), p. 1.

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.

Rodriguez, Amy M. (2008). *Quantifying the Efficiency of a Translator: The Effect of Syntactical and Literal Written Translations on Language Comprehension Using the Machine Translation System FALCon (Foreign Area Language Converter). 18*(1&2), p. 17.

Stansfield, Charles, W. (2010). *The Reading Proficiency Interview (RPI): A Rapid Response Test Development Model for Assessing Reading Proficiency on the ILR Scale. 20*(1&2), p. 1.

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

Tovar, Deanna. (2006). *Action Research as a Professional Development Tool for Teachers and Administrators. 16*(1), p. 75.

Uso-Juan, Esther. (2006). *A Comprehensive Pedagogical Framework to Develop Pragmatics in the Foreign Language Classroom: The 6R Approach. 16*(2), p. 39.

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. (2008). *Training English Word-Final Palatals to Korean Speakers of English. 18*(1&2), p. 51.

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

Antokhin, Natalia. (2006). *Review: Language Play. 16*(2), p. 86.

Forsyth, Edo. (2010). *Review: Political Russian: An Intermediate Course in Russian Language for International Relations, National Security and Socio-Economics. 20*(1&2), p. 74.

Hedgcock, John. (2008). *Review: Conversation Analysis and Language for Specific Purpose. 18*(1&2), p. 77.

Henery, Ashlie. (2011). *Review: Language Learning and Study Abroad: A Critical Reading of Research. 21*(1&2), p. 93.

Hoffman, Mika. (2010). *Review: Text Complexity and Reading Comprehension Tests. 20* (1&2), p. 67.

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.

Kelley, Jeremy. (2007). *Review: Leon and Bhatt: Structure du Francais Moderne: Introduction a l'analyse linguistique (3rd Ed. Rev.). 17*(1&2), p. 91.

Ko, Myong Hee. (2006). *Review: Andrew K. English & Laura K. English: North Star Reading and Writing: High Intermediate and Advanced. 16*(1), p. 81.

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.

Nassif, Lama. (2010). *Review: Spoken Corpora in Applied Linguistics. 20*(1&2), p. 70.

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

Vanniarajan, Swathi. (2006). *Review: Bar, David: ICT—Integrating Computers in Teaching. 16*(2), p. 83.

UPCOMING EVENTS 2016 - 2017

2016

MAY

May 10-14 Computer-Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO) annual conference. Michigan State University, East Lancing, MI. Information: calico.org

May 29-June 3 NAFSA: Association of International Educators Annual Conference and Expo, Denver, CO. Information: www. nafsa. org

JUNE

June 13-15 International Society for Language Studies (ISLS) Annual Conference, Illinois State University. Information: www.isls.co /index.html

JULY

July 3-6 American Association of Teachers of French (AATF) 2016 conference, Austin, TX. Information: www.frenchteachers. org

NOVEMBER

November 17-20 Middle East Studies Association (MESA) Annual Meeting, Boston, MA. Information: mesana.org/annual-meeting/ upcoming.html

November 18-20 American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL), Boston, MA. Information: www.actfl.org

November 18-20 Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA) Annual Conference, Boston, MA. Information: clta-us.org

November 18-20 American Association of Teachers of German (AATG) Annual Conference, Boston, MA. Information: www.aatg.org

November 18-20 American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Fall Conference, Boston, MA. Information: www.aatj.org

2017

JANUARY

January 5-8 Linguistic Society of American (LSA) Annual Meeting, Austin, TX. Information: www.linguisticsociety.org

January 5-8 Modern Language Association (MLA) Convention, Philadelphia, PA. Information: www.mla.org/convention

FEBRUARY

February 2-5 American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), San Francisco, CA. Information: www.aatseel.org

February 26-27 19th International Conference on Linguistics, Language Teaching and Learning, Barcelona, Spain. Information: www.waset.org/conference/2017/02/barcelona/ICLLTL/home

MARCH

March 9-11 Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL), Chicago, IL. Information: www.csctfl.org

March 16-18 Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), Orlando, FL. Information: www.scolt.org

March 18-21 American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Portland, OR. Information: www.aaal.org

March 21-24 Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International Convention, Seattle, WA. Information: www.tesol.org

APRIL

April 27 – May 1 American Educational Research Association (AERA) Annual Meeting, San Antonio, TX. Information: www.aera.net

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 4.5” in width
- Do not use the footnotes and endnotes function in MS Word. Insert a number formatted in superscript following a punctuation mark. Type notes on a separate page
- 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; (3) five keywords; and (4) 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.

CORRESPONDENCE

Send all inquiries and editorial correspondence by email to the Editor:

jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.

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
3. Keywords
4. 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 invites 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, and 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:

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

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