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ABSTRACT
                This study investigates linguistic, perceptual, and
pedagogical change (LPPC) in a short-term, study abroad English immersion
program. It proposes the LPPC Interactive Model of second language
acquisition based on Gardner's 1985 socioeducational model and Woods' 1996
beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge (BAK) structure. The framework is applied
in a cross-cultural context, highlighting participants in the 1993 Camosun
Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute involving Japanese English-as-a-
Second-Language (ESL) students from Aoyama Junior College in Osaka, Japan,
and non-Japanese ESL teachers at Camosun College and Canada's University of
Victoria in British Columbia. The study examined the definition of teacher
achievement; distinctions between language activation and language
acquisition in the short-term, study abroad context; development of the
constructs student BAK+, teacher BAK+, and class BAK+ to describe
interactions in "class fit"; and the influence of temporal parameters on
linguistic, perceptual, and pedagogical change. Data from teacher and student
surveys and interviews suggest that change occurs in each of the linguistic,
perceptual, and pedagogical dimensions and support constructs proposed for
the model. (Contains approximately 200 references.) (SM)

A STUDY OF LINGUISTIC, PERCEPTUAL
AND PEDAGOGICAL
CHANGE IN A SHORT-TERM INTENSIVE LANGUAGE PROGRAM

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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the Department of Linguistics

We accept this dissertation as conforming
to the required standard

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (LPPC) in a short-term study-abroad English immersion program. A conceptual and methodological framework, the LPPC Interactive Model of SLA, is proposed based on the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985) and Woods' (1996) BAK structure. The framework is applied in a cross-cultural context, focussing on the participants in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute: 384 Japanese English as a Second Language (ESL) students from Aoyama Junior College in Osaka (Japan) and 14 Non-Japanese ESL teachers at Camosun College and the University of Victoria in Victoria, British Columbia (Canada). Theoretical issues identified in this study include the definition of teacher achievement, the distinction between language activation and language acquisition in the short-term study-abroad context, the development of the constructs SBAK+, TBAK+ and CBAK+ to describe interactions in "class fit," and the influence of temporal parameters on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. Research findings support the hypothesis that change occurs in each of the linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical dimensions explored within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. Support was also found for the constructs proposed for the Model.

This study had three main goals: (i) the identification of areas and types of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term or study abroad program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute; (ii) the identification of factors involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change; and (iii) the identification of program outcomes such as teacher achievement and student achievement.

First, evidence was found supporting linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. In general, statistically significant change was found in the analysis of student data; whereas non-significant change was observed in the analysis of teacher data. Support for linguistic change included teacher and student perceptions of increased language comprehension and production, and increased comfort in language use, as well as increased student language production across the program. In addition, linguistic change occurred on a number of measures within identifiable temporal periods, with the minimal period being identified as

approximately one week. Early increases in production were interpreted as providing support for language activation; whereas weak support for language acquisition was inferred from increases in curriculum-based and extracurricular knowledge over the course of the program.

Evidence of perceptual change was also found. Statistically significant change included positive changes in student attitudes concerning language learning, use of English, and understanding Canada and Canadian culture. Evidence of pedagogical change included decreases on a number of measures which suggested that students' expectations (or CBAK+) of class activities and class roles were not completely fulfilled. By contrast, teachers' expectations concerning both general and sociocultural course goals appeared to have been realized. Change or accommodation therefore appeared to occur more from the student side of the learning equation. Other differences in teacher-student responses included differences in self-perception as language learners, expectations concerning student motivations for taking part in the program, and student expectations of the program (classroom behaviour, classroom techniques).

Second, a number of teacher factors, which included gender and teaching experience, were found to influence class outcomes. For example, prior teaching experience, teaching experience within the Camosun Osaka-Aoyama English Language Institute, and experience teaching English to Japanese students were found to be significant. Temporal factors were also found to influence linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. In addition, similarities in teacher and class styles (or TBAK+ and CBAK+) appeared to influence perceptions of "class fit."

Finally, evidence was found to support the multidimensional definition of "achievement." Individual differences in perception and/or interpretation of situational context supported the inclusion of a "butterfly effect" (Larsen-Freeman, 1995) in the LPPC Model, especially with respect to the definition of "teacher achievement" because teachers felt the purpose of short-term programs was "lighting fires." In general, the results of the study suggested a relatively high level of student and teacher achievement and success.

Examiners:

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Operationalization of Key Terms

(1) Short-Term Intensive Language Program (STILP): A short-term intensive language program is defined as a program which: (i) is approximately one month or less in duration, (ii) takes place in the target language culture, and (iii) includes a minimum of three hours of classroom instruction in the target language per day. The specific program studied was the Camosun/Osaka-Aoyama English Language Institute which took place in July 1993 in Victoria, B.C.

(2) Linguistic, Perceptual & Pedagogical Change (LPPC): The term *linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (LPPC)* refer to pre- and post-course change in (i) student expectations and language performancse as measured via questionnaire and interview data collection procedures, and (ii) teacher expectations and behaviours as measured via questionnaire and interview data collection procedures, *within the context of a Short-Term Intensive Language Program.* Each of the three major categories will be further defined below. Student-based *linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change* refers to changes in student beliefs, attitudes, motivations, knowledge, and perceptions of language performance as measured by pre-course and post-course questionnaire items, and changes in student production across four interviews. Teacher-based *linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change* refers to pre-course to post-course changes in beliefs, attitudes, motivations, knowledge, and perceptions of student progress and language performance as measured by responses to questionnaire and interview items.

(3) Linguistic or language change (LC): Student-based linguistic change includes evidence of perceptions of linguistic change, linguistic change in production, the existence of significant temporal periods, and inter-subject variation. Teacher-based linguistic change includes evidence of perceptions of student linguistic change in production and comprehension.

(4) Perceptual or perception change (PrC): Perceptual or perception change refers to changes in responses by teachers and students in pre-course and post-course questionnaire and interview responses concerning their expectations of Canada, Canadian culture, language learning, and/or their experience(s) in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English

Language Institute program. The category of "Perceptual change" as defined here also should be understood to include variables which may be generally recognized as "attitude variables" and/or "motivational variables" [see discussion in Section 1.1]. Student-based perceptual change includes evidence of change in attitudes towards target language group, interest in foreign languages, language learning anxiety, cognitive/learning style, and integrative motivation. Teacher-based perceptual change includes perceptions of self as teacher, and perceptions of program and personal success.

(5) Pedagogical change (PdC): Pedagogical change refers to change in responses by teachers and students in pre-course and post-course questionnaires and interviews concerning such "pedagogical features" as program format, teaching techniques and focus, classroom behaviours (student and teacher behaviours), and/or program goals. Student-based pedagogical change includes evidence of change of attitudes towards language learning and attitudes toward learning situation. Teacher-based pedagogical change includes perceptions of linguistic program goals, class activities, class roles, sociocultural program goals, pedagogical emphasis, and successful student characteristics of class roles.

(6) Student: A student is defined as an individual who: (i) was enrolled in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute to learn English as a Second Language, (ii) attended daily ESL classes, (iii) participated in the organized ("Option") activities, and (iv) completed both pre-course and post-course questionnaires. All students participating in this study were from Aoyama Junior College in Osaka, Japan.

(7) Teacher: A teacher is defined as an individual involved in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute who (i) taught daily English as a Second Language in the classroom, and (ii) completed pre- and post-course questionnaires, and/or pre-course and post-course interviews.

(8) Expectations: The term "expectations" is defined as a response to any teacher or student response to questionnaire and/or interview items of a introspective nature (or opinion) concerning anticipated (or "expected") program features.

(9) Knowledge of Canada: Knowledge of Canada is defined as student responses to items

on the questionnaires, and responses to questions concerning Canada, Canadian culture, or Canadians in interviews.

(10) Teacher style: Teacher style is defined with respect to teacher responses to interview and questionnaire items concerning types of teaching techniques preferred, used, personal perspective with respect to theories of language teaching and language learning, etc.

Research Scope and Limitations

Although this dissertation seeks to identify, to measure, and to explain linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive study-abroad language immersion program, the scope is limited in at least three ways. First, the study is based on an analysis of a single student and teacher population within a single program. Second, the research focusses on the effects of a limited number of variables. Third, student interview data was collected only from a subset of the total, due to program and temporal constraints. Although the use of a subset of students for interviews could influence reliability and/or validity, the following aspects of the research design support the choice of the research design: (i) the apparent homogeneity of the student subject population, (ii) the comprehensive nature of the questionnaire administration, (iii) the relatively large number of interview subjects, and (iv) the multiple interview format. Nonetheless, the extent to which student interview subjects may be considered representative of the subject population may have been influenced by the fact that the student interview participants were drawn from pre-existing groups by the administration of Aoyama Junior College.

Finally, this study did not include input from the administrators of the program or any supplementary personnel associated with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. This exclusion was due to research and administrative concerns. Given the extensive nature of the data collection employed in this study, the contribution of input concerning such non-academic variables was considered minimal. Future research, however, could attempt to assess the relative impact of extracurricular activities and contact on language and/or perception change in a short-term intensive language program.

Chapter One: Theories and Concepts

1.0 Introduction

It has long been assumed that (the) combination of immersion in the native speech community, integrated with formal classroom learning, creates the best environment for learning a second language. The strength of this assumption is so powerful that there has evolved a popular belief, one shared by students and teachers, parents and administrators, that students who go abroad are those who will ultimately become the most proficient in the use of their language of specialization. Surprisingly enough, there have been relatively few empirical studies which have addressed, in a carefully-controlled and in-depth manner, the specific question of the linguistic impact of study abroad.

Barbara Freed (1995b: 5)

The study of a short-term intensive language program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute within the study-abroad context offers a unique opportunity to investigate the inner workings of language learning/acquisition processes and language teaching processes by examining *linguistic, perceptual* and *pedagogical* change (LPPC) within a limited window of time.

In the context of this dissertation, change is considered from the perspectives of both student and teacher participants. Student-based *linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change* refers to changes in student beliefs, attitudes, motivations, knowledge, and perceptions of language performance as measured by pre-course and post-course questionnaire items, and changes in student production across four interviews. Teacher-based *linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change* refers to pre-course to post-course changes in beliefs, attitudes, motivations, knowledge, and perceptions of student progress and language performance as measured by responses to questionnaire and interview items.

Measures of *linguistic change* in production are based on research on fluency and study-abroad programs (Freed, 1995c; Lennon, 1990), and include variables such as communicative strategies (e.g., topic changes), comprehension (e.g., inappropriate responses, incomplete responses), topic development, number of grammatical errors and lexical errors, mean length of utterance (MLU), total number of utterances (per student per interview), and range (difference between maximum/minimum length of utterance per student per interview). Measures of perception of linguistic change include language use, language use anxiety, and extracurricular contact.

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Perceptual or perception change is defined in this study from the perspective of research on the influence of attitude and motivation on language learners (Gardner, 1985), as well as for teachers (Barkhuizen, 1998; Borg, 1998; Woods, 1996). Woods' (1996) research on the influence of teachers' beliefs, attitudes and knowledge (BAK) on classroom interpretation and practice is of particular interest to the teacher perspective. Student perceptual change is measured by changes in responses by students in pre-course and post-course questionnaire and interview responses concerning their expectations of Canada, Canadian culture, and language learning. For teachers, *perceptual change* refers primarily to Perceptions of Program Goals, and Perceptions of Self as Teacher.

Finally, *pedagogical change* refers to change in responses by teachers and students in pre-course and post-course questionnaires and interviews concerning such "pedagogical features" as teaching techniques and focus, and classroom behaviours (student and teacher behaviours). Specifically, subcategories of pedagogical change found on Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student questionnaires include Perceptions of Classroom Roles, and Perceptions of Class Activities. For teachers, *pedagogical change* referred primarily to Perceptions of Teaching Techniques, Perceptions of Classroom Roles, and Perceptions of Class Activities.

While most theories of language acquisition implicitly recognize the impact of temporal variables, little research has identified specific areas of change, and/or specific time frames, in which such change may occur. Even fewer studies have considered either the impact of temporal constraints on the perceptions and activities of the classroom teacher, and/or the influence of the interactions between individual teacher differences and differential classroom outcomes within a short-term program. These gaps in the research literature have effectively limited the ability of theories of second language acquisition and second language pedagogy to identify critical periods in language acquisition and/or critical factors in language teaching, especially with respect to their impact in short-term programs.

The study of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (or LPPC) within a short-term intensive language program presents a set of unique theoretical considerations.

Specifically, the constructs proposed must be sufficiently (i) concrete or testable to be employed within specified temporal constraints, (ii) comprehensive in nature to capture the multidimensional nature of the language learning context, including both teacher and student perspectives, and (iii) operationalized in a manner consistent with current research in the field.

Theoretical considerations also include the interweaving of theories of language, language learning, and language teaching into a single comprehensive theory and model of the study-abroad language learning experience. Towards these goals, this dissertation analyzes features of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change within the three-week 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute.

1.0.1 Thesis statement

This study examines the theoretical and empirical issues related to the experience of students and teachers involved in a short-term intensive English as a Second Language program. Specifically, this research:

> (1) addresses the current lack of quantitative and qualitative data on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change within the context of a short-term intensive language program (STILP);
>
> (2) compares current theories of second (and other) language acquisition in their ability to account for linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (LPPC) within a short-term intensive language program within the following areas:
>
>> (i) general cognition and learning, learning strategies and styles, general and culturally-based affective factors, acculturation and culture shock, learning and expectations, the influence of individual differences in learning style, Canale & Swain's four competences and/or Cummins' BICS/CALP distinction, and gender and cultural factors in student-teacher interactions; and
>>
>> (ii) temporal dimensions of a short-term intensive language program, or timetables of learning (critical windows in acquisition) with respect to the receptive and productive skills.

The following hypotheses were proposed:

> (1) linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will occur within the three week period of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute;
>
> (2) the above linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will be

measurable and statistically significant;

(3) the above linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will be found in the following categories (as measured by questionnaire and/or interview tools):

> (i) attitudinal change with respect to language learning and use of English, and Canada and Canadian culture and customs;
>
> (ii) expectations with respect to classroom activities and orientations;
>
> (iii) knowledge of Canada;
>
> (iv) linguistic competence;

(4) different teacher styles and/or techniques will have measurable and significant effects on the student performance (the influence of BAK+);

(5) differences in teacher-student expectations will be measurable and significant in the following areas:

> (i) classroom roles
>
> (ii) classroom activities and techniques

(6) the above linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will show evidence of a convergence of student and teacher expectations (and/or a stronger movement of convergence from student to teacher than vice versa);

(7) the above linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will also relate to factors outlined in (4); and be measurable and significant;

(8) in general, change within linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will be greater in the socio-psychological competences than in linguistic competence (as per course/program goals);

(9) individual differences in learning strategies and/or styles among students and/or teachers will correlate to differences in performance as outlined above;

(10) Japanese student and Western/Canadian teacher differences in culture and/or gender will correlate to factors outlined above; further, the influence of the amount of experience either of students or teachers with members of the other group would be measurable and significant.

This dissertation also proposes a model which attempts the integration of theories of language, language learning, and language teaching into a comprehensive theory and model of the study-abroad language learning experience: the Linguistic Perceptual and Pedagogical Change (LPPC) Interactive Model of Second Language Acquisition.

The LPPC Interactive Model of Second Language Acquisition is a modification of the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985) and of Woods' (1996) BAK Model. The LPPC model includes development and inclusion of a cluster of variables defined as

TBAK+ (teacher style, teacher expectations and teacher experience) and SBAK+ or CBAK+ (student style, and student linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations). The model describes the context of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program. A distinction between language activation and language acquisition in terms of describing the language change in a short term program is also introduced.

The LPPC model has three main goals: (i) the *identification of areas and types* of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term study-abroad program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute; (ii) the *identification of factors* involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change; and (iii) the *identification of program outcomes* such as teacher achievement and student achievement. The factors involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change are categorized as three types of factors: *participant factors, temporal factors, and situational factors*. The category of "participant factors" includes three aggregates: (i) "TBAK+" which includes teacher beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, language background, teaching style and strategies, gender, culture, educational experience and background, and other demographic influences; (ii) "SBAK+" which includes student attitudes, knowledge, language background, learning style and strategies, gender, culture, educational experience and background, and other demographic influences; and (iii) "CBAK+", or class BAK, which is defined as the aggregate result of a group of students' "SBAK+s". The category of "temporal factors" includes the amount of time involved in a particular program, how the time was used for curricular or extracurricular activities, and any influence the temporal parameters may have had on the behaviour or perceptions of program participants. "Situational factors" include the degree of class fit (or degree of similarity or compatibility between TBAK+, SBAK+ and/or CBAK+), administrative or curricular constraints, and pedagogical interactions (such as use and reception of specific techniques, activities, etc.).

Therefore, this study seeks to investigate both the LPPC model and the hypotheses proposed earlier. In this Chapter, I will review the literature relevant to the theoretical and methodological issues addressed in this study. This review will also serve as a basis for the

proposal of constructs in the LPPC model.

1.0.2 Contributions to the field: New areas of research in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study contributes to the development of the fields of second language acquisition and second language pedagogy by "filling in the gaps" on a number of issues which researchers have identified as "targets for future research" (Freed, 1995a, b & c; Gardner et al., 1974; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 1998; Olshtain, 1998; Oxford, 1998; Woods, 1996). Gardner and his colleagues, for example, have identified the need for examination of the role of "situational factors" such as teachers and the classroom within the Socioeducational Model on a number of occasions (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). A number of other prominent researchers have also recently called for a shift of focus towards the teacher and/or the learning situation (Larsen-Freeman, 1998; Olshtain, 1998; Oxford, 1998; Woods, 1996).

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study provides a global perspective on the human (or participant) factors and situational factors influencing linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change in a short-term study-abroad program by examining the influences and interactions of student, teacher and temporal factors within a short-term intensive language program which occur within a study-abroad context, and attempts to incorporate these complex interactions into a model of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (the LPPC Model).

By creating this inclusive theoretical framework and model, this study therefore attempts to address many of the "gaps" indicated by Gardner (1985) and others. For example, Oxford (1998) suggests that teacher-specific aspects which need to be studied and/or integrated into a single theory include: caring; classroom control (e.g., power relationships in the classroom, including humanistic versus custodial control, differences among teacher control, shared control, student control); social distance among individuals in an interaction; teacher role (e.g., beliefs about what is appropriate for the teacher to do); style conflicts (e.g., conflicts between teachers and students in terms of approach

such as extroverted versus introverted, analytic versus global, closure-oriented versus open); and course-specific aspects of the language learning situation (e.g., interest, relevance, expectancy, satisfaction). She further proposes that these teacher-factors be compared with components of language learning motivation (e.g., interest, relevance, expectancy, intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, decision to learn, persistence, high involvement) and components of satisfying and motivating work (e.g., variety, interest, relevance, difficult for attainable goals, feedback/reward).

In addition, Freed (1995b: 17) has proposed the most detailed list of "theoretical and practical" issues which need to be addressed by research on the study-abroad context (and by analogy, short-term programs as well). A number of these issues are directly addressed or indirectly addressed in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, and they can therefore be considered to be contributions to the field. I will discuss Freed's list in some detail in order to identify those issues which will be addressed in this dissertation. I will also indicate to which categories used in this dissertation (e.g., linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change) the addressed issues belong:

> Theoretical Issues
> (i) Identifying the actual linguistic benefits of time spent in these study abroad programs [*Direct: Linguistic change*]
> (ii) Identifying any specific differences between the linguistic skills of students who participate in these study abroad programs and students in foreign language situations
> (iii) Defining the roles of comprehension, interaction, and negotiation in the acquisition process in both in-class and out-of-class contexts [*Indirect: Linguistic and pedagogical change*]
> (iv) Describing the roles of "comprehensible input" and "comprehensible output" in the second language community
> (v) Identifying any negative linguistic outcomes (e.g., fossilization)
> (vi) Developing knowledge of linguistic universals, the linguistic environment, and their interaction in language acquisition [*Indirect: Perceptual and linguistic change*]

Thus, of the six "theoretical" issues raised by Freed (1995b), three issues are either directly or indirectly addressed in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. For example, dimensions of "actual linguistic benefits," Issue (i), are examined in interview and questionnaire data as "perceptual change" with respect to attitudes towards

target language, language comfort and use, etc., and "linguistic change" with respect to changes in type and amount of production. The "roles of comprehension, interaction, and negotiation," Issue (iii), are indirectly addressed in the student interviews (topic changes, problems of communication, etc.) and questionnaires (pedagogical changes). Issue (vi), which includes "knowledge of linguistic universals, the linguistic environment, and their interaction in language acquisition" is indirectly examined when we discuss the role of language activation (versus language acquisition) in the short-term study-abroad program [see Section 1.1.3 and 1.1.4], as well as by the inclusion of the postulated "extracurricular contact" factor in the proposed LPPC model, which also overlaps with Gardner's (1985) "situational variables."

The practical issues Freed believes should be examined include:

Practical Issues
(i) Identifying the optimal time in a student's language learning career to benefit from a study abroad experience
(ii) Investigating whether prior exposure to the target language is necessary for success in a study abroad context [*Indirect: Linguistic and pedagogical change*]
(iii) Examining the relationship between level of proficiency, type of language instruction, and participation in a study abroad program
(iv) Identifying the minimal amount of time spent in a study abroad context for students to benefit linguistically from the experience [*Direct: Linguistic change, temporal factors - Main focus of this study*]
(v) Investigating whether systematic and significant differences in demographic background, motivation, learning style, and/or metacognitive abilities exist between students who choose to participate in study abroad programs and students who do not participate [*Indirect: Perceptual change*]
(vi) Identifying the most appropriate assessment tools for measuring progress in all skill areas and proficiency levels for students in study abroad contexts [*Indirect*]
(vii) Identifying methods to measure and evaluate quality and extent of student social contact (or extracurricular exposure) and language use in the study abroad context [*Indirect*]
(viii) Identifying the combination of experiences most valuable for students who participate in study abroad programs (e.g., formal language courses and content-based courses, amount of interaction between extracurricular contact and formal instruction) [*Indirect*]

(ix) Examining techniques which encourage students to maintain
and improve language skills upon return home
(x) Identifying positive attributes of the study abroad experience
which can be replicated in the home learning environment [*Indirect*]

Of the "practical issues" outlined by Freed (1995b), "identifying the minimal
amount of time spent in a study abroad context for students to benefit linguistically from
the experience," Issue (iv), or rather within the terms of this dissertation "identifying areas
of *linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical* change within a short term program" is the
primary focus of this study insofar as the goal of identification of significant temporal
periods. Other issues addressed indirectly include Issue (ii) "the influence of prior
exposure to the target language" by questionnaire and interview items; Issue (v)
"investigating whether systematic and significant differences in demographic background,
motivation, learning style, and/or metacognitive abilities exist between students who
choose to participate in study abroad programs and students who do not participate"
insofar as the possible influence of demographic background, motivation, and learning
style of participants on perceptual change by questionnaire items; Issue (vi) "identifying
the most appropriate assessment tools for measuring progress in all skill areas and
proficiency levels for students in study abroad contexts" by testing the ability of using
changes in fluency markers in student interview data to identify specific areas of linguistic
change, as well as student and teacher identification of perceived areas of progress and/or
change over the three-week period; Issue (vii) "identifying methods to measure and
evaluate quality and extent of student social contact (or extracurricular exposure), and
language use in the study abroad context" by student questionnaire and interview
responses concerning amount and type of extracurricular contact and language use; Issue
(viii) "experiences most valuable for students who participate in study abroad programs"
by student and teacher interview responses; and Issue (x) "identifying positive attributes of
the study abroad experience which can be replicated in the home learning environment" by
analysis of student interview responses, as well as teacher interview and questionnaire
responses and suggestions.

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study therefore contributes to both theoretical and practical areas of the field by addressing many of the issues identified by Freed.

1.1 Theories and concepts

A number of theories of second language acquisition can be advanced to explain language acquisition within a short-term intensive language program. However, only a few appear to meet the necessary criteria of predictive ability, testability of constructs, applicability to short-term intensive language programs, and the scope of phenomena considered. In other words, few current theories address both teacher and student factors in language learning.

Theoretical issues of importance to the analysis of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term and/or study-abroad ESL program include learning strategies (Chaudron, 1988; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), learning styles (McCarthy, 1987), Woods (1996) "BAK" model of teacher cognition, and the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985). These issues will be examined within the context of identifying constructs or conceptualizations of processes relevant to the description of linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change within a short-term study-abroad program, from learner and/or teacher perspectives.

First, the applicability of concepts and/or constructs from a number of theories of second language acquisition and second language pedagogy to the specific context of the short-term intensive language program will be considered. Second, the rationale for basing a model of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term and/or study-abroad program on a modification of the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985) and Woods (1996) "BAK" will be offered. Third, a discussion of research on short-term programs will be presented. Fourthly, a model of interaction within a short-term intensive language program, including a parallel construct to student achievement, labelled "teacher achievement," and based on modifications of the Socioeducational Model, will be developed.

1.1.1 Concepts and constructs: A critique

A number of current theories propose concepts of interest to the study of short-term intensive language programs within the dimensions of second language acquisition identified in this dissertation. It will be argued that many of these concepts suffer from a lack of testability, and hence are of limited utility to this research [see discussions in Gardner (1985) and O'Malley & Chamot (1990)], and therefore, new or modified terms will be proposed. Such problematic theories include Krashen's (1982) Monitor Model, and Oxford's (1990) Strategy Model. As well, limitations to the Socioeducational model (Gardner, 1985) and Woods' (1996) model of teacher cognition will be discussed, and a rationale for the new model presented.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), the diversity of approaches to second language acquisition and problematic testability is primarily the result of differing methodologies favoured by various disciplines whose interests overlap in second language acquisition. For example, in the area of learning strategy research, they note:

> The two bodies of research, one in second language acquisition, and the other in cognitive psychology, (have) proceeded fully independent of each other with little cross referencing of concepts and approaches across topic areas. Furthermore, the methodologies in the studies (are) different, the ones in second language acquisition being descriptive, and the ones in psychology being experimental and oriented towards training learners to acquire strategies. The lack of theory to explain learning strategies (has been) compounded in second language acquisition studies by the lack of a comprehensive theory to explain how individuals learn the structures and functions associated with learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 2).

This criticism clearly illustrates the need for a comprehensive theory and model with is both descriptive and testable, which is the goal of the LPPC model developed in this dissertation. This principle is also incorporated into the research design which combines descriptive, as well as experimental methodology.

O'Malley and Chamot cite Krashen's (1982) theory of language acquisition as an example of primarily descriptive second language acquisition research. They, and others (Gardner, 1985; McLaughlin, 1978), suggest that while the concepts Krashen (1982) proposes such as the LAD, the Affective Filter, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Silent Period,

etc., are "good to think" (i.e., intuitively satisfying), they do not appear to meet scientific (or experimental) criteria of testability. In fact, in some cases, the terminological definitions verge on tautologies, or circular arguments, such as arguing that a high affective filter results in low language acquisition, and low language acquisition is a result of a high affective filter. Since the identification of a high affective filter is based on observed low language acquisition, it is impossible to isolate either variable.

Another issue is predictive ability. Not surprisingly, tautological definitions such as the affective filter lack the predictive ability which is of critical importance to reliable and valid research because it is impossible to disprove something you can not test. The LPPC model developed in this dissertation, which examines linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term program, attempts to address these limitations by operationalizing constructs in replicable (testable) terms, using a test/retest paradigm, and placing the constructs within a framework which is sufficiently elaborated for generalizability (use with different subject populations) (Babbie, 1992). In other words, the model is designed to be easily understood, testable, and generalizable to other similar populations. As will be explained in detail later in this study [see discussion in Section 1.4], factors in the model such as Teacher Style and Teacher Experience are defined with respect to specific items, or aggregates of responses to questionnaire and/or interview items, and these aggregate factors were developed using factor analysis. In addition, the choice of the terms (i) "change" (linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical *change*) to describe processes observed in the study and (ii) "achievement" to describe outcomes was based on the desire to develop a model which can clearly distinguish either increases or decreases on measures. The fact that not all change in a language program necessarily represents progress was also important to the choice of relatively neutral terminology such as "change" and/or "achievement" for these measures.

1.1.2 Language acquisition and language learning

Krashen's "learning" versus "acquisition" dichotomy (Dulay et al., 1982; Krashen, 1982) is a problematic construct, especially with respect to the issues raised by the study of short-term and/or study-abroad programs. Although one could discuss this issue at

some length, to briefly reiterate the argument against the learning/acquisition dichotomy, Krashen (1982) attempts to make a terminological distinction between *language acquisition* and *language learning*, essentially suggesting the two are separate processes.

According to Krashen and Terrell (1983: 26-27), "language acquisition" is similar to child first language acquisition, or "picking up" a language. They also suggest that acquisition is subconscious, so it may be considered implicit knowledge. They state that formal teaching does not help acquisition. By constrast, "language learning" is said to imply possessing a formal knowledge of the language, or "knowing about" a language. They propose that learning should therefore be considered a conscious process which includes "explicit knowledge of rules", "being aware of them and being able to talk about them."

Krashen and Terrell (1983: 26) state:

> The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis claims that adults can still acquire second languages, that the ability to 'pick up' languages does not disappear at puberty...but is still with us as adults. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis does not imply necessarily that adults can acquire perfectly or that they can always achieve a native level of performance in second languages. It also does not specify what aspects of language are acquired and what are learned, or how the adult performer uses acquisition and learning in performance. It only states that the processes are different and that both exist in the adult.

The ambiguities and lack of clarity apparent in these definitions make it highly problematic for a number of reasons. Therefore, following O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and others (Gardner, 1985; McLaughlin, 1987), I will reject Krashen's dichotomy, for three main reasons: (i) little evidence appears to exist to support the existence of two such defined distinct processes; (ii) the vagueness of the definition makes it difficult to operationalize (e.g., "it only states that the processes are different..." How?); and (iii) the theoretical implications arising from these distinctions are limiting to the exploration of issues in linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term or study-abroad program.

First, while support can be found in the literature for the existence of different

types of knowledge (e.g., declarative/procedural, implicit/explicit, etc. - see discussion in Ellis, 1994), these differences do not appear to result from the context of acquisition. Ellis (1994) states, "whereas the claim that there are two types of knowledge is not controversial, Krashen's insistence that 'learned' knowledge is completely separate and cannot be converted into 'acquired' is" (p. 356).

Secondly, the definitional ambiguity not earlier is problematic from both the perspective of second language acquisition, as well as from the specific context of short-term programs. For example, the learning context in a short-term intensive language program implicitly (if not explicitly) would include both "natural" *acquisition* situations (e.g., outings in the target community, time spent with "host families") as well as "mediated" *learning* situations (e.g., teacher-led classrooms). Therefore, it would be difficult to ascribe any changes observed to one or the other of Krashen's (1982) processes. Further, this distinction also includes the assumption implicit in many theories (including Krashen's) of unidirectionality of language learning experience (i.e., on-going immersion in the target language community). For this reason, the distinction also offers little to the discussion of acquisition/learning processes in short-term or study-abroad programs where "quick dips" into the language environment may occur.

The distinction between *language learning* and *language acquisition* also appears to be of limited use in the discussion of the specific context of the study-abroad and/or short-term program due to the fact that many students in short-term or study-abroad programs will have had studied the target language for a number of years prior to studying abroad (Huebner, 1995). This distinction between learning and acquisition is also of little value to such a discussion because these students could be described as having primarily "learned knowledge," such as being used for reading and/or writing. The use of "acquisition" would not acknowledge the influence of previous knowledge of the language.

Finally, although Krashen's framework might predict an initial lower level of productive skills (such as speaking) because learned language production would be "monitored" (which may slow or limit production), it does not account for language

change towards higher levels of facility and comprehension of language. Due to the implications of the more highly defined time frame of the short-term intensive language program, I will propose that the terms "*language activation*" and "*linguistic change*" more accurately represent some of the linguistic processes involved in a short-term program. I will, therefore, be differentiating the terms "language activation," "language change," and "language acquisition/learning." First, I will use the terms *language learning* and *language acquisition* interchangeably to refer to observed uptake of *new or novel information or skills* within the temporal period of a short-term program. The term *language activation*, by contrast, will refer to observed changes in comprehension and/or production which appear to be based primarily on linguistic or factual knowledge or language-based skills possessed by the individual *prior to entering* a short-term program. In other words, "activation" will refer to the use of active and/or passive language skills (or knowledge) which were "acquired/learnt" before the student began the program of interest. This definitional use of "activation" does not encompass explanations of the origin of such skills or knowledge, the storage of linguistic knowledge, or the processes involved in retrieval of previously acquired/learnt knowledge and/or skills.

The concept of activation was first proposed in the fields of cognitive and experimental psychology (Marslen-Wilson, 1989). On a very basic level, the underlying premise of activation from this perspective is that learning or processing is based on connections in the brain, rather than compartmentalized blocks of information ("modularity"). In other words, learning/acquisition result from connections between discrete nodes which build patterns of activation (e.g., visual recognition of the letter "H" than "E," together with the sounds /h/ and /i/), rather than having a specific store of information (e.g., greetings - "hi," "hello"). Thus, comprehension and/or production require activation of a (relatively specific) set of connections. Learning/acquisition require creating new connections.

Early research on activation in psychological research focussed on phenomena such as priming (Tulving & Gold, 1963). Priming research demonstrated that subjects, when shown a word closely related to one meaning of a word in a pair, would respond

more quickly to the primed word (e.g., "hot" primes "cold"; "sneeze" also primes "cold"). In other words, being presented with a prime appeared to activate a network of connections associated with one of the words, not the other. Activation therefore appeared related to previously formed neural connections.

More recent cognitive research has developed models of activation, such as McClelland & Rumelhart's TRACE model (1981 - cited in Marslen-Wilson, 1989). These models have typically employed computer-based analyses to focus on individual aspects of language processing, such as lexical access or phoneme recognition in native speakers (a rather limited focus). They have generally not studied multiple skills concurrently (which would be arguably more "realistic").[1] Nonetheless, findings suggest that models based on spreading activation via multiple connections (especially neural network models) appear to provide better explanations (or analogies) for a number of aspects of human language learning than other cognitive models (Marslen-Wilson, 1989).

Based on this review, the use of the term "activation" in this dissertation to refer to the retrieval (and/or use) of previously stored knowledge thus does not appear inconsistent with the cognitive use of the term. In addition, the idea of activation does appear implicit in some areas of SLA. For example, the priming effect appears implicit in the SLA concept of cross-linguistic transfer (from L1 to L2) via "cognates" and/or "false friends" (Ellis, 1994). The term "cognate" refers to a word in one language (e.g., the student's mother tongue) which is close in structure and in meaning to a word in the target language. For example, the French word "hôpital" [hospital] and the English word "hospital" could be considered "cognates." By constrast, a "false friend" is considered a misleading cross-linguistic transfer. For example, although the Spanish word "sympatico" [congenial; sharing a feeling of oneness or friendship] and the English word "sympathy" [regret another's unhappiness] are structurally similar, they are semantically quite different.

Although my use of the term "activation" can be seen to relate to the use of the term in the literature previously reviewed, insofar as I am referring to previously formed

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[1]This difference is partially explained by the computational limitations of computers in comparison to the human brain (Marslen-Wilson, 1989).

connections (i.e., language skills or knowledge with which students enter the short-term or study-abroad program), some critical differences should be noted. Specifically, I am <u>not</u> proposing to explain how language is activated on a neurological level. I am also <u>not</u> suggesting that learning or acquiring language does not require neurological activation. The distinction proposed here is intended primarily to explicitly recognize that at least some language-based processes in a short-term language program in some contexts may be better conceptualized as "*activation*" of passive knowledge (learning) or "reactivation" of rarely used "lapsed" active knowledge, rather than "acquisition" and/or "learning" of new or novel information or skills. Therefore, I am proposing a metalinguistic distinction between "new" and "old" language knowledge (and/or skills) which could be useful to this or future discussions of language processes in short-term or study abroad programs, and arguably, in SLA in general.

In addition, the proposed definition of "language activation" appears consistent with the goal of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute to develop comfort in use of English (e.g., language practice). The term "language use" alone does not allow clarification of the point(s) at which linguistic skills and/or knowledge were acquired/learnt.

1.1.3 Language acquisition and language activation

The choice of the terms "language activation" and "linguistic change" in this study is also intended to emphasize that increases or changes in language production do not necessarily imply increased or new knowledge or skills. The use of "activation" and/or "linguistic change" is also consistent with Freed (1995a) and others' emphasis on an increase in *fluency* of students who have studied abroad being the most salient change found. It also can be argued that increased fluency should not be considered synonymous with language acquisition, although the two may co-occur in many cases, because key factors in increased fluency may include increased speed of production, increase in amount of language produced, fewer or shorter pauses, etc. (Freed, 1995c; Lennon, 1994).

In other words, the most obvious changes in these study-abroad or short-term contexts appear to occur in language use (or performance or presentation changes), rather

than increases in knowledge (competence); therefore, they could be examples of language activation. Therefore, the extent to which any observed change in language production is taken as evidence of *language acquisition* (as opposed to language *activation*) in the study-abroad context should be limited to clear examples of linguistic skills or new lexicon ("new knowledge") which were known to have not been present prior to the short-term intensive language program experience. For example, with learners who have had considerable foreign language exposure to reading and writing, but little oral practice[2], the best description of the language knowledge and/or skills they possess might include "literacy knowledge" (e.g., used for reading and/or writing), or passive knowledge, of the language (Ellis, 1994). Hence, although their oral skills may not appear strong on initial testing, such students should not be considered "true beginners," and subsequent language change should not automatically be attributed to language acquisition. In this case, much of the observed language change could be better described as language *activation,* rather than language acquisition, without the assumption of the origins of the language produced.

From a theoretical perspective, by conceptualizing the short-term intensive language program as potentially involving language acquisition and/or "activation" of passive knowledge or "reactivation" of rarely used "lapsed" active knowledge, we should be able to account for the increased fluency finding of Freed (1995c), and perhaps identify patterns of language change consistent with either acquisition or activation. For example, a relatively rapid change in language production by "activating students" might be predicted to occur at the onset of a language program because students are drawing on knowledge which is already stored (Marslen-Wilson, 1989), even if increased production may also include increased numbers of errors (Freed, 1995c; Lennon, 1994). By contrast, a gradual development, or later appearance of change, could be characterized as "language acquisition" because novel material is being acquired and must pass into long term memory.

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[2]Typical of many foreign language situations, especially in Asia (Barnlund, 1989).

In reality, of course, both processes may also occur at the same time. In such a case, it would only be possible to distinguish activation versus acquisition if we knew which information or skills were novel. For example, an upper beginner, intermediate or advanced student could demonstrate an initial rapid change/increase in lexicon and other fluency markers (activation), with a later, more gradual change in general language production being observed with development in complex syntax, increased range of vocabulary especially material covered in class or encountered extracurricularly (acquisition). However, it would be difficult to make this distinction in students who begin with low level skills in all four skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking) because there would arguably be little knowledge to "activate."

The issue of level and activation, however, requires one caveat: slight differences in the patterns of activation could be found depending on whether the student is stronger in literacy skills than oral skills (or vice versa), and depending on the mode of production being observed or tested. For example, if students' prior language training has focussed primarily on reading and writing, such as in the case of many students from Asian countries, they may not show as great an initial increase in language production (especially with respect to fluency indicators) as a student whose language training focussed on oral skills, but if the comparison was made with respect to diary writing, the former group of students could outperform the latter.

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, only changes on items which were believed to address course specific and/or environment-specific aspects of the program were considered "acquisition." These items were included on the student pre- and post-course questionnaires in the section entitled "Knowledge of Canada" which presented 10 multiple choice items concerning the population of the country, bilingualism, tourist sites in Victoria, etc. [see Appendix A]. While admittedly this focus is rather limited, administrative and procedural concerns did not allow additional investigation. As the course was intended to develop sociocultural skills primarily, there was no formal exit language testing, and the students' previous ESL grades were not made accessible for this study. However, indirect measures of students' knowledge of English

prior to participation in the Institute were also included in these questionnaires. They included the number of years of EFL schooling, the amount of previous exposure to English speakers, and amount of travel to English speaker countries. As will be elaborated later in this chapter, the LPPC model considers student factors such as number of years of EFL and amount of previous experience with Canada and Canadians to be of importance in deciding whether linguistic change was the result of *acquisition* or *activation.*

To date, it appears the influence of prior language education on performance in a short-term intensive language program or study-abroad programs has not specifically been addressed in the context of the *acquisition* vs *activation* issue described above, although researchers such as Freed (1995b), Brecht et al. (1995), Lapkin et al. (1995) and Guntermann (1995) have noted the problems of ceiling effects in assessing progress in advanced learners, when less change or progress is apparent with higher level learners, in the study-abroad context.

This tendency for study-abroad participants to possess some prior knowledge of the target language (and therefore the reason some of the observed linguistic change may be better considered *activation*) is apparent in Huebner's (1995) study of the progress of "true beginners" learning Japanese in Japan. Unfortunately for Huebner, he discovered that of his already small subject population, almost half of the participants had in fact had previous exposure or knowledge of the language (they had been attracted by the fact the program was free), and therefore, he could not make claims concerning his original question of interest (true beginners).

This gap in the study-abroad literature, concerning language acquisition by true beginners, has been addressed in the second language literature based on studies of populations with no prior knowledge of the target language, such as immigrants, refugees, and others coming to learn English in English speaking countries - or students studying foreign languages abroad (Ellis, 1989). However, the latter research is not directly applicable to the context described in this dissertation due to factors such as amount of exposure, temporal variables, pedagogical goals, etc.

In summary, the importance of the *acquisition/activation* distinction to this

dissertation lies in the theoretical, pragmatic and/or pedagogical implications. The theoretical importance of this distinction is the need for caution in assuming all language change to be language acquisition. The identification of such distinctions would also contribute to the field. In the analysis of linguistic change (in a short-term program especially), researchers must be wary of assuming increased production (and/or fluency) is necessarily the result of the learner acquiring/learning new skills or knowledge. One should not assume positive linguistic changes (or increased production or performance) are necessarily the result of the program, teaching, or extracurricular contact - especially if this increase occurs within a very short period at the onset of the program, such as the first week. By using the terms "language activation" and "language/linguistic change" in describing processes in a short-term program, I am explicitly not making assumptions concerning either the origins of the language produced, nor am I making assumptions concerning the quality of language or linguistic change by assuming linguistic change would be positive progress or acquisition. However, as noted above, this distinction also facilitates the discussion and possible identification of these two different processes in a short term program.

1.2 The Socioeducational Model

Another issue in addressing linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term or study-abroad program is the need for a framework or model which is testable, generalizable, and to the greatest extent possible, able to accommodate a diverse set of individual and situational variables such as those explored in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study.

One theoretical framework which appears to have overcome many of the problems of earlier studies such as Krashen's (1982) Monitor Model is the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985). The Socioeducational Model incorporates critical aspects of contemporary theories such as Krashen's (1982) Monitor Model, Carroll's (1981) Conscious Reinforcement Model, Schumann's (1978) Acculturation Model, Lambert's (1963) Social Psychological Model, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Model, Giles et al.'s (1982) Social Identity Theory, and Clément's (1980) Social Context Model [see discussion,

Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994], within a format which supports model-testing on a statistical level. Although the Socioeducational model will be shown to be limited in its ability to describe all aspects of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program because its main focus has been on identifying factors influencing *student achievement*, not t*eacher achievement* nor *student/teacher interactions*, it has been rigorously tested and it has been shown to generalize to a number of different learning environments and situations (Gardner, 1985; Gardner et al., 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Kraemer, 1993; Lalonde & Gardner, 1993; MacIntrye & Gardner, 1991; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Tremblay et al., 1995). The Socioeducational Model, as a well supported model, therefore, appears to provide a solid foundation for the development a more complex model such as the LPPC Model.

The Socioeducational Model, which Robert Gardner has been developing "since around 1960" (Gardner, 1985: 145), is based on Lambert's (1963) earlier social psychological model and Carroll's (1962) model, which was "concerned with simulating the relative predictability of achievement in a second language by variables such as aptitude, intelligence, motivation and opportunity to learn" (Gardner, 1985: 145). It was designed to incorporate the sociopsychological perspective into the study of second language acquisition, which emphasizes the importance of both affective factors and context in understanding second language acquisition phenomena.

Tremblay and Gardner (1994) describe the operation of the Socioeducational model in terms of dimensions and instruments. Two classes of variables are hypothesized to influence motivation:

> (i) "Integrativeness": an open and positive regard for other groups
> and for groups that speak the language; assessed by three measures
> from the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery [AMTB], including
> attitudes toward the Target Language Group, Interest in Foreign
> Languages, and Integrative Orientation.
> (ii) "Attitudes toward the Learning situation": assessed by two
> AMTB measures, including Attitudes toward the Language course,
> and Attitudes toward that language teacher.

Integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation have also been categorized as language attitudes (Gardner et al., 1987).

Of particular importance to assessing the applicability of the Socioeducational Model to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study is the fact that the Socioeducational Model shares a number of thematic similarities with most competing second language acquisition theories, including Krashen's (1982) Monitor Model, Carroll's (1981) Conscious Reinforcement Model, Schumann's (1978) Acculturation Model, Lambert's (1963) Social Psychological Model, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Model, Giles et al.'s (1982) Social Identity Theory, and Clément's (1980) Social Context Model.

Gardner (1985, p. 142) suggests (and I concur) that these similarities include:

(i) motivation - the Socioeducational Model assumes second language acquisition involves goal-directed, purposeful behaviour

(ii) the nature of motivation - the Socioeducational Model considers the situational context with a deliberate attempt to communicate material or acquire proficiency to facilitate communication (social motivation)

(iii) the social implications of Second Language Acquisition - in the Socioeducational Model, SLA implies changes to self-concept, world view, values, attitudes, etc.

(iv) linguistic process - in the Socioeducational Model, some language skills have different causes than others, and also are reflected in some assessments of proficiency more than others (language proficiency is not unitary)

Thus, the Socioeducational Model, in contrast to the other theories noted above, offers a more comprehensive perspective on second language acquisition. However, it does not appear capable of accounting for all aspects of the data analyzed in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, which included both student and teacher motivations, as well as situational and pedagogical issues. Therefore, the "nature of motivation" is expanded further in the Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study to include both student and teacher perspectives [see discussion, Section 1.2.1].

1.2.1 Testability

The issue of testability is a major concern of Gardner (1985). In developing the Socioeducational Model, Gardner and his colleagues have endeavoured to address this issue by making testability of theoretical constructs a goal. This focus on the scientific method and statistical testing is one of the main contributions of this model, both with respect to the goal of analysis of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, and arguably, to the field in general because testability influences choices of research methodology and design (e.g., use of Likert scale questionnaires because the items are easily replicable). The Socioeducational Model is a model that has withstood repeated testing under diverse situations, and to date, it appears able to account for much of the observed data (Gardner & Tennant, 1998), although, as noted above, not the diversity of focus in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study.

Gardner (1985) explains the advantage of testable theories, observing

> [Other second language acquisition] models are descriptive as opposed to predictive...[insofar as they account] for various empirical findings relating to the role of individual differences in second language acquisition...None of them, however, have been developed to the point where they could make unequivocal predictions and have their validity clearly tested...[They] offer many interesting insights which have distinct relevance to the language learning situation, and although they are often able to account for findings obtained in research, they generally lack the empirical foundation and link with measurement properties which permit such direct tests...These tests are necessary ...if the level of theory is going to be raised above that of descriptive models, and theoretical formulations must be much more precise and predictive if they are to be of use in formulating plans to improve second language learning (pp. 143-46)

According to Gardner, "the (Socioeducational model) has been formulated such that the major variables can be defined operationally and assessed" (Gardner, 1985: 145) [See Figure 1 (below)]. The variables in the LPPC model have been similarly defined, in part by incorporating and/or adapting questionnaire items from Gardner's Motivational Intensity, Desire to Learn the Language, and Attitudes toward Learning the Language

scales of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) and other well-tested instruments such as Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) [see Section 1.2.1.1].

Gardner also states

A major characteristic of the socio-educational model is that it has evolved in conjunction with research conducted to test aspects of it, and as a result the major variables underlying it have been the subject of many studies concerned with their identification and measurement (p. 145)

The desire to develop clearly operationalized definitions seen in the Socioeducational Model [Figure 1] is related to the main area of interest of the researchers: the role of motivation in second language acquisition. Adapting this framework to the factors of interest in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, motivation and attitude change are included under "perceptual change."

Motivational and attitudinal research has had a somewhat problematic history with respect to developing testable theories (Gardner, 1985). In Gardner (1985), motivation is defined as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner, 1985: 10). Gardner and Tremblay (1994) identify three components to motivation: (i) effort expended to achieve a goal (ii) a desire to learn the language, and (iii) satisfaction with the task of learning the language. In the majority of the motivational research, these three components are assessed with the Motivational Intensity, Desire to Learn the Language, and Attitudes toward Learning the Language scales of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Clément, Smythe & Smythe, 1979).

Additionally, by contrast to many other theories of second language acquisition, the Socioeducational Model also offers statistical support for the model itself (e.g., "goodness-of-fit"), which addresses the issue of lack of testability in the majority of second language acquisition theories. Gardner clearly illustrates the similarities and differences between his model and those mentioned above [see discussion - Gardner, 1985, p. 150]. Kraemer's (1993) version of Gardner's model, however, provides one of the more elaborated examples of the Socioeducational Model [see Figure 1 above].

In Kraemer's diagram, which represents the motivational and attitudinal variables influencing acquisition of Arabic in an Israeli second language context, the relationships between variables are indicated by the direction of arrows. The degree of strength of the relationship would be indicated by correlational data (as discussed previously). For
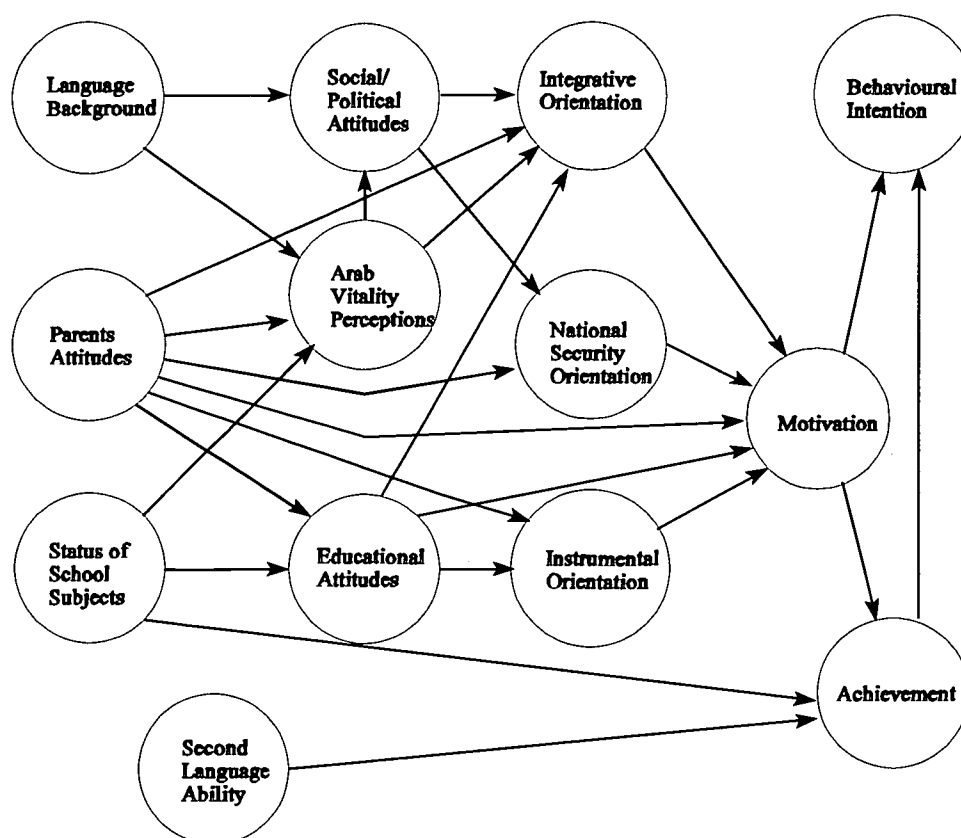
Figure 1   The Socioeducational Model (Kraemer, 1993). Reprinted with permission.

example, while second language ability correlated directly with achievement, the status of
school subjects influenced achievement both directly and indirectly through educational
attitudes, which influenced instrumental orientation, which influenced motivation, which
influenced achievement.

The Socioeducational model therefore can be seen to generalize to a number of
different contexts and to facilitate description of different influences on student
achievement. For example, Gardner and his colleagues have focussed primarily on FSL in
Canada. In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, student
motivation (integrative/instrumental) and attitudes towards the target language group,
language learning, the learning situation, and language use were assessed by responses to
student pre-course questionnaires based on AMTB-type items with a 5-point Likert scale
(described below). Developing a multidimensional format such as that illustrated in Figure
1 was also a goal in the construction of the LPPC model [see Figure 4, Section 1.7.1].

The testability of the Socioeducational Model is further supported by the
additional statistical analyses applied to the model itself. As noted above, the
Socioeducational Model has been analyzed using linear structural relations (LISREL or
AMOS) causal modelling, also known as path analysis, to develop and test the model
(Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner, 1985; Gardner et al., 1985;
Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994;
Kraemer, 1993; Lalonde & Gardner, 1993; MacIntrye & Gardner, 1991; Olshtain et al.,
1990; Ramage, 1990; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Tremblay et al., 1995).

According to Babbie (1992):

Path analysis is a causal model for understanding relationships between
variables. It is based on regression analysis, but it can provide a more
useful graphic picture of relationships among several variables than is
possible through other means. Path analysis assumes that the values on one
variable are caused by the values on another....Besides diagramming a
network of relationships among variables, path analysis also shows the
strengths of those...relationships. The strengths of relationships are
calculated from a regression analysis that produces numbers analogous to
the partial relationships in the elaboration model. These path
coefficients...represent the strengths of the relationships between pairs of

variables with the effects of all other variables held constant (p. 441).

Therefore, additional support for the decision to base the LPPC Model on the Socioeducational Model can be made based on the additional plausibility of a model which has been subjected to statistical analysis (Kraemer, 1993).

However, as noted previously, while the Socioeducational Model has been tested extensively using path analysis, the Socioeducational model itself does not adequately address the issues concerning linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program, without considerable modification. In addition, the modifications to the Socioeducational model suggested in this dissertation appear to have created a model which is currently too complex to be easily adapted to path analysis. Statistical testing of the model via path analysis is therefore currently beyond the scope of this research. Thus, while basing the LPPC model on the Socioeducational model offers the future possibility of testing the LPPC model by allowing multifactorial and multidimensional analysis within a statistically rigorous framework, the LPPC model itself will require further research before it can be tested statistically. Such research is beyond the scope of this (pilot) study.

1.2.1.1 The Socioeducational Model and the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study

Due to the focus on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, a number of methodological differences may be found by comparison with the majority of research done within the Socioeducational paradigm which attempts to identify factors which influence student achievement. Some similarities and differences between research on the Socioeducational model and the focus of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study (COAELI) are summarized below:

Table #1   Comparison of Models
Socioeducational Research   **COAELI Study**
Motivation   *Motivation (Perceptual change)*
- Attitudes towards language learning   - Attitudes towards language learning
- Attitudes towards language use   - Attitudes towards language use
- Attitudes towards target language group   - Attitudes towards target language group
- Attitudes towards target culture   - Attitudes towards target culture
* no   *Expectations (Pedagogical change)*
* no   - Attitudes about class roles
* no   - Attitudes about class activities
* no   - Attitudes about course goals
Sociocultural growth   *Sociocultural growth*
Language acquisition   *Linguistic change*
-   - Attitudes towards language learning
-   - Attitudes towards language use
-   - Fluency changes
Student achievement   *Student achievement*
* no   *Teacher achievement*
Hypothesized situational factors   *Class fit*

First, in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, participants completed both pre- and post-course questionnaires which included motivational and/or attitudinal measures, whereas in the Socioeducational paradigm, motivation and attitude are primarily measured only at the beginning of the study. In the Socioeducational Model the end focus is on achievement, not motivational or attitudinal change. The inclusion of teacher factors in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study is unique to this study. Although Gardner (1985) also suggests that it is advantageous to take measurements over time "so that temporal factors can help to determine the direction of causation" (p. 154-5), the use of pre/post-test measurements in Socioeducational research appears to have been limited primarily to measures of linguistic change (proficiency tests, etc.). By contrast, in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, in addition to measures of linguistic change based on analysis of student interview data, all but a few items relating to demographic information, integrative motivation, and previous knowledge of Canada and Canadians were present on both pre-course and post-course questionnaires. This comprehensive approach to change on a number of parameters in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study expands considerably the LPPC Model's ability to explain factors alluded to in the

Socioeducational Model, although as noted previously, these modifications have not been analyzed statistically.

In addition, motivation and attitudes are categorized in a slightly different manner in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study from Gardner's and others' research. In my study, different attributes of the variables motivation and attitude indicators are categorized as either *linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change* to differentiate autonomous, but potentially overlapping, processes. In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, most items which would be considered to measure motivation, such as #PR11[3] ("I came to Canada for a vacation"), and/or measures of attitudes, such as #PR21/PS3 ("I think Canadians are honest"), are categorized under *perceptual change* (in general), whereas attitudes towards language learning and use, such as #PR49/PS30 ("I think learning to speak English is (difficult))" and #(PR/54/PS34 ("I think speaking English to a shop clerk in a store will be (difficult)"), are considered under *linguistic change*, and attitudes towards learning situation fall under *pedagogical change*, such as #PR60/PS40 ("I think the teacher will want me to be polite").

Other examples of the categorization of motivational and/or attitudinal factors in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study include the following. Items concerning "motivation" were found primarily on the pre-course questionnaires (PR), and included #PR11 ("I came to Canada for a vacation"), #PR12 ("I came to Canada because I want to work in a job that requires English"), and #PR13 ("I came to Canada as a course requirement"). Attitudes towards the target language group (Canadians) were the focus of student pre-course (PR) and post-course (PS) questionnaire items (#PR19/PS1- #PR26/PS8), such as #PR19/PS1 ("I think Canadians are friendly") and #PR26/PS8 ("I think Canadians are similar to Japanese people").

Items concerning attitudes towards language learning (which appeared on both student and teacher questionnaires) included "I think learning languages is (difficult)" (on both student and teacher questionnaires), "I think learning English is (difficult)" (on

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[3]Pre-course questionnaire items (PR); Post-course questionnaire items (PS).

student questionnaire), "I think learning to read English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire), I think learning to write English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire), "I think learning to speak English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire), "I think learning to understand spoken English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire), and "I think learning languages is different than learning other subjects" (on teacher questionnaire).

The Socioeducational research has not used these categories because of the difference in focus(ses) noted previously. The inclusion of teacher responses to these areas is an innovation of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study to the Socioeducational research. It develops Gardner and Tremblay's (1995) suggestion of the need for more context analysis. This modification is also consistent with the very recent work of Oxford (1998) and Dornyei (1998) who have considered the role of the teacher in demotivation [see discussion, Section 1.4.2.2].

Attitudes and/or expectations concerning the classroom situation are also an area not adequately addressed in the Socioeducational research. They were investigated in the the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study as pedagogical change in the student questionnaire Section #8 (Perception of classroom roles - Items #PR60/PS40-PR65/PS45), which included #PR60/PS40 ("I think the teacher will want me to be polite") and #PR62/PS42 ("I think the teacher will want me to volunteer answers"). Section #9 (Perception of class activities - Items #PR66/PS46-PR73/PS53) of the student questionnaire includes items such as #PR66/PS45 ("I think the teacher will use music in class"), #PR68/PS48 ("I think the teacher will have us work in groups"), and #PR72/PS52 ("I think the teacher will give us homework").

As noted above, these "*pedagogical*" areas were also assessed on the teachers' questionnaires, with the interest in comparison of student and teacher expectations on issues such as "class fit" and "teacher achievement" [see discussion, Section 1.4.8]. For example, perceptions of classroom roles (also referred to as "successful student characteristics") were examined in Items #56-63, including Item #56 ("I believe a successful student will be/was one who volunteers answers"), Item #62 ("I believe a successful student will be/was one who consults with other students before answering"),

and Item #63 ("I believe a successful student will be/was one who competes"). In addition,
items concerning perceptions of classroom activities included Items#36-45, such as Item
#36 ("In this program, I expect to use/used music"), Item #37 ("In this program, I expect
to use/used games"), and Item # 40 ("In this program, I expect to use/used pair work").

The "nature of motivation" is therefore expanded in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama
English Language Institute study from that of the Socioeducational Model by examining
both student and teacher factors within a test/retest paradigm (Babbie, 1992).

1.2.3 Generalizability

Gardner and his colleagues (Gardner, 1985; Gardner et al., 1985; Gardner &
MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Kraemer, 1993;
Lalonde & Gardner, 1993; MacIntrye & Gardner, 1991; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995;
Tremblay et al., 1995) have also worked to develop and adapt the original
Socioeducational Model from one which focussed primarily on the French as a second
language acquisition context in Canada, to a model which is now much more generalizable
as illustrated previously in Figure 1 [Section 1.2.1].

Kraemer (1993) comments,

> The basic socioeducational model...is itself a particular case of a
> more general theory. The main question would seem to be the
> following: What is the essential core of the theory that we would
> expect to apply across widely differing contexts in order to support
> the generalizability of the model? The following four tenets appear
> to be essential to the generalizability of Gardner's model: (i) the
> importance of specific social context variables for second language
> study; (ii) the independent roles of cognitive and affective individual
> difference variables in second language achievement; (iii) the
> function of attitudes as supports for motivation rather than as direct
> influences on the language study outcomes; and (iv) the primary
> role of motivation in achieving both linguistic and nonlinguistic
> outcomes in the language learning process. (p. 84)

It has been used with such diverse subject populations as Israeli school children
(Kraemer, 1993) [See Figure 1, Section 1.2.1] and Canadian immigrants (Shapson et al.,
1981). This ability to generalize is specifically of interest to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama
English Language Institute study given the popularity of short-term intensive language

programs and study-abroad programs. In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, the specific social context is a short-term study-abroad program. The role of teacher and student cognitive and affective factors in linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change, and in perceptions of student and teacher achievement, are the primary variables of interest. Therefore, the Socioeducational Model provides useful background for this expanded area of research.

1.2.4 Limitations of the Socioeducational Model

The main limitations to the use of the current version of Socioeducational model in the description of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term or study-abroad context are based on the expanded focus of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, which includes linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. The fact that the general trend in motivational research has demonstrated a strong student-focus or bias, despite Gardner and Tremblay's (1994), and more recently, Gardner and Tennant's (1998) allusion to the need for work concerning "situational factors," and Gardner's (1985) assumption that the individual teacher can have a large impact on motivation and attitudes, has meant that these factors to do not fit easily into the current model. In addition, the inclusion of temporal factors [discussed in Section 1.6.7] in the description of the processes and context of the short-term language program is also problematic to the Socioeducational Model, which does not appear to adequately address this issue. Therefore, modifications to the Socioeducational Model are the basis of the LPPC model.

1.3 Factors in second language acquisition

A number of factors have been identified as influencing second language acquisition. These factors include language competences, communication strategies, learner strategies, and learning styles. Research pertaining to these factors will be discussed in this section.

1.3.1 Language competences

The recognition of distinct competences related to language proficiency is outlined by Canale and Swain (1980). Canale and Swain (1980) propose four competences to be

included in a definition of language proficiency. The definition of each competence and its relevance of each competence to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study is indicated in parenthetical comments as appropriate: grammatical competence (linguistic code, which is usually relatively high for Japanese students), sociolinguistic competence (degree to which utterances are produced and/or understood appropriately), discourse competence (combination of grammatical forms and meaning or pragmatic competence), and strategic competence (communication strategies, which are assessed with respect to need for elaborations and/or collaborations in interviews) (Andersen et al., 1990)[4]. The recognition of different competences is important to the study of short-term or study-abroad programs due to the fact that research has found considerable individual variation in achievement or change among participants (Freed, 1995a). In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study such variation may be found in student interviews where linguistic competence is indirectly measured in student interviews by measures such as inappropriate responses, incomplete responses, comprehension, success of interactions with native speakers, etc.

Findings emphasizing the large degree of individual variation in acquisition, both generally in second language acquisition (Ellis, 1989) and in the study-abroad context (Freed, 1995a), suggest that recognition of individual variation in areas of ability, and hence multiple areas of possible linguistic change, is necessary to the understanding of the type of change(s) that occurs in short-term intensive language programs and study abroad contexts. Canale and Swain's (1980) model, which is an expansion of Cummins (1979) who differentiates Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS, or the sociolinguistic aspects and oral fluency) and Cognitive-Academic Language Proficiency (CALP, or the general intelligence and cognitive skills related to academic skills) is also important since it proposes distinctions which are incorporated into much of the recent research on learning strategies and styles (Chaudron, 1988; McCarthy, 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Learning strategies and styles are examined in the Camosun Osaka

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[4] The importance of the four competences to a definition of language proficiency is extensively explored in Scarcella et al. (1990).

Aoyama English Language Institute study because despite factors such as motivation (integrative and instrumental - Ellis, 1989) having been included in the learning equation proposed by some researchers (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), individual character variables (or participant factors) have often been ignored.

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study examines both student and teacher variables, including student style, teacher style, student linguistic and pedagogical expectations, teacher pedagogical expectations, student extracurricular experience and teacher teaching experience. Items in both questionnaires and interviews also assess learner strategies [see discussion, Section 1.3.4]. Similar items concerning learner strategies were included on teacher questionnaires (i) to examine similarities and differences between student and teacher approaches to language learning and (ii) explore the implications of (i) with respect to issues such as "class fit."

"Class fit," which will be discussed in detail later [see discussion, Section 1.4.2.1], is defined here as the degree to which a cumulative aggregate, or "group," of students manifests a particular "style" (strategies, etc.) which is similar to, or compatible with, their or a particular teacher's style. The importance of this construct within the LPPC model is the role it is hypothesized to play in teacher perception of achievement or success. Research support for this concept is found in the Education literature of the late 1960s and 1970s regarding the influence of teacher/student perceptions of each other, Woods' (1996) research on the influence of teachers' "belief, attitudes, and knowledge" (BAK) on interpretations of classroom interactions, and results of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher questionnaire and interview data [see discussion, Section 4.1].

1.3.2 Communication strategies

The findings of Si-Qing (1990) are also of interest to the discussion of individual variation. He found variation between learners in the use of communication strategies, as did Lafford (1995), who discovered that study-abroad groups have larger repertoires of communicative strategies for initiating, maintaining, expanding, terminating a communicative situation than those limited to formal learning situations. For example, Si-

Qing found that the frequency, type and effectiveness of communication strategies used by learners also varied by proficiency level, and that language distance between learner's L1 and L2 was also found to influence communicative strategy use. As the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student subjects were understood to be primarily at the beginner level, as well as being speakers of Japanese (a language considered quite distant from English - Ellis, 1989), these findings are of particular interest as they suggest that the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students who were interviewed would show differing use of communicative strategies and abilities depending on their proficiency level.

Findings by Young (1995) on conversational styles in language proficiency interviews also highlight the influence of learner proficiency on a number of interview production phenomena. For example, he found differences by student level in the amount of talk and rate of speaking (advanced spoke more frequently and faster), in the extent of context dependence (advanced had more elaborations), and in ability to construct and sustain narratives (advanced did, intermediate did not). No differences were seen in the frequency of topic initiation, nor in reactivity to topics introduced by interviewers. Interestingly, interviewers were found to not vary their interviewing style with the two groups.

These insights both predict and suggest limitations to the use of interviews in data collection with limited English proficient students in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. In this study, students were assumed to be at approximately the same level (according to administration), therefore, comparison based on explicit differences of level were not possible. It should be noted, however, that interviewees were found to perform at different levels [see discussion, Section 3.2.1.4.1], although detailed individual comparisons of change were beyond the scope of this study due to the population size. Measures of linguistic change were also analyzed based on group results.

1.3.3 Learner strategies

The underlying assumption of learning strategy theory is that learning is facilitated by certain behaviours (Oxford, 1990). It is critical therefore to research on short-term or

study-abroad research that language acquisition or activation be considered the culmination of a multiplicity of different language use tasks which may be approached with differing levels of efficiency from the perspective of different learning strategies. Thus, in a short-term or study-abroad program, we might predict that specific strategies (by students) or techniques (by teachers) may influence course outcomes such as "class fit," or perceptions of success such as "achievement." For example, the strategy of making use of the relatively easily accessible native speaker contact available in a study-abroad program might be found to result in (or influence) the amount of positive (increased) linguistic change, whereas memorizing lists of words may not be as useful in this situation. Similarly, a teacher's choice to use one teaching technique (role play) rather than another (drills) in a study-abroad or short-term program may influence the strategies students use and/or the amount or type of linguistic or perceptual change observed. Strategy use could also interact with cognitive/learning styles (McCarthy, 1987) described below [Section 1.3.4] such that teachers and/or students with particular learning styles may show preferences for specific strategies, and therefore they may feel (or perceive) and/or demonstrate differing degrees of linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change.

The lists of strategies outlined in O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) (below) further illustrate the spectrum of behaviours attributed to second language acquisition. As described below, these categories were incorporated into the student questionnaires (Section #10 - Cognitive/learning style), with the expanded interpretation of learner strategies as having implications not only from the learner side of the equation, but also from the teacher side (teacher questionnaires Items #74-81 assess learning cognitive style) to test the hypothesis that teachers also have preferred learning styles, and that these preferences might influence perceptions and pedagogy and "class fit."

Oxford (1990) lists six different types of strategies, which she categorizes as either direct or indirect (p.17):

Direct Strategies
(1) Memory strategies: e.g., creating mental linkages, applying sounds and images, reviewing well, employing action. *An example of an item on the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute questionnaires*

addressing memory strategies is (#PR77/PS57): 'I think I learn best by memorizing words and/or lists'.

(2) Cognitive strategies: e.g., practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, creating structure for input and output. *An example of an item on the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute questionnaires addressing cognitive strategies is (#PR76/PS56): 'I think I learn best by writing out notes (e.g., organizing information)'.*

(3) Compensation strategies: e.g., guessing intelligently, overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

Indirect Strategies
(1) Metacognitive strategies: e.g., centering (one's own) learning, arranging and planning (one's own) learning, evaluating (one's own) learning

(2) Affective strategies: e.g., lowering anxiety, encouraging (self), taking emotional temperature

(3) Social strategies: e.g., asking questions, co-operating with others, empathizing with others . *An example of an item on the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute questionnaires addressing social strategies is (#PR79/PS59): 'I think I learn best by practicing with native speakers'; or (PR80/PS60): 'I prefer to study in a group'.*

Oxford (1990) further elaborates these categories by describing specific activities related to the more general category outlined above (pp.19-21). For example, memory strategies include reviewing well, structured reviewing, and/or condensing notes. Oxford's SILL, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (pp. 277-300), also provides a useful model (within her framework) for developing a "strategy profile" of students. She suggests that such profiles may enable teachers to ascertain whether their students are using the most "efficient" strategies for specific language learning tasks, and/or train students to use "efficient strategies."

These categories are of particular interest to this study. Items in both teacher and student questionnaires were designed to assess whether (i) these categories were meaningful in the short-term intensive language program context, and/or (ii) if any change occurred in strategies, which are typically viewed as relatively stable, over the duration of

the course.

Items concerning Memory strategies, Cognitive strategies and Social strategies were explicitly incorporated into the questionnaires. These specific categories were chosen as they appeared to be the most definitionally unambiguous categories, and therefore were believed to be the most accessible (or least likely to be misinterpreted) by participants completing questionnaires. By contrast, "taking one's emotional temperature" could be confusing to even native speakers!

1.3.4 Learning styles

A slightly different approach to the study of individual differences in the classroom is McCarthy's (1987) work on "learning styles." McCarthy's "learner styles" recognize different preferred modes or modalities of learning such as Type 1 ("The imaginative learner who functions by value clarification"), Type 2 ("The analytic learner who functions by thinking things through"), Type 3 ("The common sense learner who functions by gathering factual data from hands-on experiences"), and Type 4 ("The dynamic learner who functions by acting, testing and creating new experiences") (McCarthy, 1987: 37-43). According to McCarthy, only one of her four types, Type 2, seems particularly conducive to traditional classroom learning, while approximately 70% of students are not Type 2. However, the largest percentage of teachers in McCarthy's survey (31.1%) were Type 2, which does make sense since teachers were generally successful in school themselves. Such findings suggest some problems in student-teacher interactions and "class fit" may be related to teacher/student expectations (Chaudron, 1988). The influence of "teacher style" on classroom interactions is discussed in Section 1.4.2.

While more developed in some ways than many of the psychological dichotomies which have been introduced into second language acquisition research such as introvert-extrovert, integrative-instrumental motivation, field dependence-independence, etc. (Ellis, 1989), the "concreteness" or "testability" of many of the constructs proposed in McCarthy's work are problematic because her terminology and classifications are rather vague. For example, she does not indicate exactly how an orientation towards "values clarification" (Type 1) may be measured.

In general, the framework of learning styles appears to parallel the work on learner strategies, and therein it provides some additional insights into potential variation in learning and, arguably teaching styles, as described by Woods (1996) and others (Barkhuizen, 1998; Borg, 1998). In fact, the four Styles described above are relevant to the issue of differential proficiency or competences (Canale & Swain, 1984), and/or Cummins' (1979) BICS and CALP distinction. For example, while McCarthy's 'Type 2's (and maybe 'Type 3's) would be predicted to show a performance preference for CALP and its correlates, BICS-type abilities would seem more the domain of 'Type 4's and 'Type 1's. Therefore, these perspectives appear relevant to the discussion of teacher/student interactions, and student/teacher style interactions, or "class fit."

1.4 Teachers, learners and classroom interaction

The role of student and teacher expectations on second language acquisition has only recently become an area of interest (Chaudron, 1988; Barcelos, 1998; Barkhuizen, 1998; Borg, 1998; Oxford, 1998; Woods, 1996), however, the question of the influence of student and teacher expectations (both) on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program does not appear to have been adequately addressed. In this section, I will be proposing a construct of "teacher achievement" to co-exist with the more recognized "student achievement," and "class fit" to facilitate discussion of language learning in a more comprehensive manner within the proposed LPPC framework.

While the concept of teachers implicitly "importing" their own language learning strategies into the classroom is not new (McCarthy, 1987) as noted above, it has not received much focus in the second language acquisition literature. For example, Oxford's (1990) strategy assessment questionnaire (the SILL) is intended for language learners, so she does not address such factors as *teacher learning strategies and styles*. However, as will be discussed in this section, this lack of consideration of the role of the teacher in second language acquisition research is beginning to change, most recently with Woods' (1996) research on "teacher cognition," Oxford's (1998) analysis of "metaphors of teaching," Kassabgy, Boraie and Schmidt's (1998) study of teacher values, and Borg's

(1998) research on the influence of teachers' pedagogical systems on grammar teaching.

One reason for such oversight may be attributed to the complexity of the issues - both from the point of view of analysis and with respect to the construction of theories of language learning and language pedagogy. Arguably, it is simpler to address second language acquisition questions within either theories of language learning OR theories of language teaching. However, as Woods (1996) and Larsen-Freeman (1998) argue, it is important to develop a theory of language teaching and classroom interactions, as well. As noted earlier, we have sociopsychological theories such as the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985), or a modified version (the LPPC model), which attempt to assess relationships and directionality of relationships between large number of variables. They therefore appear to offer a foundation from which to begin to address both sides of the learning equation.

By contrast to the focus on student or individual learner characteristics in second language acquisition research, the issue of teacher perspectives and self-definition has not been a focus until very recently (Larsen-Freeman, 1998; Oxford, 1998; Oxford et al., 1998; Woods, 1998). However, "teacher factors" were examined quite extensively in the social psychological and educational literature in the 1970's and early 1980s [see discussion in Brophy and Good (1974)]. A number of these findings are also cited in the work of Woods (1996) and Oxford (1998). They will be discussed below.

The early research contributes a number of concepts of relevance to the development of a construct of "teacher achievement" and "class fit" in the LPPC model [Section 1.4.7]. These concepts include factors which may influence teachers' perceptions of their general efficacy or success in the classroom. These factors will be broadly categorized with respect to *teacher style* or teacher characteristics which Woods (1996) addresses, and *class style* or student group characteristics (rather than individual student characteristics)(Brophy and Good, 1974).

1.4.1 ESL Teachers: General Characteristics

ESL teachers appear to be a rather diverse group, appearing often to share a career interest and little else. They include different age groups, different socioeconomic groups,

cultural groups and even linguistic groups, although in Canada the majority appear to be native English speakers (Voth, 1993; Woods, 1996). According to Voth, ESL teachers also differ in amount of experience as teachers generally, type and amount of teacher training, student age and language levels taught, and/or cross-cultural experience.

For example, Voth (1993) found that 79% of ESL teachers in B.C.[5] were female, 19% were male, and the majority indicated English was their first language. By levels of post-secondary training, Voth found also that teachers' qualifications included: Bachelors of Arts (68.8%), Bachelors of Education (20%), Masters of Arts (17%), Diplomas (11.9%), Certificates (21.5%), Masters of Education (6.6%), and doctorates (6%). With respect to teaching experience, in Voth's survey, the range was from less than 1 month to 30 years, with a mean length of 8.625 years. To assess the extent to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers were typical of ESL teachers in B.C., items assessing demographic and educational background were included on the teacher questionnaires concerning age, gender, country of origin, family income, languages spoken, educational level, and teaching qualifications.

With respect to ages taught and preferred levels, Voth's results show the majority of ESL teachers worked with adults (61%), at College/University (33%), or Grades 9-12 (18%), while 16% worked with Grades 7-8, and 18% in K-6. In addition, proficiency levels taught by teachers in Voth's survey included Beginner (62%), Low intermediate (63%), Intermediate (55%), High Intermediate (58%), and Advanced (48%).
In addition, rating high priority language skills (e.g., focus of classroom teaching), Voth's subjects chose the following skills: teaching speaking (87%), teaching listening (82%), teaching reading (77%), teaching writing (76%), Communicative language teaching (67%), teaching grammar (57%), grouping students (56%), language and content (55%), cultural awareness (52%), evaluation (42%), establishing routines (39%), testing (32%), and curriculum design (42%). Items assessing preferred level and age of students, and expectations concerning focus (language development and practice), and areas of

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[5]Based on a survey of the B.C. Teachers of English as an Additional Language (BCTEAL) membership.

emphasis were also included in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher questionnaires, for example, "I think the goals of this program are language development" and "In this program, I believe I will emphasize fluency."

While Voth's categories do not coincide exactly with the focus taken by the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher questionnaire[6], he did find what might be termed a preference for experiential learning. For example, his subjects rated most highly "practical, hands-on" activities in teacher training such as observing experienced teachers (79.8%), workshops (70%), practice teaching (70%), reflecting on teaching experience (67%), and demonstrations (63%). By contrast, what may be termed more academically/theoretically oriented tasks were rated less highly: e.g., individual work (56%), reflecting on a personal L2 learning experience (54.9%), curriculum development (52%), group discussions (50%), problem solving (47%), Q&A sessions (41.9%), observing peers (41%), simulations (38%), pair work (37%), observing videos (28%), microteaching peers (27%), action research (24%), lectures (20%) , journals (13%), plenaries (9%), panel discussions (9%), and team teaching (0%).

Due to the difference in focus between Voth's study (e.g., the influence of teacher training on teacher preferences), and that of Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, only minor overlap in item selection occurred. However, Voth's study provides a detailed description of the larger population of ESL teachers in British Columbia from which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study teacher population is drawn, and therefore it provides a possible source of comparison for examination of the generalizability of these results to other ESL teacher populations.

Finally, items assessing preferred language learning strategies were also incorporated into the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher questionnaires to compare differences in approach or attitudes towards language learning and use between teachers and students. Voth's study, however, did not include students.

1.4.2 Teacher style or teacher characteristics

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[6]He shows more similarity to Woods' (1996) research.

Evidence for the existence of a "teaching style," and/or the influence of "teaching style" on classroom interaction, is remarkably difficult to find in the second language pedagogy literature - although anecdotal evidence abounds (Woods, 1996). Many researchers have used the term "teaching style" (Barcelos, 1998; Larsen-Freeman, 1998, Oxford ,1998), but few have operationalized this term. In this section, I will discuss the research supporting the existence of a construct "teaching style," and the implications of this factor on "class fit."

1.4.2.1 Class fit = Peas in a pod...?The similarity factor

While some researchers have examined student and/or teacher styles and/strategies in isolation, little second language acquisition research has focussed specifically on the interaction of student style and teacher style, although Woods' (1996) results touch on the subject, and Oxford's (1998) student-extracted metaphors of teaching imply the existence of such differences. By contrast, a considerable body of research from the 1970s and 1980s in the fields of Education, Psychology, and/or Social Psychology on this topic suggests a strong tendency for students to prefer working with teachers who share their style, strategies, and/or pedagogical orientations, and for teachers to prefer working with students who share their style, strategies, and/or orientations. For example, teachers who were allowed to select students based on the students' suitability to the teachers' goals and philosophies tended to like their students more and gave higher grades (Thelen, 1960, cited in Brophy & Good, 1974), and in-service teachers who were trained in a style like their preferred style thought the course was worthwhile (versus worthless if trained in a different style) (Rubin, 1971, cited in Brophy & Good, 1974).

Further support for the "like-to-like" aspect of what I term "class fit" [Section 1.4.7] includes findings that students with high control needs and/or high anxiety levels preferred more structured (high control) teachers than students with low control needs who preferred more student-centred classes (Feitles, Wiener and Blumbey, 1970, cited in Brophy & Good, 1974). Another set of findings concerned "convergent" and "divergent" thinking students and teachers. In general, convergent thinkers preferred convergent teachers, who they saw as more goal-directed, and who encouraged competitiveness (and

vice versa), whereas divergent thinkers preferred divergent teachers, who were seen as having greater diversity of interest and teaching more democratically by divergent students (and vice versa). Thus, in general, students rated most highly the teacher with the same bias as themselves (Joyce & Hudson, 1968; Yamamoto, 1964 - all cited in Brophy & Good, 1974).

The dimension of introversion and extroversion (Jones, 1971, cited in Brophy & Good, 1974) also demonstrated a "similarity" bias: introverted students preferred introverted teachers and vice versa, and extrovert with extrovert (and vice versa). In fact, Brophy and Good (1974) conclude that teacher preferences appear to influence teacher behaviour to such an extent that "matching self-expectations/teaching goals with school programs may be a more viable alternative than attempting to train teachers to be able to perform all behaviours and be all things to all students" (p.314).

The issue of the difficulty a teacher could encounter attempting to "teach to all students" is also emphasized in recent research by Kassabgy, Boraie, and Schmidt (1998). Based on the responses of 1500 Egyptian adults to questionnaire items on a 6-point Likert scale with positive questions, their results suggest, first, that there is no one standard interpretation for any given teacher behaviour, and secondly, students' learning profiles (style, strategies, etc.), influenced which techniques they found to be motivating (i.e., indicating individual differences). Barkhuizen's (1998) research with student perceptions of teaching techniques also supports this belief. He found that teachers were frequently quite wrong about which activities students found most motivating (or not).

Kassabgy, Boraie, and Schmidt (1998) interpret their findings to indicate the existence of three dimensions of EFL motivation for learners (expectancy, goal orientation and affect) and to support the perspective that a student's motivation for learning will influence their preference or reaction to specific teacher behaviours (i.e., not all teachers
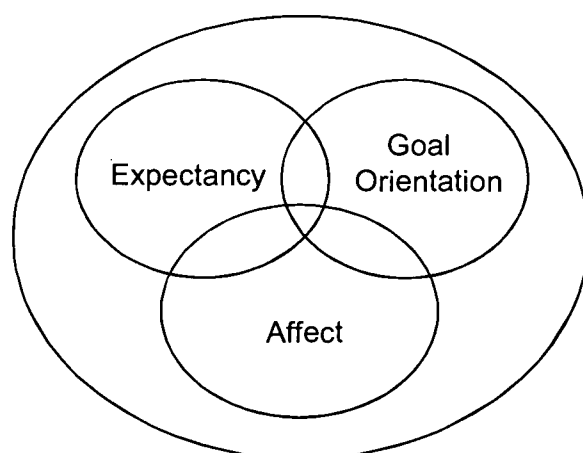
Figure 2   The Teacher Values Model (Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy, 1996). Reprinted with permission.

will influence or be influenced in the same manner). The relationship of these factors are illustrated in their model in Figure 2, which is much simpler in design than the Socioeducational model discussed previously [see Figure 1, Section 1.2.1].

For example, Kassabgy, Boraie, and Schmidt found that a highly "anxious" (adult Egyptian) student typically did not like role plays or a focus on fluency, but s/he did want correction. In addition, a student showing a high orientation towards "integration" appeared to prefer writing in groups, games, puzzles, and problem-solving. Finally, another interesting finding, which may be culture-specific (exam focus), was that if students expected to succeed, they tended to focus on errors and review, whereas if students expected to fail, they tended to prefer role play, use of picture descriptions, and they liked to speak freely without correction.

Although these findings may reflect to a considerable extent the Egyptian context where passing exams is the primary reason for taking EFL courses Kassabgy, Boraie, and

Schmidt (1998), the general implication appears to be that student motivation(s) can strongly influence their preference for specific classroom activities and/or teaching techniques, not only achievement as the Socioeducational Model would predict (Gardner, 1985). We may extrapolate from this finding that the degree to which these student preferences are indulged or realized may also influence the student(s) enjoyment of the class, personal feelings of achievement and motivation, and/or attitude and/or behaviour towards the teacher and classroom. In other words, student preferences for specific class activities or techniques may influence the degree to which linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change is positive. This issue is explored in this dissertation.

Oxford (1998) and Dörnyei (1998) approach this question of style and motivation from a slightly different angle, although their findings are quite comparable. They both have (independently) recently focussed on the influences that may cause students to become *demotivated,* including teacher factors. Dörnyei (1998) differentiates demotivation from what he refers to as "amotivation" (or apathy). He states that demotivation is "more than lack of motivation...it is when learner-external environmental stimuli cancel out existing motivation." The latter term, amotivation, refers to the ongoing absence of motivation (for language learning), whereas the former, demotivation, refers to a process where a learner's initial motivation has declined. In other words, demotivation may be a result of teacher influence on student(s) (participant factors), as well as other situational variables. In terms of the LPPC model, demotivation could result in negative linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change, and/or low(er) levels of student and/or teacher achievement.

In Oxford's study, she asked 250 students to describe situations where they experienced conflict with a teacher, or a teacher who made them feel uncomfortable, or less motivated. In her analysis, she identified four key themes:

Theme 1: the teacher's personal relationship to the student(s)
=>demotivating behaviours included lack of caring, general belligerence, hypercriticism, patronage/favouritism

Theme 2: teacher's attitude with respect to the course or material
=> demotivating behaviours included lack of enthusiasm, sloppy

management, close-mindedness

Theme 3: style conflicts between teachers and students
=>demotivating behaviours included *multiple style conflicts* [my emphasis], conflicts about amount of structure or detail, conflicts about degree of closure or 'seriousness' of class

Theme 4: nature of classroom activities
=> demotivating behaviours included irrelevance, overload, and/or repetitiveness

Therefore, Oxford's findings (especially "Theme 3") appear to explicitly (i) support the perceived existence of teacher and student styles, and (ii) attribute demotivation (or negative perceptual change, and possibly negative linguistic and/or pedagogical change) to clashes between teacher(s) and student(s) styles (arguably, lack of "class fit"). In addition, Oxford's examples suggest that "teacher style" is defined substantially based on teacher behaviours such as class activities and techniques (what the teacher does), rather than theoretical perspectives (what the teacher thinks), although the two may be related.

Dörnyei's (1998) findings of demotivating factors parallel Oxford's to a considerable extent, again emphasizing the role of "teacher factors" (such as personality, competence, teaching method) and arguably, "class fit" (such as attitudes of group members). The factors which Dörnyei identifies (based on interviews with students in Hungary) include both participant and situational factors. Participant factors include the teacher (personality, competence, teaching method); reduced self-confidence (experience of failure or lack of success); negative attitude toward L2; compulsory nature of L2 study; interference of another foreign language being studied; negative attitude toward L2 community; attitudes of group members. Situational factors include inadequate school facilities (group too big/small, level, frequent change of teachers) and course book[7].

Thus, both studies directly or indirectly support the potential influence of teacher style on student attitudes and motivation, such that demotivation may be considered an

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[7]Interestingly, a number of these factors were also identified by teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study as demotivating.

example of what I have termed "negative perceptual change." As noted above, within the LPPC model, such negative change could arguably lead to low(er) student (and teacher) perceptions of achievement.

In fact, as will be demonstrated in this dissertation, the LPPC Model may provide a framework able to address many of these factors concurrently (although this is beyond the scope of the dissertation). Specifically, it could help to identify motivating factors, and perhaps clarify what makes specific situations motivating or demotivating (as related to the definition of teacher achievement and student achievement) including factors such as class fit, teacher style, etc., as well as providing framework for testing the effects of specific "demotivating" teacher behaviours on different groups of students and levels of achievement.

1.4.3 Teacher styles/qualities and effects on student behaviour

Related to the research described previously are studies concerning the influence of specific "teacher qualities" or style on specific different learner types. Some teacher qualities which have been investigated include task-orientation (which was found to better if students were very positive or negative) versus relationship-oriented (if students were moderate) (Fiedler, 1973, cited in Brophy & Good, 1974), and types of leadership (authoritarian, democratic (best), laissez-faire (worse)) (Lewin, Lippitt & White, 1939, cited in Brophy & Good, 1974). Teacher "type" has also been compared with student types including the "teacher types" described as "well-integrated" (self-controlled), "weakly integrated" (fearful), or "turbulent" (defensive), with the student types which included "conformer," "striver," "opposer," "waverer." The researchers found that "well-integrated" teachers were best with all student types, "weakly integrated" were the worst, and "turbulents" were good with "strivers" and "conformers" (Heil, Powell & Feifer, 1960, cited in Brophy & Good, 1974). Although these particular characteristics, many of which are rather ambiguously described, are not of direct interest to this study because they would not aid in the identification of "class fit," the number of studies which have found a relationship between teacher style or characteristics and student type or characteristics also provide support for the existence of a relationship which might be called "class fit."

Oxford et al. (1998) have recently examined how students categorize teachers by analyzing "metaphors of teaching." These metaphors of teaching relate to the following: style; role, position or status; control and social distance; and emotional response or affinity seeking behaviour. The metaphors also correspond to the research on "problem ownership" (Gordon, 1970 cited in Brophy and Good, 1974) [discussed in Section 1.4.4]. Oxford et al.'s (1998) metaphors include:

(i) Strong teacher control - teacher as manufacturer, competitor, judge, doctor,
(ii) Shared teacher/student control - teacher as gardener, caregiver, counsellor
(iii) Strong student control - teacher as delegator, abdicator

The metaphors, based on student perspectives, further support the perspective that different teachers have different "personalities" or "styles," and that different students want different things from their teachers, and therefore they provide a rationale for the description and inclusion of two factors Teacher Style (Tstyle) and Student Style (Sstyle) in the LPPC model, as well as providing support to the development and description of a construct "class fit."

1.4.4 Construction of ideology: Attribution theory

The construction of "ideology" or beliefs has also been discussed within the context of attribution theory (Weiner et al., 1971, cited in Levine & Wang, 1983), which I consider to be a counterpoint, or perhaps complement/extension, to motivational research insofar as it begins to address the WHY questions not specifically addressed by the motivational research, and as such may provide additional depth to the understanding of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. For example, attribution theory seeks to explain why in a given situation one individual feels successful (glass half full) and others do not (glass half empty). As will be elaborated below, these insights are of considerable interest to the definition of "teacher achievement" because of a general lack of external indicators available for teachers to measure success (unlike student grades which are often used as measures of student achievement). As well, it has been argued that use of grades or other performance-based measures as the only measure of student success or achievement may be limited insofar as externally determined success may not coincide

with internal perceptions of success (Brecht et al., 1995), and therefore, they are arguably not valid measures (Babbie, 1992).

Attribution theory (Ames, 1983) looks at how individuals construct or explain (to themselves) personal successes and failures. For example, one student could attribute failure on a test to the phases of the moon (or external factors), instead of internal factors such as a lack of preparation. From the perspective of teacher achievement, therefore, such attributions potentially explain when and why a teacher decides they have been successful or not with a particular activity, student, class or course. Ames states:

> After attempting to teach something to students, teachers receive feedback about the effectiveness of their behaviour in the form of the students' actual performance, their own self-assessment, and/or formal or informal evaluation from students...a *teacher's response to positive or negative feedback is a function of his/her explanations for the causes of that feedback* [my emphasis] (1983: 105)

In other words, the teacher's perception of the success of an event (and arguably their feelings of success or failure) is influenced by how they explain the event to themselves (i.e., internal reasons).

Ames suggests teachers can be categorized as attributing either high or low value to specific skills or behaviours. He states that for high value teachers, their teaching acts are seen as being strongly related to student performance. He also suggests that high value teachers' key beliefs are (i) teaching is important activity, (ii) teachers engage in intentional acts to produce positive outcomes, and (iii) student success is generally feasible given the situational aids and constraints. In other words, for Ames, perceptions of success are seen as the result of the teacher having tried hard, and thus failure would be attributed to the teacher not having tried hard enough (teacher-focus). The high value teachers assume responsibility for both positive and negative student performance. By contrast, low value teachers may either take responsibility for positive results (or not), and will attribute student failure to the student/situation (i.e., external factors).

In addition, within a value-belief framework for attributions, it is suggested that the particular attribution pattern elicited depends on (i) the situational context, (ii)

consistency of information about teacher and student behaviour, and (iii) the value priorities of individual teachers. In other words, like Dörnyei (1998), Ames appears to identify participant and situational factors as key influences on attributions. Thus, in Ames view if teachers value a particular teaching activity, they would be more likely to consider their role as influencing student behaviour if students do badly. In other words, according to the different values they hold, teachers may look for different cues and feedback in order to derive feelings of efficacy (or teacher achievement) in the classroom. Therefore, if, as Ames argues, teachers' values mediate their interpretations and responses to classroom events, then the same (student) behaviour and performance may be expected to elicit different attributions and responses from different teachers (i.e., different levels of teacher achievement). For example, a teacher who highly values presentation skills (rather than interpersonal relations) may react more negatively (literally or perceptually) to students falling asleep in class, criticism of the clarity of information, or students' failure to learn presented material, than to student comments concerning a lack of warmth, or the teacher's failure to create friendships with students (Ames, 1983). According to Ames, to a teacher who highly values interpersonal relations, criticism of the clarity of information would have less effect on the teacher's feelings of achievement than comments concerning a lack or warmth, or the teacher's failure to create friendships with students. The latter comments would have strong negative effects. These "attributions" therefore have specific application in the definition of teacher achievement: success in the particular skills, focus(ses), etc., that a teacher values highly would be seen as achievement, and failure (by students) on these valued areas would be interpreted as personal failure; whereas success or failure on low value areas would be not "taken as seriously," or as personally.

Attributional judgements are also hypothesized to be functions of both a teacher's personal value hierarchy and the situational context (Ames, 1983; Woods, 1996). According to Ames, teachers can make use of (i) performance data (such as positive or negative student(s) success, and positive and negative teacher evaluation of their own teaching), as well as (ii) situational aids or constraints (such as access to AV, large class

size). In terms of the LPPC model, these factors correlate to "teacher expectations" and "teacher/student interactions" in the learning context.

Ames states:

An analysis of attributions for teaching acts appears important because teaching is viewed as an intentional act to bring about learning [student success]. Thus, teaching acts can be considered manifestations of an effort-related strategy to produce a desired outcome...even though the act and outcome are...linked, the teacher could be asked for independent explanations for his or her performance and for results of [student exams] (Ames, 1983: 183)

In Gordon's (1970) terms (cited in Brophy and Good, 1974), attributions may also been seen as a form of ownership. In other words, the type of problem will influence the reaction and/or perception of the event. His categories of ownership include teacher-based (or owned) problems, teacher/student shared (owned) problems, and student (owned) problems. Teacher owned problems occur when student behaviour interferes with teachers meeting their own needs, including hostile aggressive students (bully), passive aggressive students who make messes to get attention, underachieving students, or defiant students. Student/teacher shared problems occur when the two individuals interfere with each other's needs, such as failure syndrome students who could be capable, but describe themselves as stupid, hyperactive students, distractible students, shy/withdrawn students, or immature students. Finally, student-owned problems exist separately from the teacher, such as students rejected by peers, perfectionist students, or low achieving students.

The concept of "ownership" provides a framework to address variable findings in accounts of, for example, differential teacher behaviours in the face of student failure (or success). In other words, a teacher's perception/belief/attribution of the cause and degree of personal responsibility with respect to a particular event or behaviour may influence whether it is interpreted as success or failure, which is a key factor in the construction of "teacher achievement." This concept of ownership also appears to be analogous to Oxford's (1998) concept of "teacher control" as illustrated in the metaphors suggested: strong teacher control (teacher as manufacturer, competitor, hanging judge, doctor, preacher, conduit, repeater), shared teacher/student control (teacher as gardener, care-

giver, counsellor, lover, spouse, scaffolder, coach, entertainer, co-learner), and strong student control (teacher as delegator, abdicator) [also see Section 1.4.2]. This issue is also addressed in Woods (1996) within a cognitive framework [discussed in Section 1.4.6].

Frieze (1981, cited in Levine and Wang, 1983) offers a slightly different terminology, and findings with greater behaviourial involvement. He suggests that variations in teacher attributions based on ownership are based on perception of locus, and therefore they are important in distinguishing teachers' attributions about differing student behaviours from their attributions of their own involvement in the onset and remediation of those student behaviours. These locus include controllability, intentionality, causality, stability, and globality. In Frieze's framework, for example, teachers' perceptions of their own efficacy when dealing with difficult students varies with ownership, such that teacher-owned problems are seen as least likely to change, and student owned most likely to change. He states that teachers attribute controllability and intentionality to students presenting teacher-owned problems, and indicate low expectations for promoting stable and global changes. As a result, their classroom strategies were more punitive (short-term control desist). With teacher/student shared problems, teachers showed mixed controllability attributions, but no intentionality. In other words, they believed they were capable of effecting stable, specific change, and therefore, they acted less punitively, offering more praise and effecting long-term behaviour modification. Finally, when confronted with student-owned problems to which teachers attributed uncontrollability and unintentionality to students, the most hopeful expectations of change were found (Frieze, 1981). As a result of these attributions, teachers offered encouragement and support, with the focus on long term mental health goals.

Therefore, Frieze's research provides further support for the influence of teacher perceptions or interpretations of student behaviour on teacher behaviour. These findings also identify possible factors motivating "pedagogical change" in the LPPC model.

1.4.5 Influence of teacher belief systems

The existence and influence of teacher belief systems is one aspect of teacher

perspective to have recently gained attention in second language acquisition research (Barcelos, 1998; Barkhuizen, 1998; Borg, 1998; Ellis, 1998; Kassabgy, Boraie & Schmidt, 1998; Larsen-Freeman, 1998; Olshtain, 1998; Oxford et al., 1998; Voth, 1993; Woods, 1996). Borg (1998) comments,

> In the last 15 years educational research has provided ample support for the assertion that teachers' classroom practices are determined to a substantial degree by their personal pedagogical belief systems...however "the unique filter through which second language teachers make instructional decisions, choose instructional materials, and select certain instructional practices over others" (Johnson, p. 440) is still relatively unexplored. (p. 9)

Voth (1993) refers explicitly in his thesis to *teacher learning style*, which he defines as "training experiences and activities compared to percentage of subjects who had a high preference for indicated experience or activity" (p. 69). Borg (1998) suggests teachers have complex interacting beliefs about teaching, their "pedagogical system" which includes "beliefs about students, themselves [teachers' self-perceptions], the subject matter being taught, teaching and learning, curricula, the teacher's role, materials, classroom management, and instructional activities" (p. 28). In addition, Larsen-Freeman (1998) and Olshtain (1998) have emphasized the importance of ideology in second language teaching, although they do not clearly define the terms or the influences.

Other research concerning the development or influence of teacher beliefs or ideology includes early research on teacher belief systems such as that of Oswald and Broadbent (1972, cited in Brophy & Good, 1974) which appears to show that ideology leads to specific teacher behaviour, and therein to positive or negative student reactions or performance. Specifically, Oswald and Broadbent found that teachers with a more concrete belief system were said to be more extreme and absolute, less flexible in beliefs and attitudes, high on platitudes and normative statements, ethnocentricism, religiosity, and they tended to restructure curriculum to be more teacher-centred, teach more directly, engage in more teacher talk, take more time to introduce (open) activities, and attribute student success to teacher efforts, as well as - or perhaps because of - a belief that students must be made or forced to learn.

By contrast, teachers with more abstract orientations or belief systems were found to be more individual and relativistic, and more aware of complexity of issues. More abstract teachers were seen by students as warm, perceptive of students wishes, more flexible and encouraging of individual responsibility. Oswald and Broadbent also found abstract teachers more likely to adapt behaviour relative to the nature of the lesson, provide more positive comments on open activities, and obtain good performances from students. Interestingly, however, they also suggest that in general, more people at that time (late 60s) tended towards a concrete belief orientation. Therefore, Oswald and Broadbent's results make a specific connection between ideology, behaviour, and student perceptions.

In summary, the research reviewed in this section appears to provide support for the existence of "teacher style," as well as providing criteria relevant to the identification of attributes of "teacher style." However, none of these studies have provided a clear framework which can both describe "teacher style" and/or examine interactions influencing the development and/or manifestation of this phenomenon.

1.4.6 Woods (1996) and the BAK

Woods (1996), who has to date offered one of the most extensive examinations of the issue of the influence of teacher beliefs, attitudes and knowledge on teacher behaviour and interpretations, provides a comprehensive definition of factors that will be considered relevant to the definition of "teacher style" in this dissertation. He suggests the term "BAK" (beliefs, attitudes, knowledge") to capture the complex, interwoven aspects of the factors which appear to inform teacher perception and behaviour. For Woods, the term "BAK" represents an aggregate of beliefs, attitudes and knowledge, which he suggests can not be easily or accurately separated in description or influence.

Woods states that he is proposing "yet another [term]...not...to add to the distinctions that have been made...but rather to reduce them....to propose an inclusive rather than exclusive concept" (p. 196). He explains,

> [he] was drawn to the term [proposed] because it is difficult to use
> syntactically - it is hard to know whether the acronym 'BAK' should be
> used as a count noun (like belief) or a non-count noun (like knowledge).

> This syntactic ambiguity is consistent with the teachers' verbalizations,
> where the concept appears sometimes as separate discrete items and
> sometimes as a non-discrete flow (Woods, 1996: 196)

This reduction, or creation of an aggregate, appears to be useful to the description of processes in the LPPC model, because it allows the possible reduction of a large number of individual attributes and/or factors influencing linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change into one superordinate construct, which may still be decomposed into its constituent attributes to identify specific areas of influence in any specific context.

Woods describes a number of characteristics and/or factors identified in the teachers' BAKs he studied. These factors include the interwoven nature of beliefs, assumptions and knowledge, and thematic interrelationships in BAK. For example, one teacher's BAK included the following network of relationships: the relationship of motivation to success in learning, relationship of responding to individual student needs to success in achieving motivation, the relationship of an individualized course to success in responding to individual student needs, the relationship of a needs analysis to success in giving an individualized course, and the relationship of learner independence to success in doing the needs analysis. For Woods, BAK is also a dynamic concept because BAKs may evolve or change over time. Factors involved in this evolution may include early language learning experiences, early teaching experiences and/or teacher education, later language learning and teaching experiences, and/or current teaching experiences.   According to Woods, incongruities between current BAKs and specific experiences may result in "hotspots." How an individual resolves such "hotspots" will influence the shape and composition of the new (or modified) BAK.

A summary of Woods' model is presented in Figure 3 (below). The model incorporates a planning or teaching cycle (action/event, understanding/interpretation, planning), as well as background knowledge structures (BKS) and belief systems (BS). Background knowledge structures include what I will refer to in this study as *pedagogical expectations* or knowledge (e.g., knowledge of plans, knowledge of goals, knowledge of relevant contexts) and *cultural/linguistic expectations* (e.g., knowledge of culture, knowledge of language and knowledge of scripts). Belief systems include theories of

language, language teaching and language learning, as well as other personal beliefs.

Within the context of the BAK system, BKS and BS are hypothesized to influence how teachers interpret class events, and therefore to influence their reactions and understanding. As noted above, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study examines a number of these factors, although under slightly different conditions and using a modified terminology which is developed below.

By comparison with Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy's (1996) model [Figure 2, Section 1.4.2.1], Woods' model is more elaborated in its description of "teacher factors" in the ESL classroom. Unfortunately, it is more descriptive than predictive (i.e., less testable). It is therefore of less theoretical use than a model such as Gardner's (1985) Socioeducational model [Figure 1, Section 1.2.1]. However, as noted in Section 1.2.4, the Socioeducational model does not yet address the interaction of both teacher and

A/E = Action/Event
U/I = Understanding/Interpretatioı
P = Planning

KP KG KW KC KL KS KRC

BKS = Background Knowledge Structures   BS = Belief Systems

KP = Knowledge of Plans
KG = Knowledge of Goals
KW = Knowledge of the World
KC = Knowledge of the Culture
KL = Knowledge of the Language
KS = Knowledge of the Scripts
KRC = Knowledge of Relevant Contexts
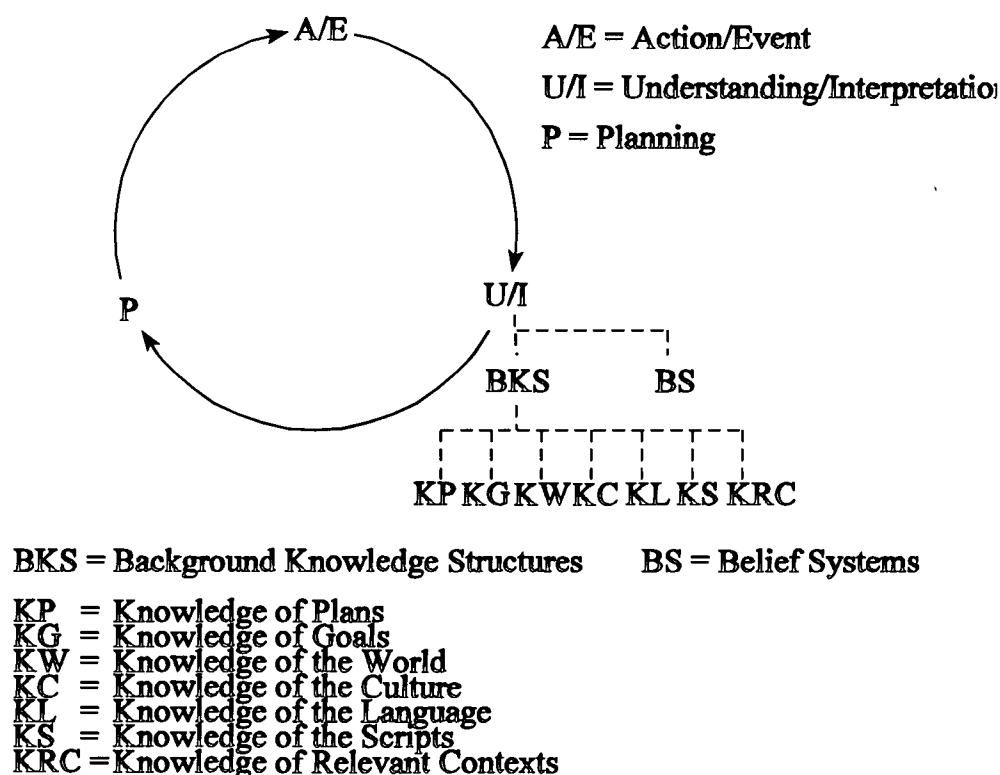
Figure 3   Woods' BAK Model (Woods, 1996). Reprinted with permission.

student factors in language acquisition.Therefore, the LPPC model provides a link

between these models by incorporating the underlying principles in both the

Socioeducational model and Woods' BAK model.

Woods asserts that an individual's BAK influences their interpretation of both

classroom events and the curriculum. He suggests:

> The most pronounced characteristic of the underlying BAK network...is its
> pervasiveness...not only in terms of the frequency of occurrence in [his]
> interviews, but also in the effect it has on the teachers' organization of
> thoughts, decisions, and aspects of the course...[although] there were
> certainly contradictions in the teachers' remembering facts...[and] what
> teachers said they did and what they actually did....when a decision was
> considered, it was considered in the context of the BAK, and when it was
> remembered later it was also remembered in the context of the BAK
> (Woods, 1996: 247)

This concept then of BAK appears to capture the overlapping components of the

Socioeducational Model' s attitudes and motivations, while explicitly focussing on

teachers, an area which (as noted above) the Socioeducational model (Gardner, 1985) has

not. It also addresses the research on attributions and beliefs. "BAK" appears to provide

further support for the concept of "teacher style," as well as offering a construct which

may be further modified for students or "student style".

Woods describes BAK as a unique characteristic of each teacher:

> Each teacher has an individual system of interwoven beliefs, assumptions,
> and knowledge, a system which has evolved in an individual and organic
> fashion when aspects of the teacher's BAK have interacted with experience,
> especially experiences that have resulted in a conflict with the BAK's
> current state. As a result, each teacher's system differs from other teachers'
> not only in terms of its individual 'components', but also in terms of the
> interrelationships among the beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (Woods,
> 1996: 248)

For Woods, the primary implication of the BAK concept is that it addresses the

fact that traditional "categorizing teachers into pre-determined groups hides the dynamic

aspects of BAK, and oversimplifies our understanding of the concept and the process of

teacher and curricular change" (p. 248).

In the analysis of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the Camosun

Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, the term "BAK" offers additional possibilities (as noted above). While Woods applies the term BAK specifically to teachers (their perceptions or interpretations of the success of teaching activities), I will argue that the term "BAK" provides a comprehensive and inclusive construct for concepts which underlie the influence of motivation and attitudes on language learning and language pedagogy, and with minor modifications, it can be useful as a superordinate variable (or higher level aggregate) in the discussion and analysis of (i) the influence of student beliefs, attitudes and knowledge (Student BAK, or SBAK) on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change, (ii) the influence of teacher beliefs, attitudes and knowledge (teacher BAK, or TBAK) on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change, (iii) the influence of the cumulative SBAKs in a class or group (class BAK, CBAK), and (iv) the interaction of student beliefs, attitudes and knowledge and teacher beliefs, attitudes and knowledge in the second language classroom.

The modifications proposed for the BAK construct reflect an extension of the term for the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study context, which appears consistent with the literature on attributions and values discussed previously (Sections 1.4.3 and 1.4.4). To clarify this modification, I will use the term TBAK+ to distinguish my definition from Woods' (1996) definition. First, I am expanding the concept to explicitly include

> (i) *Teacher style (Tstyle)* - an aggregate of training (Ttraining), gender (Tgender), cognitive learning style (Tcogl), knowledge of additional language(s) (Tlang), views on language learning (Ttheories), and other demographic information such as age (Tage) or socioeconomic status (Tincome)[8];
> (ii) *Teacher experience (Texperience)* - an aggregate of experience teaching Japanese ESL students (Tjesl), general experience in the teaching profession (Texperience), and specific experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute programs (Tcoaeli)
> (iii) *Teacher expectations (Texpectations)* - an aggregate of teacher

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[8]Additional "style variables" such as race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, health, "personal well-being," etc., could also be added to this aggregate depending on the interest(s) of researchers. Such variables were not of interest to this study.

expectations concerning classroom activities (Tclac) and class roles (Tclro).

Second, I will also expand the concept of BAK to include student background beliefs, attitudes and knowledge (or SBAK), as well as student cognitive/learning style and linguistic and pedagogical expectations (or SBAK+). In terms of the LPPC model, this SBAK+ will then include:

(i) *Student style (Sstyle)* - an aggregate of student motivation (Smotivation), and cognitive/learning style (Scogl), and it may also include other demographic information such as age (Sage), socioeconomic status (Sses), culture (Sculture), gender (Sgender), language (Slanguage), etc.;[9]

(ii) *Student cultural expectations (Sculture)* - an aggregate of previous experience with Canadians and Canada (Scanadian experience), knowledge and perceptions of Canada and Canadians (Skpc), and interest in foreign languages (IFL);

(iii) *Student linguistic expectations* (Sexpectations - Linguistic) - an aggregate of previous experience with English (Senglish experience), college major (Smajor), number of languages spoken (S#languages), and attitudes with respect to language learning (Slang);

(iii) *Student pedagogical expectations* (Sexpectations - Pedagogical) - an aggregate of expectations concerning class activities (Sclass activities), class roles (Sclass roles), and program goals (Sppg).

By using this nomenclature, we can further simplify the discussion of student/teacher interactions, while equally recognizing the complexity of the dynamic that may influence linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change by explicitly identifying the constellation of attributes which could be differentially influential in different contexts. The constructs proposed therefore should be understood to be dynamic insofar as any individual's BAK+ will be different from any other individual's BAK+, although similarities may be found. These aggregates are also conceived of as primarily trait-based factors (i.e., describing general preferences or tendencies), rather than state-based factors (i.e., describing moment-by-moment fluctuations based on situational factors) (Gardner &

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[9]Student gender, language and/or culture may not be a significant distinguishing factor in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study because all students are Japanese females and therefore they share the same language, culture and gender. Other variables could also be included in "student style" as described in the previous footnote.

Tremblay, 1994), although the importance of the latter should be recognized. Measurements at any given point are only representative of the state of the subject *at that time*; however, by obtaining sufficient data longitudinally, trends in such variation can often be identified.

Although state measurements were not included within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study for administrative reasons (subject populations sizes, etc.), the LPPC model is designed to be sufficiently flexible to accommodate the examination of, for example, the possible influence of daily changes (or oscillations) in teacher and/or student(s) perceptions of personal well-being (PWB) on class interactions - perhaps by incorporating daily "personal well-being" rating scales, and/or diary writing, into the research paradigm. In other words, in theory, the BAK+ constructs could be employed from a trait perspective and/or a state perspective.

Thus, this model could help to isolate and to explore in depth these or similar factors in other studies. By referring to the interplay of SBAK+ and TBAK+, together with (i) situational factors such as what is taught in class and the techniques and activities used (CLAC), (ii) the amount of extracurricular contact students encounter (Student extracurricular), or teacher or student "personal well-being," and (iii) administrative constraints, specific program characteristics, and temporal constraints, we can begin to describe the participants, processes and change observed in programs such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, and/or attempt to predict the influence of specific types of expectations on linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change.

Finally, I would like to propose a third term which I have derived from Woods' BAK. While Woods emphasizes the unique nature of an individual teacher's BAK, in most teaching situations (and certainly in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study), each class includes one teacher and a number of students (i.e., the class). In other words, one TBAK+ (teacher's beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, expectations, etc.) and an accumulation of SBAK+s (an aggregate of all the students' in the class beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, expectations, etc.). In order to be able to describe both the interactions between (i) an individual teacher and an individual student and (ii) an

individual teacher and a class (or group of students), I will propose a third construct of Class BAK+ (or CBAK+). The importance of CBAK+ to the understanding of class fit will be discussed in the next section.

1.4.7 Teachers, students and class fit

The research on attributions discussed in Section 1.4.4 illustrates the direct results of the influence of students (or class) behaviour on teacher attitude and behaviour. This evidence also strongly supports the anecdotal intuitions of classroom teachers concerning "class fit." Regarding the perception of a group of students as an entity which possesses its own personality, and therefore providing a basis for the development of a construct "class fit," Brophy and Good (1974: 309) comment:

> In discussions with teachers, we have been struck by the frequent references made about the ability of the class *per se*. In talking about their role, teachers regularly report impressions about the interest of the class, the speed of going through the material, discipline problems, and so on in comparison to previous classes...Interestingly, favourable and unfavourable references to the present classes seem balanced across teachers as a group.. Furthermore, teachers seem to react to classes in extreme good-bad ways.

Therefore, in this quote, the authors identify two key "metaphors" of "class fit": "the class" possessing a personality, and "the class" possessing an ability. The fact that these two attributes of the individual have been applied to the group further supports the need for a CBAK+ construct in the description and/or discussion of "teacher achievement," particularly if "teachers seem to react to classes in extreme good-bad ways" as Brophy and Good suggest. The qualification "extreme good-bad ways" appears to have strong attributional undertones, which would suggest that CBAK+ could have a strong influence on teacher perceptions, or TBAK+, and/or teacher perceptions of teacher achievement.

Jenkins and Deno (1969, cited in Feldman, 1986), in a study in which students were told to be attentive or inattentive during a lecture presented by (unsuspecting) guest psychology lecturers, found that the lecturers with the attentive class rated their teaching performance more highly than with those with the inattentive class. In other words, the lecturers judged their success based on the student behaviour, or external measures.

Herrell (1971, cited in Feldman, 1986) went further, testing his hypothesis that conditioning students conditions the lecturer. Specifically, students were either told the lecturer was a warm and friendly person, or they were told the lecturer was cold and indifferent. The findings demonstrated that students' behaviours changed according to their attributions AND these changes resulted in change in the lecturer's behaviour. These findings therefore emphasize the importance of identifying both sides of the learning equation and they provide evidence of the impact of student/teacher interaction.

Similarly, Klein (1971, cited in Feldman, 1986), in a study where students were told to vary their behaviour (positive and negative), found lecturers' behaviour changed as a function of changes in student behaviour. Teacher behaviour was more indirect in the positive behaviour period and more direct in the negative behaviour period. In other words, the influence was a two-way street, with the individual teacher (TBAK+) influencing the group (CBAK+) in some cases, and the group (CBAK+) influencing the teacher (TBAK+) in others. In other words,

Case 1: TBAK+ => CBAK+
Case 2: CBAK+ => TBAK+

Therefore, as Feldman (1986) indicates, the sum may be greater (or different) from the parts, and it suggested here that it becomes theoretically imperative to be able to examine both directions of interaction at the same time.

When we talk about "class fit," we are usually referring to the extent to which the group (of students) and the teacher share commonalities. Feldman states:

> A group is not a mere sum of its members. A group has characteristics as a whole which are lost when the group disintegrates...A class is not only a combination of pupils and a teacher, but is also a group...The class acts as a group and over time it develops characteristics which greatly influence classroom interaction. Thus any *analysis of classroom integration must also consider the class as a group* [my emphasis]. Any understanding of classroom interaction requires a knowledge of such *characteristics as the groups goals, norms, level of cohesiveness, or level of differentiation* [my emphasis]. That is, this knowledge explains why the class behaves as it does in classroom interactions...[in addition] the group exerts an influence on an individual's behaviour. Thus, an interaction between a pupil and a teacher, is not only affected by the personality of each of them, but also by

the group of which they are members (Feldman, 1986: 143).

In other words, when we look at a class as an aggregate, or a whole, we need a new term, for example CBAK+, to capture the cumulative or additive result of the individual personalities or SBAK+s. In fact, Barkhuizen (1998) alludes to these differences, stating "research shows that the perceptions of teachers and their learners do not always match...studies show...mismatches [can] arise between teachers' aims and learners' interpretations" (p. 87). He cites Block (1994, 1996) as finding "teachers and learners operate according to quite different systems for describing and attributing purpose to tasks" (Barkhuizen, 1998: 87). I would therefore propose that the construct CBAK+ allows us to investigate the characteristics of the group, together with SBAK+ and TBAK+ (for the individual). These distinctions allow us to address the conceptually amorphous definition of teacher achievement having focussed in the last few years on the characteristics of individual learners, and most recently on the individual teacher, but not the group, and/or all three levels concurrently.

1.4.8 Student achievement and teacher achievement: Defining the intangible?

In this section, I will be proposing a construct of "teacher achievement," which should be understood to be analogous to the more recognized "student achievement," in order to allow discussion of language learning in a more comprehensive manner within the proposed LPPC framework. Student achievement has typically been defined as having both internal components (positive attitudes with respect to language and language learning, the target community, etc.) and external components (grades, fluency, etc.) (Gardner, 1985). If "teacher achievement" is similarly constructed to incorporate both internal (positive attitudes with respect to students and course outcomes, self-perceptions of student achievement and the teacher's role in the production of that outcome) and external outcomes (high class achievement, student ratings and performance), it would arguably provide a measurable, albeit relativistic, construct highly dependent on self-report data.[10]

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[10]See discussion in Woods (1996) for a comprehensive discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of self-report data.

A number of previous studies have either explicitly or implicitly identified a concept of "teacher success" or teacher "achievement" (Woods, 1996; Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy, 1996; Oxford, 1998), although few have progressed to the operationalization of a testable construct within a theoretical framework. Implicit in Kassabgy, Boraie, and Schmidt's (1998) work on values associated with teaching job and career is the idea of teaching success (and variable determinations of such success). Oxford (1998) and Dörnyei (1998) both implicitly investigate teacher success (via teacher failure) based on what behaviours do not motivate students. In addition, the work of Frieze (1981), Ames (1983) and Woods (1996) all point to the influence of teacher perception or interpretation in the decision of what is success (or achievement) and failure [see discussion, Section 1.4.2].

Based on the research reviewed previously, as well as from interviews held in 1996 with two teachers who had previously participated in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (G and S), a number of issues have been identified as necessary in the definition of "teacher achievement." First, "teacher achievement" will be defined as a measure analogous to "student achievement" as an endpoint in the LPPC model. This measure allows us to explore the teacher's perceptions of the relative success or failure of an educational or pedagogical event (e.g., lesson, activity, module, course, program, etc.). Like Woods' (1996) BAK, "teacher achievement," of which BAK is hypothesized to be a significant factor, is best described as a multilayered "heteroarchy" (Woods, 1996) in which overlapping dimensions such as knowledge and beliefs are understood to co-exist, but they are differentially weighted for influence at any given time, as in the "butterfly effect" of chaos theory (Larsen-Freeman, 1995).

A butterfly effect, in the terms of teacher achievement as defined in this dissertation, refers to when a small or minor event may result in a disproportionate reaction. While butterfly effects could be considered as general state manifestations, I will restrict the use of the term to describing an events having a disproportionate positive or negative influence on teacher or student perceptions of achievement. For example, one student's incredible achievement in a class of non-achievers may result in a teacher

experiencing a greater sense of achievement than when s/he taught a class of all high achievers in which all students were successful. In addition, the "butterfly effect" when applied to student achievement may refer to what some have termed the "threshold effect" where, after a idiosyncratic "critical level" of language knowledge has been acquired, language understanding and/or performance increases exponentially (Larsen-Freeman, 1995). Thus, the butterfly effect may be useful to identify and describe events contributing to either student or teacher achievement which may otherwise be difficult to classify.

"Teacher achievement" is proposed to be composed of two dimensions. These two dimensions include (i) the perceptual or internal dimension and (ii) the pedagogical or external dimension. The *perceptual/internal* dimension encompasses what others have termed BAK (Woods, 1996), ideology (Olshtain, 1998), values Kassabgy, Boraie, and Schmidt (1998), beliefs and attributions (Ames, 1983). The internal dimension is therefore where "input" becomes "interpretation" (to coin a phrase). In other words, based on teachers' own views of what language learning and/or teaching is, and their interpretations of their motivations and the motivations of their students, teachers "filter" information, to decide whether their goals, etc., have been met. By contrast, the *pedagogical/external* dimension includes such traditional measures (arguably "objective" measures) of achievement as specific evidence of learning by students (something taught is correctly used) or specific language change (a pronunciation problem disappears after the teacher has focussed on it), or if students perform well on a test or in a program (showing they learnt something from the teacher).

Another issue in this definition is the distinction between what I will refer to as the "macro-level classroom perspective" (concerning the achievement of the class as a group) and the "micro-level perspective" (concerning the achievement of an individual student). These perspectives include (i) *perceived success or achievement of individual students* and/or (ii) *perceived success or achievement of the group*. I earlier invoked the term "butterfly effect" to indicate the degree to which the situational definition of "teacher achievement" may vary. As indicated in the example above, I would suggest that a perception of a high level of "teacher achievement" could result from either cumulative

"class achievement" and/or "class fit" <u>AND/OR</u> it could result from a remarkable individual achievement ("lighting a fire"). Further, although this variation could be experienced by any teacher at a given time, I would propose the weighting could be influenced by three main factors: (i) the individual teacher's BAK or values (TBAK+), (ii) class fit, or the degree to which the teacher and student(s) styles are compatible (SBAK+s, CBAK+, and TBAK+), and (iii) situational constraints (administrative, temporal).

The first factor, the individual teacher's BAK+, could influence what behaviours or events the teacher would highly value (e.g., a "high value teacher" - Ames, 1983), and therefore, it would influence how a teacher would define success or failure. For example, a teacher who highly prizes individualization in teaching would probably be more likely to interpret one student's "catching fire" as success. By contrast, a teacher who highly values presentation skills would more likely perceive the whole class focussing on his/her board work as success. The second factor, "class fit," proposes that the degree to which the teacher and student(s) share the same goals, styles and strategy preferences, and arguably, gender, culture and language or knowledge of these differences [see discussion, Section 1.5], will influence the class atmosphere or "class fit." Class atmosphere, if not adversely affected by situational constraints, will result in positive feelings and/or perception of achievement.

Finally, the third factor, situational constraints, recognizes that even if there are positive weightings on the first and second factors, the effects of administrative policies, physical plant arrangements, etc., may adversely or positively influence classroom atmosphere, and/or interpretations of the classroom situation. This factor deals most explicitly with the state-based variables discussed previously [Section 1.4.8]. For example, a teacher with sleepy students could either attribute their sleepiness to external (situational) factors such as lack of oxygen in the room, and therefore, s/he would not consider the lesson a personal failure (i.e., it would not influence feelings of achievement), or the teacher could attribute the sleepiness to internal (personal) factors by assuming their lesson is boring (and therefore, they would consider the lesson a personal failure, or negative achievement).

Therefore, the construct "CBAK+" provides a clear terminology for the discussion and/or examination of the role of the group in "class fit," "teacher achievement," and arguably "student achievement" (i.e., how the group influences individual student's feeling of achievement).

1.4.9 Student and teacher achievement in the LPPC model

The implications of the terms defined in the previous section(s) to the development of the LPPC model are described in this section. The motivation for the development of a construct "teacher achievement" was to provide an analogous factor for "student achievement," which is the endpoint in the Socioeducational model because of the Socioeducational model's focus on the influences of student achievement. In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study into linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change, "student achievement" is operationally defined by the amount and/or type of linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change observed on pre- and post-course questionnaires and analysis of interview data. "Teacher achievement" is operationally defined by change in pre- and post-course expectations and perceptions were related (perceptual/internal), and perceptions of students' success (linguistically and socioculturally).

Therefore, one of the advantages of the LPPC model in comparison with previous models is that achievement can (theoretically) be related directly to types of change (either positive or negative). For example, the LPPC model could hypothetically allow an examination of the relationship between positive change (on positively worded items) and positive achievement, and/or the degree to which positive change relates to perceptions of success, and negative achievement, with negative or lack of success, although a complete examination of these relationships is beyond the scope of this study. Moreover, the model should allow future research to evaluate the differential impact of the interactions of teacher factors (TBAK+) with student factors (SBAK+) and/or class factors (CBAK+).

In other words, this model could allow us to examine situations for patterns of perceptions of achievement, from both student and teacher perspectives, in the same program (although this is beyond the scope of this study). For example, if Student X

demonstrates positive linguistic change, negative perceptual change, and no pedagogical change, would Student X consider him/herself successful? Would Student X's teacher consider Student X successful? Would the teacher consider him/herself successful?

In summary, the modifications of terminology and the development of an inclusive framework such as the LPPC model may allow us to go beyond the rough models of Woods (1996), Kassabgy, Boraie, and Schmidt (1998) and others, by defining "achievement" so that patterns of BAK involved in the perceptual/internal dimension and/or specific student/class factors of the pedagogical/external dimension can be identified and added to a framework like the Socioeducational Model. Other components of the LPPC model will be discussed in Sections 1.5 and 1.6.

1.5 Gender, Language and Culture: Other issues in the development of 'class fit'

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, a number of factors were proposed to influence "class fit." "Class fit" is considered a critical factor in determining student and/or teacher achievement in the LPPC model. Although the basic foundations of BAK were discussed in previous sections (such as individual student and/or teacher beliefs, attitudes and knowledge), it is proposed that additional factors should be explicitly included in the definition. These factors include the relationship between gender, language and/or culture.

The first factor, *gender*, allows us to identify influences of the gender of course participants on linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change. For example, one could examine the influence of the gender of the teacher and the gender(s) of the student(s), and/or the gender distribution in the class (or the number of males and females in a class) on dynamic interactions and "class fit." As will be discussed below, the existence of male/female differences in language and language use has been quite well documented [see discussion in Woodman, 1995], although the extent to which gender differences may influence second language classroom interactions and/or "class fit" has not been extensively studied.

The second factor, *language*, identifies potential influences of cross-linguistic differences on student/teacher interactions. This factor was addressed to some extent in

Woods' (1996) model under "Background Knowledge Structures." "Language" as defined here may also include the languages that student(s) and teacher(s) share (or do not share), the language of instruction, and/or cross-linguistic knowledge. In other words, hypothetically, one may examine (i) the number of languages a teacher and/or student(s) in a particular context understand, (ii) the number of languages they share, and (iii) the influence of any of this knowledge on classroom interactions. For example, "cross-linguistic knowledge" could include whether a teacher of Japanese students understands the underlying differences between English and Japanese syntax, etc., and whether previous knowledge of Japanese/English differences influences class interactions and/or achievement.[11] Research has detailed the influence of a learner's first language on some areas of difficulty in the acquisition of a second or additional language (cross-linguistic interference) (Ellis, 1989), however, the potential influence of the teacher's knowledge of these cross-linguistic differences on classroom practice or student achievement does not appear to have been addressed directly, although teacher resources addressing these differences have existed for a number of years.[12]

Finally, while the influence of *culture and/or cultural expectations*, or the different cultural backgrounds and cross-cultural knowledge of teacher(s) and student(s), on classroom interactions has been explored by a number of researchers (Scarcella, Andersen, & Krashen, 1990; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1992), and it also appears in Woods' (1996) under "Background Knowledge Structures," the influence of culture and/or cultural expectations has not been studied in the context of short-term or study-abroad programs, nor have the findings been placed within a comprehensive theoretical framework such as the LPPC model. These findings (discussed below) suggest that similarities in cultural expectations and behaviours such as eye contact, use of gestures, amount of talking in class, volunteering answers, etc., between teachers (or interviewers) and learners (or

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[11]Such a study is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

[12]Books such as M. Swan and B. Smith's (1987) *Learner English* (Cambridge University Press) provide a comprehensive description of cross-linguistic differences between English and nineteen other world languages.

interviewees) could result in a better level of "class fit."

In this section, it will be argued that in many language situations, similarities (or at least familiarity) between participants in the language learning situation with respect to gender, language, and/or culture may influence the degree of comfort or perceptions of "class fit," which may influence perceptions of student achievement and/or teacher achievement. In addition, it will be proposed that the influence of such variables may be subject to the "butterfly effect" (Larsen-Freeman, 1995). In other words, in any particular situation, a small variation in a teacher factor, and/or a student or class factor, may have disproportionate repercussions on the interaction and/or perception or interpretation of the interaction (in other words, on perceptions of achievement).

1.5.1 Gender and language

A considerable literature has developed over the years documenting gender-based distinctions in cultural and linguistic patterns in general (Chafe, 1980; Gal, 1993; Goldenstein, 1993; Moeran, 1989; Ohara, 1993; Okamoto & Sato, 1993; Polanyi, 1995; Shibamoto, 1985; Siegal, 1995; Smith, 1993), and Japanese gender-based patterns in particular (Moeran, 1989; Ohara, 1993; Okamoto & Sato, 1993; Shibamoto, 1985; Siegal, 1995; Smith, 1993) [See discussion in Woodman (1995)]. However, gender as a teacher or student variable influencing class interactions in second language acquisition has not been investigated in detail.

A review of this literature emphasizes the need for development of a comprehensive model or theory of language acquisition which includes teacher gender and student gender as possible factors. As noted in the previous section, it is proposed that a modification to the Socioeducational Model which is included in the LPPC model is the inclusion of gender as a sub-factor of "teacher style" and "student style" (or BAK). The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute subject populations, which included 384 female Japanese ESL students, and 5 male and 9 female ESL teachers, offered an opportunity to examine possible gender- and/or culturally-based variables. Therefore, a brief review of research relevant to three aspects of the gender-culture-language triangle will be presented concerning (i) gender-based distinctions in Japanese language use, (ii)

gender-based characteristics of language, and (iii) research on gender and language in Japanese ESL subject population.

Some of the characteristics which have been attributed by Western popular opinion to "the Japanese" include: quiet, polite, hardworking, honest, non-competitive, group-oriented, conforming (i.e., do not like to stand out from the crowd), humble, etc. Similarly, popular opinion has tended to label Japanese women as passive, retiring, child-like, marriage-minded, etc. If these concepts are in fact "general knowledge" in Western culture, then it might be expected that they would play a role in an ESL teacher's "BAK" (Woods, 1996) or BAK+ proposed here, and hence they may influence expectations and behaviours in the classroom.

In order to assess the extent to which such perceptions of female Japanese cultural characteristics are common to ESL teachers within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, and/or student perceptions of Canada and Canadian culture, within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, a number of culture-based items were incorporated into teacher and student questionnaires items and interview questions to investigate perceptual and pedagogical change.

Items concerning perceptual change with respect to cultural and gender-based factors were included in the section "Knowledge and perceptions of Canadians" (Student questionnaire, Section 4), and "Perceptions of Canadians" (Student questionnaire, Section 5). For example, #PR19/PS1 ("I think Canadians are friendly"), #PR20/PS2 ("I think Canadians are polite"), and #PR26/PS8 ("I think Canadians are similar to Japanese people").

Items concerning pedagogical change and Japanese cultural values included "Successful student characteristics" which were found on both student and teacher pre-course (PR) and post-course (PS) questionnaires.[13] Examples of these items include the following from the student pre-course questionnaire: #PR60/PS40 (" I think the teacher will want me to be polite"), and #PR61/PS41 ("I think the teacher will want me to sit

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[13] Teacher questionnaire Items #56-63 (on pre-course questionnaire) and Items #42-50 (on post-course questionnaire); Student questionnaire Items #PR60/PS40-PR64/PS44)

quietly until asked a question"). Examples of the similar items from the teacher questionnaire (pre-course) include #PR59 ("I believe a successful ESL student is one who is polite"), and #PR60 ("I believe a successful ESL student is one who sits quietly"). Interview questions were also posed concerning teacher expectations of Japanese student behaviour (teacher pre-course interviews), and interview questions concerning comparisons between Canadians and Japanese (student interview questions).

As noted above, the basis for the inclusion of these items in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study includes research indicating the exist of linguistic, cultural and gender-based differences between Japanese women and "Western" men and women. Linguistically, differences have been identified as existing between the language used by Japanese women and Japanese men. However, while the influence of language background (L1) has been addressed in considerable detail in the literature over the years (Ellis, 1994), and culture is becoming a focus of considerable research (Seelye, 1992), and even power relations have begun to be addressed (Boyd, 1992; Cumming & Gill, 1992), the influence of gender, specifically in combination with the dimensions noted above, appears to have been little considered [but see Woodman, 1995]. This fact is problematic given that gender differences in communication "styles" have been documented even within language and cultural groups (Coates, 1994; Graddol & Swann, 1992; Tannen, 1986, 1990). Further, such "style differences" have been identified as instrumental in communication breakdown (Caplan, 1993; Tannen, 1986, 1990). In other words, with language and culture held constant (e.g., Greek Canadians from Toronto), a woman and man speaking together may experience communication breakdown because of gender-based differences (e.g., style or intent).

Gender-based research in study-abroad or short-term language program contexts has also identified some differences. For example, Brecht et al. (1995) have identified gender differences as predictors of student success in study-abroad programs in Russia. They found that male students showed more positive change as measured by traditional tests, than female students. Polanyi (1995) suggests these results reflect a gender bias in the tests by measuring "male activities" like toast-making, etc., rather than female coping

mechanisms like telling persistent males to go away. In other words, Polanyi indicates that many language tests may not take into consideration gender-based (or cultural) differences in language use more subtle than basic gender bias which may effect the validity of the findings.

In a study such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, the types of questionnaire or interview items could influence (either positively or negatively) the language change observed, therefore student interview questions in particular were targeted specifically at the known demographic, based on the interviewer's previous experience with a similar subject population. For example, student interviews included discussions of shopping, clothing, make-up, sightseeing, family and career. These topics may not have been as successful with a group of male interviewees.

Young's (1995) research also suggests gender-based differences in interview interactions. He makes a number of observations regarding female non-native interviewees interacting with a female native-speaking interviewer. Many of these observations have direct relevance to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study because the native speaking interviewer (the author) and the 28 Japanese student interviewees were all female. Young's findings include:

> (i) non-native interviewees ratify interviewer's topics twice as often
> as interviewers ratify non-native interviewees' topics,
> (ii) female non-native interviewees ratified female interviewers more
> often than in any other gender combination of interviewers and non-
> native interviewees,
> (iii) topics initiated by interviewer lasted significantly longer than
> topics initiated by non-native interviewees,
> (iv) topics relating to non-native interviewees' personal experiences
> of work lasted longer than more general topics relating to learning
> or having a good time
> (v) display questions from interviewer resulted in rapid topic decay
> (vi) topics persisted longest in interviews in which both participants
> are women.

Although all of the findings reported by Young could not be tested in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study because no male interviewers or non-native interviewees were available for comparison, these findings do provide a rationale

for the use of interviews in the collection of language data with Limited English Proficient students, especially if both interviewer and interviewee(s) are female because the findings suggest such a combination should produce considerable language production, although the interviewer would tend to find herself in the primary control position. In other words, topics initiated by the female native-speaking interviewer would (i) be ratified more often than those initiated by the female non-native interviewees, and (ii) last significantly longer than those initiated by the female non-native interviewees. In addition, it would be predicted that (iii) topics relating to non-native interviewees' personal experiences or work would last longer than more general topics relating to learning or having a good time, and (iv) display questions from the interviewer would result in rapid topic decay. Student interview items incorporated aspects of (iii), and results supporting Young's finding that display questions from the interviewer would result in rapid topic decay also appear to have been found (e.g., responses to interviewer's "How's life?") in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study [see discussion, Section 3.2.1.5].

1.5.2 Gendered language

Both the terms "women's language" and "men's language" may be considered ambiguous. The definition of such terms may be found to differ considerably depending on source [see discussion in Graddol & Swann, 1992]. To attempt to clarify the issue, Sherzer (1987) identifies seven categories of potential "gendered" differences in language:

> (i) Obligatory categorical grammar - women and men use different phonological or morphological structures
> (ii) Whole language differences - women and men literally speak different languages
> (iii) Differences in style - there is a complex of linguistic features (phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical) associated with women or men
> (iv) Variable or frequency differences in small set of linguistic features (e.g., based on class, ethnicity, level of education, formality of situation and gender)
> (v) Differences in interactional and organizational aspects of discourse: in other words, each group uses the same words, etc., but differ in how the "rules of conversation" are played out (e.g., when interruptions can occur, distribution of turns, etc.)
> (vi) Differences in verbal genre and speaking roles - they are related

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to social roles and may be defining or primary manifestations of
these roles (e.g., storytelling, speech making, passing on of tribal
myths or religious teachings, etc.)
(vii) Differences in patterns of speaking, which cut across and relate
to particular speech events and verbal genres and are general
societal organizing principles for the use of language

Although in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, the
gender-based differences examined focussed primarily on perceptual and/or pedagogical
issues in a short-term intensive language program (e.g., male teachers perceptions of
possible influence of their gender on classroom interactions), it is possible that in other
learning situations, teachers may encounter gender-based differences in language (as well
as language use) which present significant differences in the way women and men of a
particular language group may be taught (or learn language). The LPPC model as
presented in this dissertation however would allow discussion of such differences under
the categories of "student factors." It would equally allow cultural differences between
two groups of teachers (such as those explored in Kassabgy, Boraie and Schmidt, 1998)
to be taken into consideration under "teacher factors" because of the existence of
subfactors such as gender in teacher and student style (or TBAK+, SBAK+ and CBAK+).

One area in which a proportionately large amount of research has been done
comparing female and male language concerns Japanese culture and language (Ide, 1994;
Ohara, 1992; Okamoto, 1994; Okamoto & Sato, 1992; Smith, 1992; Seelye, 1992;
Sunaoshi, 1994; Wadden, 1993). As we will see, this research is relevant to both future
research in cross-gender/cross-linguistic/cross-cultural (CCC) differences, as well as from
the pragmatic perspective of teachers of Japanese ESL students, particularly those
teaching single gender classes such as in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language
Institute study.

The LPPC Model includes two separate sub-factors of teacher experience,
"COAELI" and "JESL," to measure the possible influence of teacher familiarity with
student gender-based and/or cultural factors, as well as familiarity with the program
specific factors. The former factor refers to the teacher(s) personal experience with the

Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute which always involved a totally female Japanese student population, and the latter refers to the teacher'(s) experience with Japanese ESL students. Based on criteria derived for "class fit," it was hypothesized that a teacher who was familiar with the cultural, linguistic and gender-specific expectations of his/her students (i.e., this knowledge is part of their BAK) would experience better "class fit," and perhaps a more positive level of "teacher achievement" than a teacher who did not have this knowledge.

1.5.3 Japanese language and language use

For various cultural and historical reasons (Ide, 1994), there has been a divergence in language use and language form in the Japanese language, although some recent research suggests this trend is starting to reverse itself with the younger generation of Japanese women starting to use masculine forms in some contexts (Okamoto, 1994; Okamoto & Sato, 1992). Clancy (1992) discusses how these styles are socialized or taught from a young age.

Some characteristics of gendered differences in Japanese, which have traditionally been examined via female deviations from an assumed male norm, include the following:

> - Women's language is said to be softer than men's language and to be more polite when politeness is defined as the frequency of higher honorific form use (Siegal, 1994; Sunaoshi, 1994)
> - women use more polite forms and honorifics than men, e.g., feminine 'wa yo', masculine 'da yo'; verb endings '-masu', masu vs. more polite and feminine, 'gozaimasu') Smith (1992)
> - Women also are said to speak in a higher pitch than men (Ide, 1982); higher pitch levels (women use pitch higher than men than would be predicted by physiological differences) (Ohara, 1992)
> - Women use negative politeness strategies more often than men because they lessen the degree of imposition of the speaker on the hearer, which is a necessary strategy for those who are in a subordinate position (Sunasoshi, 1994)
> - Women's language is said to use more evidentials that express hesitancy and passiveness than male speech (Smith, 1992)
> - Women are said to use less Sino-Japanese vocabulary than men (Sunaoshi, 1994)
> - The use of the sentence final pragmatic particle wa (also kashira) is said to index women's speech (Siegal, 1994; Sunaoshi, 1994)

- The pragmatic particle *ne* might also function to index women's speech (Sunaoshi, 1994)
- Women are said to use less direct speech (e.g., difference in directness) than men (Smith, 1992; Sunaoshi, 1994)
- Younger women use more "men's" language forms than older women (Okamoto & Sato, 1992)
- Use of some forms which mark women's language varies between younger and older women (Okamoto, 1994)
- Gendered language style differs depending on addressee (Okamoto, 1994)

Thus, "to the degree that the utterances of men and women are judged by a single standard for Japanese 'politeness', women's utterances are systematically and significantly more polite than men's" (Smith, 1992: 541).

These gender-based differences have both theoretical and pedagogical implications for our conception of the LPPC model, specifically with respect to the development of the BAK+ construct, and the inclusion of BAK+ into the model. The construct BAK+, which includes gender as a subfactor, allows the possible identification of certain types of student/teacher interactions (or perceptions that are generated through interactions) in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute which may be influenced by gender-based and/or cultural factors. In other words, students may transfer gender and/or culturally-based language use patterns to English, which teachers may misinterpret or negatively attribute meanings. For example, the use of more indirect speech patterns by female Japanese students could result in a teacher response (or a reaction of "Why don't they just answer the question!"). Other possible negative teacher responses or attributions could be: to high pitch (Possible teacher response: "They are like silly schoolgirls"), and/or negative politeness strategies (Possible teacher response: "Why are they so humble all of the time - they should be more assertive!").

These differences may be misconstrued by outsiders (especially Westerners). This miscommunication is vividly illustrated in the findings of Siegal (1994). Siegal, observing four white North American and British women learning Japanese in Japan, found what she refers to as "resistance" to the use (or non-use) of "Japanese women's language phenomena" (such as particle use, honorifics, and suprasegmental differences). Siegal cites

one woman, Julia, as wholeheartedly adapting (or adopting) the "voice" of a young

Japanese woman when with her female Japanese friends, using *sugoi wa*! [that's great +

feminine speech particle *wa*] and *kirei ne*! [that's beautiful + pragmatic particle *ne*]. She

contrasts this behaviour with that of another woman, Arina, who would use polite forms

(especially with older people) so as not to give offense, while commenting:

> I can not stand the way [an older Japanese woman] talks. She is so humble
> all the time. I don't want to be that humble. I am just going to stick with the
> *desu/masu* [polite form], it is polite and safe (Siegal, 1994).

A third woman, Sally, according to Siegal, took a much harder stance - she

criticized Julia and her friends for their use of women's language, calling them "silly and

giggly." Sally, considering Japanese women's language to be subservient, refused to use

honorifics as much as she should, or when such use was expected. She preferred to use

plain forms which she considered "more friendly" (but which, it must be noted, struck the

Japanese as rather inappropriate). Thus, both Sally and Arina, based on their negative

evaluation of Japanese women's language, constructed their own language system,

syntactically correctly, but pragmatically skewed, for a "third gender" (Siegal, 1994).

In other words, from the perspective of the LPPC model, this re-construction of

the language system appears to be an example of SBAK+ being modified due to an

encounter with a "hotspot." According to Woods (1996), "hotspots" occur when teachers

encounter situations which conflict with their current BAKs. "Hotspots" may result in the

reconfiguration of BAK. This example in Siegal's data provides support for the SBAK+

construct, as well as providing an example of a process or event which may trigger a

reconfiguration of a student's BAK.

The students' introspections also emphasize the extent to which speech style (or

linguistic behaviour) may be culture specific, as well as illustrating the negative or

evaluative perception Westerners may develop of Japanese women based on cross-

linguistic transfer of speech style traits (especially high pitch which is strictly a politeness

strategy from the Japanese perspective, but is frequently considered "giggly and childlike"

or subservient by Westerners), and as such provide support for the inclusion of gender,

language and/or culture into BAK+. As noted previously, many ESL teachers come from a "Western" cultural background, and therefore their BAKs (Woods, 1996) may include such stereotypes or negative perceptions.[14]

It is suggested that this set of beliefs may also carry over to the classroom, classroom roles, and student and teacher expectations, and hence into classroom dynamics, ultimately influencing holistic or global perceptions such as "class fit" and "teacher achievement." For example, the use of high pitch by some students may cause their teachers to underestimate their intelligence (or dismiss them as "silly schoolgirls"-regardless of age), even if they have an explanation (i.e., they know it is a cultural differcnce). As noted above, Japanese women's language has been described as having a high pitch, in contrast to a particularly low pitch used by Japanese men (Ohara, 1993).

This distinction, which in Japanese society has traditionally been considered a sign of politeness, has often been characterized as "girlish" or "child-like" by non-Japanese, and subsequently misconstrued as indicating diminished mental capacity or extreme youth (Siegal, 1994). Certainly, this difference in intent (from the student perspective) and understanding (from the teacher perspective) could influence linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program by influencing the learning atmosphere and/or "class fit" (pedagogical change), resulting in student(s) withdrawing from the teacher (perceptual change), and therefore showing little positive linguistic change (attribution theory, Ames, 1983). For example, a teacher who attributes a student's use of high pitch in English to a diminished level of intellect or maturity might modify his/her classroom behaviour, resulting in pedagogical change (e.g., speaking very slowly, using childish activities). This pedagogical change may then be interpreted by the student as the teacher underestimating their abilities, and they may not try as hard (perceptual change), or respond less in class (linguistic change).

Similarly, based on this expectation of proper classroom behaviour, we might predict that students' and teachers' expectations of classroom activities may vary cross-

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[14]A finding supported by my data.

culturally and cross-gender. For example, a considerable divergence between what Western ESL teachers considered to be the "ideal ESL student" (e.g., outgoing, talkative, etc. student) and that of the Japanese student (e.g., quiet, polite, speak when spoken to) has been noted by a number of researchers [see Wadden, 1993]. These findings support the construction of meaning, and the influence in the second language acquisition process of cultural **and** gender-based perceptions, by demonstrating the influence of the learner's perception and evaluation (or BAK) of the pragmatic and stylistic properties of a language based both on their cultural schema and on their gender-role schema [also see Goldstein (1992)]. They therefore highlight the need for a model of second language acquisition which includes such factors such as the LPPC model.

Questionnaire items and interview questions concerning teacher and student perceptions of gender and/or cultural characteristics in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute included the influence of teacher experience with Japanese students (Tjesl), teacher experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute (Tcoalei), student experience with Canada and Canadians (Sppg), student experience with Canadian teachers (Sexp), teacher expectations concerning classroom techniques and activities (Tclac) and class roles (Tclro), and student expectations concerning classroom techniques and activities (Sclac) and class roles (Sclro).

1.5.4 Gender and TESOL

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, five male teachers and nine female ESL teachers participated. This distribution provided an opportunity to examine possible gender- and/or culturally-based variables, as well as providing an opportunity to compare this teacher population with the typical TESL population. Although little research has been done to date on specific pedagogically related gender-differences within the field of ESL, some findings which tend to mirror research from general education research include the apparent relationship between level of position such as classroom teacher, administration, researcher, and gender.

According to Hafernik et al. (1993), based on information from the 1991/92 TESOL survey (TESOL Matters), 78% of TESOL members in the U.S. are female and

22% are male. A number of gender-based differences appear to exist, however, in the demographic data. Many of these differences appear to mirror findings in the educational field as a whole (Caplan, 1993). For example, with respect to level of education, Hafernik et al. (1993) found more female ESL teachers to have bachelors degrees (female = 12%, male = 8%) and masters degrees (female = 72%, male = 57%) than male ESL teachers, while males were more likely to possess doctorates (female = 14%, male = 33%). With respect to employment, more men were likely to possess full-time employment than women (female = 74%, male = 84%). In fact, 26% of women reported having one or two part-time jobs by comparison to 15% of men. Finally, when job positions/titles were studied, males more often held administrative (female = 16%, male = 27%),or teacher training jobs (female = 16%, male = 26%), by contrast with the position of classroom teacher (female = 66%, male = 58%).

A direct comparison between these findings and the results of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study was not possible because all Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers were hired only for the program, however, information concerning education, experience and gender was obtained via demographic questions on the questionnaires. This information was considered sufficient to examine the degree to which the results of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study would be generalizable to other ESL teacher populations, and to begin to assess the possible influences of gender on Teacher Style (Tstyle) or Teacher experience (Texperience) However, future research could investigate the extent to which such factors influence course outcomes. Gender, in particular, is considered an important sub-factor of "teacher style" in the LPPC model.

1.5.5 Japanese Travel & Education: Trends and Characteristics

The influence of participants' expectations and attitudes on course outcomes (primarily student achievement) has been the focus of numerous studies (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Woods, 1996), and it has been discussed with respect to BAK earlier in this paper. These factors are important to the LPPC model as the inclusion of cross-cultural factors in the LPPC model allows the examination of possible interaction of

student and teacher expectations concerning both general understanding by teachers and students of each others' culture (or perceptual factors) and course specific expectations (or pedagogical factors), to see if these factors influence degree of "class fit," and/or therefore perceptions of achievement. Research concerning culture, gender and language was discussed at some length previously, however in the following section, the role of travel and education to Japanese culture will be examined for course specific factors which might influence differences in perceptions or expectations when placed in the context of a second language classroom in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study.

According to Andresson (1986),

It is suggested by some that the impetus for overseas travel has its roots in Japanese tradition and values, has been nurtured by generations of reading and hearing about foreign lands, and has sustained through the centuries a love of travel (Andresson, 1986: 46)

Andresson (1986:50) identifies a number of cultural factors unique to the Japanese perspective on travel and education. These factors include: (i) the extent of group (as compared to individual) travel, (ii) the importance of status in travel decision-making, (iii) the profusion of photograph-taking and gift-buying, (iv) the desire to verify expectations or knowledge about places, (v) the interest in uncrowded and scenic destinations, and (vi) the temporal and spatial bias of travel to Canada. The extent to which these factors exist in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population (and therefore could influence student/teacher interactions) was investigated indirectly in questionnaires and interviews (e.g., why did you come to Canada, what do you expect to do). In addition, the understanding of the cultural basis of these behaviours by non-Japanese teachers was examined in the interviews, as it was considered relevant to "class fit" (e.g., student expectations and goals). For example, this study was interested in the extent to which teachers and students held similar expectations at the beginning of the course, and how or whether these expectations changed over the three-week program.

According to Andresson (1986: 53), culture-specific factors underlying perspectives on travel and education include:

(i) the relative regimentation and control under which most
Japanese live and work;

(ii) the importance of one's place and status in the Japanese
hierarchy;

(iii) the ethnocentricity of the Japanese;

(iv) the fact the Japanese are accustomed to safety, security, good
service, efficient transportation, and a generally high standard of
living;

(v) the fact that the Japanese are unaccustomed to racial diversity
and multiculturalism, equality of the sexes, and a leisure-oriented
lifestyle.

In addition to the "modern" factors noted above, Andresson highlights possible historical antecedents to the travel perspectives in Japan. She states:

Group travel was common from at least medieval times, being
culturally acceptable and in many ways the only practical
option....the habit of group travel has carried over to international
travel for reasons that include economics, safety, language
limitations, and time restrictions...in addition, the Japanese have
high standards and expectations, especially regarding service, that
may be difficult to maintain in independent travel...up to 80% of
Japanese travel in groups (p. 51)

Andresson discusses the long tradition of domestic travel which preceded the current trend towards domestic and international travel by the Japanese. She cites as possible reasons for this desire to travel religion, "travel as hardship," and "travel as an opportunity to explore the places and subject matter of ancient poets" (p. 44-5). Andresson also cites the work of the great haiku poet Basho's poem "The Narrow Road to the Deep North" as serving traditionally as "a travel diary...[that] serve[s] as a model to prospective Japanese travellers, on what to experience and how to experience it" (p. 45).

Based on these historical perspectives, we might predict that historical documents could influence students' expectations concerning what to do and what to see when they participate in a program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. Interview and student questionnaire items examined why students took part in the program, and teacher and student interviews and questionnaires also investigated what expectations teachers believed students held for the program.

The importance of the "pleasure/obligatory" aspects of Japanese travel are of both theoretical and pragmatic importance to this study because these aspects appear to be quite different from the travel values held by North Americans. These differences could therefore influence teacher perceptions or attributions concerning students' interests and goals. Andresson notes that while:

> Some would argue that true 'pleasure' travel, with no ostensible motive and few obligations, emerged in the late 1960's...even today there remains a certain degree of obligation...for example, many Japanese combine educational or business motives with pleasure so that...*visits to historic sites, war memorials, industrial sites, and world-famous tourist attractions are often almost obligatory aspects of Japanese travel* [my emphasis] (p. 46)

According to Woods (1996), as noted previously, a teacher's BAK (beliefs, attitudes and knowledge) appears to have a strong influence on their behaviour and interpretations of their own behaviour and the actions of others (such as students). Thus, a misunderstanding of the purposes or goals of their Japanese students, based perhaps on a common stereotype of the purpose of Japanese travel, may have repercussions within the classroom such as influencing "class fit," student and teacher perceptions or BAK, and it may also influence linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change.

Perhaps one of the most common stereotypes of Japanese tourists emphasizes the taking of photographs (presumably in excess of "other tourists") and the buying of souvenirs (Andresson, 1986). Therefore, a teacher who considers the buying of souvenirs to be a worthless past time could pass a negative evaluation on to the students. By contrast, a teacher who recognizes the importance of these activities to the students could incorporate them into class activities (e.g., identifying stores or products of interest, or good photo-opportunities) and/or class discussion, thus affirming the students' cultural values. In other words, this information may influence SBAK+, CBAK+, and/or TBAK+. The extent to which any of these three constructs includes such cultural information could influence the composition of their BAK+. Similarities and/or differences between CBAK+or SBAK+ and TBAK+ could influence the degree of "class fit."

Andresson clarifies the culture-specific manifestations of status-based behaviours.

She states that:

> Status is often part of the initial motivation for going
> abroad...however, *status is manifested somewhat uniquely in
> Japanese travel behaviour,* notably in the *frequency of photograph-
> taking* and the extensive *purchase of souvenirs and gifts,* especially
> at famous sites...indeed, partly because of the *importance* in general
> *of gift exchange* in Japanese society, *shopping* is a much *more
> important component* of travel for Japanese *than for other*
> nationalities [my emphasis](p. 52)

This illustration of *culture-specific* (Japanese) attitudes toward, and/or motivations for (i) travel in general, and (ii) specifically stereotypical travel activities (e.g., shopping and photography), is important to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study for both theoretical and pragmatic reasons.

First, it suggests the need for inclusion within the definition of language learning motivation of variables such as *purpose of travel* consistent with culture specific motivations (e.g., Japanese status-oriented or status-based travel), an examination of the extent to which such *non-pedagogical goals/motivations* such as travel for status are prevalent both inter-culture and intra-culture [which is beyond the scope of this study], and the need for future research to attempt to identify the impact of such variables on the planning and realization of socioculturally-oriented study-abroad programs such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. Second, the importance of shopping, sightseeing, etc., to the Japanese ESL subject population was incorporated into the data collection methods, both directly by analysis of specific interview questions (such as "What did you buy?", "Where did you go?", etc.), and indirectly, by analysis of student questionnaire items pertaining to language use and comfort (such as "Did you find speaking to bus drivers/shop clerks/etc., very difficult, difficult?"). As these topics were believed to be directly relevant to the interests and experience of the subjects (and therefore to perceptual change), it was hypothesized that more language data could be obtained from individual subjects if such topics were used. In addition, the similarity and consistency of interview topic(s) could facilitate possible cross-subject comparisons if

desired.[15] In addition, the degree to which these goal orientations on the part of the students were understood (perceptually) and exploited in the classroom (pedagogically) was proposed to influence "class fit."

The extent to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study may be considered representative of the general trend in Japanese travel also is evident in comparison to Andresson's research. She found that:

> As a result of limited opportunities for extensive overseas travel, Japanese travel to Canada is *very brief* (average: 8 nights)...also, because Canada is perceived to be very inhospitable in winter, travel is *very seasonally-biased*...moreover...most Japanese travel is *concentrated in Western Canada* [my emphasis](p. 52)

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was a three week summer program on the West Coast of Canada (in Victoria, B.C.). Thus, although the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was slightly longer than the average Japanese tourist trek,[16] it fits well within the parameters of other short-term language programs and/or study-abroad programs (Freed, 1995b). The seasonal nature and Western Canada orientation of typical Japanese tourist travel (e.g., Spring/Summer) is also consistent with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program format.

1.5.6 Culture shock and perceptual change

The concept of culture shock is also of interest to the study of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language or study-abroad program as it is hypothesized to be a factor that could influence "class fit," and student or teacher achievement, as a result of differences in student and/or teacher knowledge and/or understanding of cross-cultural differences in behaviour and expectations. In other words, it could influence "class fit" as part of their BAK (Woods, 1996), and/or experience (especially teachers) and style.

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[15]In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, the focus was on group change rather than individual change.

[16]However, it could be noted that immediately after the end of the three-week course, in one week students flew to Banff, Niagara Falls, Washington, D.C., and Disneyland (CA).

In the case of a short-term intensive language or study-abroad program, however, culture shock may be seen as a "two-headed monster." It theoretically could be experienced by students and/or teachers. For example, students in a Canadian cultural setting and/or teachers in the midst of a homogeneous Japanese subculture (in the ESL classroom) could experience culture shock. Although it was found that the teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute had all had at least some experience with Japanese students and/or female Japanese students, results from the questionnaires and interviews suggest that some teachers did experience 'reverse' culture shock.[17]

Culture shock has been defined as:

> The state of disorientation experienced by a person entering a new
> *culture* or *subculture* [my emphasis] as he discovers for the first
> time that many of the things to which he is accustomed are unique
> to his own culture (Sikkema and Niyekawa, 1987: 6).

For the purposes of this study, culture shock is examined indirectly in student and teacher pre-course expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute and related experiences, and intra- and post-course perceptions concerning these factors. Therefore, cultural shock, or interactions of differences in cross-cultural perceptions and expectations, is measured indirectly as "perceptual change" within the LPPC model, although some aspects of it may also influence perceptions and expectations in the classroom itself, and therefore they also influence "pedagogical change." This result would be consistent with Woods' (1996), who discovered in his examination of the impact of teachers' beliefs, attitudes and knowledge (BAK) that BAK both influences and helps teachers to interpret classroom practice and their own actions.

It will be suggested here that the degree to which one has a "realistic" conception of the new culture, cultural norms (or attitudes towards the target population) and program expectations (whether pre-course expectations were met) may also influence the degree to which culture shock-type phenomena may impact any individual. Thus, for the

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[17] 'Reverse' culture shock could also be considered as part of the normal course of co-construction/accommodation (J. Esling - personal communication).

students, all of whom were young Japanese women, questionnaire items measured the possible influence of previous visits to Canada and/or English speaking countries, and/or interest in and previous knowledge about Canada and Canadians on language acquisition and/or language use (e.g., student questionnaire, Section #3 "Knowledge and perceptions of Canada"). Similarly, previous experience with Japanese students was predicted to influence the degree to which culture phenomena impact on teachers (e.g., teacher questionnaire, Items #12-16, and interview items).

As Siegal's (1995) research on American women learning Japanese in Japan suggested [Section 1.5.3], considerable individual variation based on perceptions of situation and motivation may be found to influence this ability, findings which are consistent with Woods' (1996) BAK. The question of a learner's ability to identify relevant social and linguistic parameters may also arguably be dealt with as a function of learner style and/or strategy (Oxford, 1990) previously discussed [Section 1.3.3]. For this reason, measures of learners' style and strategies, and changes therein, were included in student questionnaires (Section #10 "Cognitive/learning style") and teacher questionnaires (Items #74-81).

Sikkema and Niyekawa (1987) also make an interesting observation about the temporal flexibility of culture shock, which is of interest to short-term intensive language programs. They indicate that culture shock tends to expand to fill what I will call the "temporal envelope" of the immersion period in a different *culture* (albeit not necessarily a different language). They suggest:

> The phases of culture shock tend to stretch out to accommodate the length
> of stay. The person who spends a year overseas will not find his culture
> shock and adjustment tribulations compressed into six weeks and enjoy ten
> and a half months of bicultural tranquillity. The culture shock/adjustment
> phase will instead stretch to three or four months or more (p. 47).

Given the typical goals of short-term intensive language programs are cultural and/or linguistic immersion, culture shock may be of both theoretical and administrative concern. In a three-week program, the first week could constitute the "honeymoon period" ("everything's great"), the second week would be less inviting ("everything's

difficult, nobody understands, when do I go home"), and the third week would see an upsurge in enthusiasm ("life's getting better, my English is getting better" and "I'm going home soon"). In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, the influence of the temporal period or constraints on linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change is addressed in a number of ways, and from the perspective of both teachers and students [see discussion, Section 1.6.6]. For example, changes in the amount of time available for curricular and/or extracurricular contact is considered a situational constraint.

It is interesting to note that jet lag may be more often cited as a factor to be taken into consideration in the classroom than culture shock.[18] Given the time difference and distances involved in travel from Japan, this concern in the initial stages of a program is perhaps not unwarranted. Yet while fatigue from travelling is apparently considered to influence classroom interactions, the influence of culture shock does not appear to have been explored in depth[19] (nor will it be in this dissertation). However, effects of culture shock may include fatigue, anxiety, loss of appetite, depression, anger against the target culture, aversion to target culture, and/or development of a "mental block" against the target language.[20] In other words, it could be a factor in "perceptual change" with respect to attitudes toward the target language and/or language group, and as noted previously, it may influence interest and expectations in the classroom, and therefore, it may influence pedagogical change and/or "class fit."

Despite the possibility of culture-shock induced fatigue playing a role in classroom behaviours, it should also be noted that it has been suggested that for Japanese students to "nod off" in class is arguably a culturally mediated and/or condoned process. Anecdotal evidence from both Japanese nationals, and Westerners familiar with Japanese culture, suggests that due to the hectic pace of life in Japan (especially with respect to the large

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[18] Personal communication (Dennis Okada).

[19] Apparently the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher(s) also did not consider it a major concern (G.Allen, personal communication).

[20] See discussions of effects of culture shock in Seelye (1992) and Sikkema and Niyekawa (1987).

number of commuters), the tendency to fall asleep when seated is not as severely sanctioned as it would tend to be in North America. In other words, it is not deemed to be impolite behaviour because the sleeping individual is not considered to be imposing or bothering anyone else. However, this behaviour has also been suggested to be negatively evaluated by ESL teachers (in other words, within their BAK). Therefore, such negative attributions or valuations could influence class fit if the teacher(s) interpret students falling asleep as a reaction to a boring class or student insolence (internal perceptions). Research discussed in Section 1.4 clearly supports the influence of student behaviour as a conditioning factor in teacher behaviour. Item #50 of the teacher post-course questionnaire attempts to address this issue ("I believe a successful Japanese ESL student is one who sleeps in class").

In addition, the extreme fatigue or sleepiness of students may also be interpreted as resulting from cultural shock [see discussion, Section 3.2.1.4.1]. Future research should attempt to focus more closely on such phenomena as it is beyond the scope of this study.

1.6 Study-abroad programs

The study-abroad context has traditionally been an area of research ripe with folklinguistic attributions of benefits (Miller and Ginsberg, 1995), but relatively little scientific research, although, as Freed (1995b) notes, "[the] context of learning, of course, has been identified as one of the crucial variables in SLA" (p. 4). The widespread belief in the benefits of study-abroad programs is demonstrated in recent statistics showing that in 1993-1994, close to half a million foreign students entered the United States to study, while 100,000 foreign students studied in Japan, and 71,000 American students participated in study-abroad programs (Freed, 1995b). In addition, the European Union expects to allocate $1.25 billion over the next 5 years to expand student exchange programs (Freed, 1995b). These developments highlight the importance of the study-abroad format, and of the need for analysis of theoretical and practical issues related to these programs.

Current research on study-abroad programs and cultural immersion programs appears to support the hypothesis that language learners who have spent time in the target

language environment tend to demonstrate higher levels of linguistic proficiency when compared with learners who have not had similar exposure to the target language culture (Brecht et al., 1995; Brecht & Robinson, 1995; Clément, 1979; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977a & b; Freed, 1995a, b & c; Gardner et al., 1974; Gardner, Smythe & Brunet, 1977; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Guntermann, 1995; Hanna & Smith, 1979; Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; Huebner, 1995; Lafford, 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; MacFarlane, 1998; Marriott, 1995; Polanyi, 1995; Regan, 1995; Shapson, Kaufman & Day, 1981; Siegal, 1995; Sikkema & Niyekawa, 1987; Tucker & Lambert, 1970).

Robert Gardner (1985) suggests that the benefits of short-term cultural immersion programs may result from the format of the program. He states

> The possible superiority of brief experiences and the nature of these experiences are also implicated in studies of intensive language programmes....[as]...more changes seem to be reported for programmes involving immersion for six weeks or less than for programmes lasting a year or more (Gardner, 1985: 106).

Although Gardner does not clearly identify to which specific changes he is referring in this quote, others have suggested "fluency" - broadly defined - to be the most salient linguistic change (Freed, 1995a, 1995c), and positive attitudes towards the target language and/or target language speakers, and higher motivation to be the most salient perceptual changes (Freed, 1995a; Gardner, 1985; MacFarlane, 1998).

General findings have also suggested that study-abroad programs provide the most benefit to relatively novice language learners. However, Freed (1995a) and others (Brecht et al., 1995; Lafford, 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995) have cautioned that the frequent finding of greater degree of (positive) change in the case of lower proficiency students then with higher level students may be an artifact of tests which are not sensitive to the less extreme advances made by higher level students. In other words, students who already have a good grasp of the target language may not show the massive vocabulary acquisition or large changes in accurate use of the language that a student with little or no previous knowledge could demonstrate (a ceiling effect). Of course, these findings are also consistent with the often observed complaint of intermediate and advanced ESL students and their teachers

that they do not "see much progress" in their work (by comparison with beginners). This issue was previously discussed from the perspective of language acquisition and language activation [Section 1.1.3]. Therefore, it is suggested that the use of frequency analysis of specific changes in linguistic production such as pause time or number of grammatical errors (Freed, 1995c; Lennon, 1990) allows a more sensitive measure of change regardless of student level.

A number of program variations and specific factors in short-term intensive language programs and study-abroad programs have been studied which integrate a number of these factors. These variations include length of program, focus/purpose of program, format of program, attributes studied, and data collection and research methodology. I will review this literature to provide a rationale for the data collection and analysis used in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study.

1.6.1 Short-term and Study-abroad programs: Length of program

Studies of short-term and study-abroad language programs have shown considerable diversity in length of program. For example, programs have ranged from one-day (Cziko & Lambert, 1976) and four-day socio-cultural excursions (Gardner et al., 1974; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977a & b) to two-week (Clément, 1979), three-week (Hoeh & Spuck, 1975), four-week (Shapson et al., 1981), five-week (Gardner et al., 1977), and six-week intensive language programmes (Lambert et al., 1963). Study-abroad programs have ranged from three months (or one semester) (Lapkin et al., 1995) to several years (Siegal, 1995).

Of course, based on Gardner's (1985) earlier comment [see Section 1.6], we might expect to see the most change within the shortest periods of time. Although this does not appear to necessarily be the case, shorter term programs may offer the advantage of assessing day by day changes, and evaluating the impact these temporal parameters may have on both students and teachers. As the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study was based on a three-week study-abroad language program with both sociocultural excursion and intensive language format characteristics, the context appears compatible with the research discussed above.

1.6.2 Short-term and Study-abroad programs: Focus or purpose of program

The majority of short-term and/or study-abroad programs have had as their goals or purposes sociocultural exposure (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Cziko & Lambert, 1976; Gardner et al., 1974), and/or language development/practice (or linguistic orientation) (Clément, 1979; Gardner et al., 1977; Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; Huebner, 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; Shapson et al., 1981). In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, the primary goal from both the perspective of the administration and the teachers was sociocultural exposure, although it was hypothesized in this study that the students also strongly considered language development and practice to be a goal. Therefore it was anticipated that some initial disparity between teacher and student expectations with respect to pedagogical goals would be found. As noted previously, combining interview and questionnaire data collection allowed both of these issues to be studied from the perspective of linguistic and perceptual change in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, as well as allowing triangulation of data analysis.

1.6.3 Short-term and Study-abroad programs: Format

Variations in the formats of programs which have been previously studied included variations in living situations such as excursion, residential, homestay, second language versus foreign language locations, etc. [See discussions in Gardner (1985) and Freed (1995a)]. Perhaps not surprisingly, typically the more "immersed" the learner was such as homestay versus excursion, and/or foreign language location versus second language, the greater the changes observed (Freed, 1995a). Similarly, other "situational variables" such as the number of hours in class, the extent and form of extracurricular activity, amount of contact (allowed/possible) with target culture population, also have an impact on the parameters for change, although little interprogram comparison appears to have been done [as noted in Freed's (1995a) Theoretical and Practical issues for study in Section 1.0.1].[21] These findings support the need to include the impact of the actual living situation (such as extracurricular activity) into a model of linguistic, perceptual, and

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[21]These issues are beyond the scope of this study.

pedagogical change.

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute format was primarily residential with students staying in the university residences, and with one optional 'home-stay' day-trip. Students were in class four hours daily, with daily extracurricular activities. Contact with target culture population was encouraged, but the amount of contact varied by individual, due to the large number of Japanese students living together.

Extracurricular contact was examined only indirectly in the student questionnaire, although student interviewees were asked "How many native speakers did you talk to this week?" Indirect questionnaire measures included change in responses to items such as the following: #PR27/PS9 ("I think I know how to behave appropriately with Canadians"), #PR28/PS10 ("I feel confident speaking English to Canadians"), #PR29/PS11 ("I feel comfortable socializing with Canadians"), #PS16 ("In this program, I was given opportunities to meet Canadians"), #PR53/PS33 ("I think making friends with Canadians is very difficult/difficult/OK/easy/very easy"), #PR54/PS34 ("I think speaking English to a shop clerk in a store or a bus driver is very difficult/ difficult/OK/easy/very easy"), and #PR82/PS62 ("I speak with native speakers outside of class always/often/sometimes/ rarely never").

1.6.4 Short-term and Study-abroad programs: Factors studied

Factors studied in previous research on short-term and/or study-abroad programs have tended to focus on what I will be defining as linguistic and perceptual change (not pedagogical change). For example, factors which have been used in previous research which I re-examine within the context of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute include categories of *perceptual change* such as *changes in attitudes towards the target language and/or target language speakers, learning languages,* etc. (Brecht et al., 1995; Clément, 1979; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977a & b; Gardner et al., 1974; Gardner, Smythe & Brunet, 1977; Hanna & Smith, 1979; Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; Lapkin et al., 1995; Polanyi, 1995; Siegal, 1995; Shapson, Kaufman & Day, 1981; Tucker & Lambert, 1970), and *language use anxiety* (Clément, 1979; Gardner et al., 1977; Gardner, Smythe & Clément, 1979).

Specific perceptual factors which have been the focus of earlier research have included *attitudes towards French Canadian and/or French speakers* (Clément, 1979; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Cziko & Lambert, 1976; Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Gardner et al., 1974; Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; Lapkin et al., 1995; Lambert et al., 1963; Shapson et al., 1981), *French culture and/or life* (Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; Lapkin et al., 1995; Shapson et al., 1981), *the self and other* (Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; Siegal, 1995), *anomie* (Lambert et al., 1963; Tucker & Lambert, 1970), *ethnocentrism* (Cziko & Lambert, 1976; Gardner et al., 1977; Lapkin et al., 1995), *motivations for learning languages* (instrumental vs. integrative orientations, in Brecht et al., 1995; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Cziko & Lambert, 1976; Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Gardner et al., 1977), *parental attitudes towards French speakers, French culture, and/or French language* (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Desrochers & Gardner, 1981), *personality traits or characteristics such as authoritarianism* (Brecht et al., 1995; Lambert et al., 1963) *and francophilia* (Tucker & Lambert, 1970), *behaviourial characteristics such as high/low contact* (Brecht et al., 1995; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Cziko & Lambert, 1976; Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Lafford, 1995), *motivational intensity to learn French* (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Cziko & Lambert, 1976), *evaluation and perceived utility/value of the (French) course or programme* (Brecht & Robinson, 1995; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Shapson et al., 1981), *attitudinal/motivational attributes* (Shapson et al., 1981), and *perceived value of instruction in study-abroad contexts* (Brecht & Robinson, 1995). Correlates to these factors found in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study include motivations for learning languages, and attitudes towards Canada and Canadians.

Factors which I would categorize as *linguistic*, or language-based, measures used in previous studies include *language aptitude/ability*, which may also arguably be considered a "perceptual factor" (Brecht et al., 1995; Shapson, Kaufman & Day, 1981), *fluency* (Freed, 1995c; Lapkin et al., 1995), *acquisition of politeness patterns* (Marriott, 1995), and *acquisition and/or use of communication strategies* (Lafford, 1995). Specific factors of interest have included *knowledge and or use of French or foreign language(s)*

(Brech et al., 1995; Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Gardner et al., 1977; Huebner, 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; Marriott, 1995; Siegal, 1995; Regan, 1995), *continued study of the L2* (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Cziko & Lambert, 1976), *behaviourial intention to use language* (Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Lapkin et al., 1995), *behaviourial intention to interact with French Canadians* (Desrochers & Gardner, 1981), *French (or language) use anxiety* (Clément, 1979; Cziko & Lambert, 1976; Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Gardner et al., 1977; Lapkin et al., 1995; Shapson et al., 1981), *French language proficiency* (Lapkin et al., 1995; Shapson et al., 1981), *knowledge of French and English Canadian culture* (Shapson et al., 1981), *self-ratings of French skill* (Lapkin et al., 1995; Shapson et al., 1981), *use of communicative strategies* (Lafford, 1995), *the acquisition of politeness in Japanese* (Huebner, 1995), *competing pragmatic demands in Japanese* (Siegal, 1995), and the *influence of gender on quality and quantity of extracurricular interactions* (Polanyi, 1995).

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, a number of factors were studied, including language use anxiety, perceptions of difficulty of language learning, changes in fluency, knowledge of Canadian culture, desire to return to Canada, behaviourial intent to interact with Canadians, self-ratings of English language use comfort, and expectations of class roles and activities. Language aptitude/ability was not directly accessible in this study for administrative reasons (pre-course ESL grades were not available). The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study also provided data from the ESL teachers on a number of the factors discussed above (such as perceptions of language learning difficulty, self as language learner, etc.), as well as a number of other factors.

1.6.5 Short-term and Study-abroad programs: Results

Previous research on short-term immersion or study-abroad programs has found such programs to be generally effective in increasing positive attitudes towards the target linguistic/cultural group, lessening language anxiety, promoting positive attitudes towards the study of the language, increasing participation in second-language classroom activities, and improving linguistic competence, especially fluency [see discussions in Clément

(1979) and Freed (1995a)]. As noted above, similar measures were included in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study.

Students in study-abroad programs have also been found to have larger repertoires of communicative strategies for initiating, maintaining, expanding, and/or terminating a communicative situation than those limited to formal learning situations (Lafford, 1995), in other words, indicating linguistic change. Only a few studies have suggested any negative trait increases such as anomie and ethnocentricism (Gardner et al., 1977; Lambert et al., 1963), decreases in positive attitudes toward target cultures among low contact students (Cziko & Lambert, 1976), or gender-based differences in benefit derived from overseas study (Polanyi, 1995; Siegal, 1995). However, individual variation in acquisition and performance has been a relatively frequent finding (Freed, 1995c; Huebner, 1995; Marriott, 1995; Siegal, 1995). The latter issue was investigated in the analysis of student interview data from the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study.

1.6.6 Temporal dimensions

The relative lack of discussion and/or development of a theoretical framework or model to address the influence of the short-term immersion program within a general framework or theory of second language acquisition on linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change of the specific temporal aspects is problematic. The issue of time as a factor, limit or constraint, on language acquisition has been noted by Gardner (1985), who attributes the amount of change in short-term programs to the time constraint itself, and Woods (1996), who discusses the role of perceived and real "administrative" constraints on teachers' expectations for outcomes of specific activities, courses, and programs. Other researchers, however, who have investigated "temporality" in language have typically not defined it in the same manner it will be defined in this dissertation. While temporality can be interpreted in a formal linguistic sense (e.g., use of tense, aspect, etc.), in my framework, it is defined as the influence of time with or on linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change in a three-week study-abroad program.

Gardner (1985) suggests that the "superiority" of short-term programs lies in the time frame itself. However, as noted above, little has been done to systematically identify

or account for linguistic or pedagogical change within a specifically temporal framework. This oversight is unfortunate as anecdotal evidence appears to support the existence of what I will refer to as a "window of opportunity" for a class and its teacher to "click" or develop a high level of "class fit." In other words, if the teacher(s) and student(s) are unable to accommodate to each other, the class dynamic may be adversely effected (possibly permanently), if insufficient time and/or opportunity exists to change it. This "window of opportunity" could therefore be critical within the hard temporal constraints of a short-term intensive or study-abroad language program. In fact, many of the teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute specifically mentioned the time frame as a factor in what they expected to be able to accomplish in the program [see discussion, Section 4.4.1].

Gardner (1985) alludes to temporally-based factors when he suggests that the time period of the programs may itself help to explain the relative superiority of a short-term intensive language program in producing change in attitude(s), as well as other situational factors. Some of these factors have direct relevance to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, including "types of students," which is formalized as "student factors" in the LPPC Model, "the novelty of the shorter programme," which is included under "temporal dimensions" of the short-term program within teacher and student expectations of the program (what they expect to accomplish within the constraints of the program), "attitude change," which is addressed under measures of "perceptual change," and finally, Gardner's allusion to fluency changes (in other words, linguistic change), when he suggests students may be "more relaxed and confident when speaking the language."

Gardner hypothesizes that

[Findings of research in short term immersion programs] could be due to possible differences in the *types of students* [my emphasis] who become involved in the respective programmes, but it seems more likely that the *novelty of the shorter* programme [my emphasis] mediates the *attitude change* [my emphasis]. Students who enrolled in long term programmes may appreciate their unique experience, but, after initial positive reactions toward the other language community, their attitudes might tend to come

into line with their environment. Other than the fact that they are being trained in a language other than their home one, they are like any other student in that they have homework to do, friendships and arguments with colleagues, expectations and worries, etc. *The act of becoming proficient in the second language may not produce changes in social attitudes or motivation* [my emphasis]. It may...make them *more relaxed and confident when speaking the language* [my emphasis], but why should it necessarily change attitudinal and motivational attributes of a more general nature at that time. Later on, when the course is over and when students have the opportunity to contrast their experiences with those of friends and colleagues from different educational backgrounds, they may recognize their advantage. But this need not happen at the time of the training and may not result in attitudinal/motivational changes (Gardner, 1985: 106).

One should note that if the above is true we would anticipate that "first impressions" and the "window of opportunity" for creating a positive class dynamic (or "class fit") may be more salient or identifiable at the level of the perspectives of the teachers and/or students (e.g., as accessible via interview or questionnaire data). Further, the interaction of "teacher" and "student" factors would influence and define "student achievement" and "teacher achievement." This interaction is the basis of the processes described in the LPPC Model developed in this analysis.

The majority of research addressing the issue of temporality in second language acquisition has done so from the perspective of acquisition of specific linguistic features over time (Major, 1994), or aspects of oral production, such as speech rate (Griffiths, 1990; Lennon, 1990) (as noted earlier). In addition, temporality has typically not been examined within the context of a short-term or study-abroad program. For example, Griffiths (1990: 312) maintains that the temporal variables of particular interest of L2 pedagogy are speech rate (SR) and pause phenomena (PP) such as pause duration, distribution, and frequency. In other words, he defines "temporal variables" to mean language use as measured by time or frequency (not change over time). Freed (1995c) also discusses the acquisition or development of "global fluency" by study-abroad participants, but she compares participants in a study-abroad program with a control group who stayed at home. Her findings indicate that study-abroad participants speak both more and significantly faster than non-study-abroad participants, with speech which tends

to be smoother, insofar as the occurrence of fewer clusters of dysfluencies and longer streams of continuous speech. While Freed does not discuss how much time was necessary to cause change, which, of course, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study does, the fact that both her study and this study both include investigation of fluency changes over in a study-abroad program provides support for adaptation of her methodology to this study. Lafford's (1995) research on differences in use of communication strategies between study-abroad participants and non-study-abroad students also suggests study-abroad participants show greater ease of language use, abundance of language, and more native-like speech than non-study-abroad participants. However, as she does not identify specific temporal periods in which these differences developed, her focus is not directly applicable to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute context.

Thus, while the findings appear to support specific areas of language change in study-abroad and/or short-term programs, it is apparent that little analysis has been done to correlate specific types of linguistic change to specific temporal parameters. Thus, the analysis of student interview data for specific areas of linguistic change in weekly observations in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study adds a new dimension to the discussion of language change (and arguably language acquisition and/or language activation).

In order to identify, or at least narrow, potential critical windows for language and/or attitudinal change, a comprehensive approach is necessary. By combining both word-level and topic-level perspectives and triangulating data collection from questionnaire and interview formats, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study attempts to overcome some of the limitations outlined above in analyzing linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. Specifically, in order to analyze linguistic change to identify development or change in oral production within the three-week time period, a structured quantitative method was chosen to facilitate and identify changes which could occur in linguistic factors in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute short-term intensive language program, at one week intervals, two week

intervals, or three-week intervals. Findings of Freed (1995c), Lennon (1990) and Gardner (1985) appear to suggest that increased "fluency" is one of the most salient results of . study-abroad (and/or short-term programs), which provides a rationale for the focus on this area with respect to linguistic change in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study.

Freed (1995c: 127) notes, however, that "despite a cluster of agreed-upon components of fluent speech, there appear to be considerable individual differences in both the expression and perception of fluency." She attempts to operationalize the components to which she refers by identifying speech rate, number of dysfluent pauses, amount of speech, length of utterance or longer speech runs, and reformulation of speech (which may result in more false starts, etc.) as fluency markers (Freed, 1995c). Based on her study, which is one of the very few studies focussing on fluency in a context very similar to that of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, I will analyze linguistic change based on fluency measures such as mean length of utterance, total number of utterances, range, number of grammatical and lexical errors, number of incomplete responses, number of student-initiated topic changes and number of inappropriate responses.

Lennon (1990) also offers a convincing argument for developing a measure of "fluency" which is clearly operationalized, although not all aspects of his work are relevant to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. He proposes that fluency can be used in both a broad sense and a narrow sense (pp. 389-90):

> (i) Broad sense: cover term for oral proficiency (e.g., being fluent in a foreign language is a "mark of social accomplishment");
> (ii) Narrow sense: one component of oral proficiency (e.g., correctness, idiomaticity relevance, appropriateness, pronunciation, lexical range); also can be used diagnostically by teachers (e.g., "fluent but grammatically inaccurate," or "speak correctly but not very fluently"); readily extends to cover other elements of oral proficiency.

Lennon further clarifies his definition of fluency, commenting:

> Fluency differs from the other elements of oral proficiency
> in one important respect...whereas such other elements as

> idiomaticness [sic], appropriateness, lexical range, and
> syntactic complexity can all be assigned to linguistic
> knowledge, *fluency is purely a performance phenomenon*
> [my emphasis]; there is...no fluency "store"...[However]...
> *dysfluency markers...make the listener aware of the*
> *production process under strain* [my emphasis] (p. 391)

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, therefore "fluency" is been defined in the "narrow sense" of fluency by measuring mean length of utterance, total number of utterances, range, number of grammatical and lexical errors, number of incomplete responses, number of student-initiated topic changes and number of inappropriate responses. The broad sense of fluency, in addition to being more of a layperson's usage than linguistic usage of the term, would not be easily operationalized, and therefore it would be of little value to the analysis of language change.

However, Lennon's explicit recognition of the narrow sense of fluency as a (sub)component of a larger concept of language proficiency, or "language proficiency" as arguably being synonymous with the broad sense of fluency, is significant to the study of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program. The importance lies in the fact that linguistic change within a three-week language program may be measured or identified by *perception of change* (or perceptual change - student and teacher self-report questionnaire responses) as well as from actual performance data (or linguistic change via interviews). For example, while the pre/post-course questionnaires assess student and teacher *perceptions* of improvement in language comfort and ability, they do not directly analyze *oral fluency*. Thus, while teacher perceptions of student improvement may include student willingness to participate, student interest in class activities, student ability to respond in specific situations, etc., an independent measure of change in oral production is still necessary. Therefore, triangulating measures of student perceptions of improvement (questionnaire) with independent quantitative measurements of changes in oral production will allow us to

address the limitations of self-report data alone.[22] The primary limitations of self-report data are that it relies on subject introspection, and as such may be influenced by subject self-censorship, conscious or unconcious bias, or simple memory lapse (Babbie, 1992). However, by repeating similar questions on questionnaires and interviews, the researcher can identify any inconsistencies in reporting which may reveal biases such as those noted above. In the case of linguistic change, by comparing (or triangulating) student perceptions of change, teacher perception of change, and independent analysis of the language data itself, the possible influence of bias on any one of the three indices is minimized.

Such independent support is also necessary because student self-assessment of fluency is frequently externally or feedback oriented, or determined by success and/or frequency of interactions in the target language (Freed, 1995c). External assessment of fluency may involve what will be referred to here as the "foreign accent factor" (FAF).[23] The FAF would result from evaluations (or perceptions) of non-native production which has been influenced (or created) in part by simply the *perception of foreign accent* by the native-speaker interlocutor.

Lennon (1990) addresses the probable influence of *perceived foreign accent* on native-speaker/non-native speaker interactions, commenting

> 'Foreign accent'...may alert the native speaker to the fact that the
> interlocutor is a nonnative, and that pauses, repetitions, self-
> corrections and the like are then more likely to be interpreted as
> dysfluency than they would be if produced by a native speaker (p.
> 394-5).

By contrast, Munro and Derwing (1995) found that although strength of foreign accent is correlated with perceived comprehensibility and intelligibility, a strong foreign accent does not necessarily reduce comprehensibility or intelligibility of L2 speech.

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[22]For discussion of limitations of self-report data, see discussions in Seliger and Shohamy (1989), and Woods (1996).

[23]In fact, a number of teachers specifically refer to aspects of pronunciation change in their attributions of success [see discussion, Section, 4.2.1].

Four categories or features of fluency variables that Lennon (1990: 392-3) cites as having previously been applied to second language fluency include:

(i) temporal variables: such as speech rate in words per minute or syllables per minute; length and positioning of silent pauses; length of fluent speech runs between pauses; frequency and distribution of filled pauses; repetitions; self-corrections

(ii) rhetorical features: such as pauses, which may be defined with respect to 'spurts' or 'information units,' or longer 'episodes'; Lounsbury's 'juncture pauses' and 'hestitation pauses'

(iii) lexical versus syntactic fluency: such as repetition coupled with pause immediately before content word indicating lexical search; false starts, incomplete clauses, and retracings from previous clause boundary indicating syntactic planning problems

(iv) paralinguistic features: such as eye contact, gesture, hesitation (to signal need for assistance), co-operation (shadowing, duetting)

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute short-term intensive language program study, Lennon's categories (1), (2) and (3), in a modified form, were incorporated into the analysis of interview data for linguistic change. For example, Category (1) type variables employed in the analysis included mean length of utterance (MLU), total number of utterances (per student per interview), range (difference between maximum and minimum length of utterance per student per interview). In addition, Category (2) type variables included topic change and inappropriate responses, and Category (3) type variables included number of grammatical errors, number of lexical errors, and number of incomplete responses.

1.6.7 Study-abroad programs and second language acquisition theory

Unfortunately, as noted by Freed (1995b), studies of language acquisition in short term immersion and study-abroad programs generally have not been incorporated into any specific theory of second language acquisition. Nor has the contribution of the pedagogical or teacher/classroom side of the equation been examined in this context, with the rare exception of use of program evaluations to assess student achievement (Clément,

Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Shapson et al., 1981) or perceived value of instruction (Brecht & Robinson, 1995). Within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, pedagogical change is defined by the perspectives of both students and teachers of classroom activities, expectations and roles.

This apparent oversight is problematic because of the impact teacher variables (or "Teacher Factors") are assumed to generally have on second language acquisition. Robert Gardner (1985) has commented:

> It is meaningful to assume that classes could differ considerably in achievement and/or attitudes because of pedagogical techniques, teacher variables, etc....to ignore such necessary controls is to assume that training, pedagogical techniques, teacher personality, etc., do not influence attitudes and/or language achievement, and this is obviously not a reasonable assumption (pp. 79-80).

The one main exception in the second language acquisition literature has been Woods' (1996) analysis of the influence of a teacher's BAK on their classroom behaviours and their interpretation of classroom events [see discussion, Section 1.4.6], which provides a useful construct for the analysis of factors influencing pedagogical and perceptual change in a short-term program.

Woods' (1996) study provides support for Gardner's position, as well as supporting the methodology used in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. Based on an ethnographic methodology combining teacher interviews, diaries, and classroom observation of eight teachers over the course of a semester, Woods found strong evidence for the power of his construct "BAK" to explain differences in how individual teachers would react or act to specific events and/or constraints.

The methodology employed in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study allows further exploration of the "BAK" factor, or the modified "BAK+" which I proposed [Section 1.4.6] to expand to include not only teacher (and student) "beliefs, attitudes and knowledge," in other words "perceptions or expectations," but also to include specific and general pedagogical and linguistic change such as linguistic, perceptual and pedadogical factors.

1.7 The LPPC model

In this section, I will describe the goals of the development of the LPPC Interactive Model, as well as the processes postulated for the Model to describe the interaction of student and teacher participant factors, with situational and temporal factors in second language acquisition.

1.7.1 Goals

The development of the model of Linguistic, Perceptual and Pedagogical Change (LPPC) has three primary goals. The first goal involves the *identification of areas and types of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change* in a short-term or study-abroad program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. The second goal includes the *identification of factors* involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change. The third goal is the *identification of program outcomes* such as teacher achievement and student achievement.

In order to achieve the first goal, the identification of areas of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change is based on the analysis of questionnaire and interview data collected from both students and teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. The factors involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change are categorized into three types of factors: *participant factors, temporal factors, and situational factors*. Based on the research reviewed in the previous sections, the category of "participant factors" will include three aggregate factors: (i) "TBAK+" which includes teacher beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, language background, teaching style and strategies, gender, culture, educational experience and background, and other demographic influences[24]; (ii) "SBAK+" which includes student attitudes, knowledge, language background, learning style and strategies, gender, culture, educational experience and background, and other demographic influences; and (iii) "CBAK+", or class BAK, which will be defined as the aggregate result of a group of students' "SBAK+s".

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[24]"Other demographic influences" are defined in Section 1.4.6.

The category of "temporal factors" will include the amount of time involved in a particular program, how the time is used for curricular or extracurricular activities, and any influence the temporal parameters may have on the behaviour or perceptions of program participants. Thirdly, "situational factors" will include degree of class fit (or degree of similarity or compatibility between TBAK+, SBAK+ and/or CBAK+), administrative or curricular constraints, and pedagogical interactions (such as use and reception of specific techniques, activities, etc.). "Temporal variables" will be differentiated from "situational variables" to enable the identification of "critical windows" in short-term or study-abroad programs, although a strong argument could be made for their inclusion as "situational variables."

Finally, the identification of program outcomes such as teacher achievement and student achievement is based on the following measures. Both teacher and student achievement were hypothesized to include both external and internal factors. Teacher achievement is therefore defined with respect internal factors such as perceptual change, and external factors such as pedagogical change and student achievement. Student achievement is defined with respect to internal factors such as perceptual and pedagogical change, and perception of linguistic change, and external factors such as linguistic change (as measured with respect to fluency markers, etc.).

1.7.2 Processes in the LPPC model

As illustrated in the LPPC Interaction model [Figure 4, below], it is hypothesized that both students (S) and teachers (T) enter a short-term intensive language and/or study abroad program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute with certain types of expectations as part of their BAK+s such as student expectations of program *(Sprog)*, and teacher expectations of program (*Tprog*) based on the interaction of a number of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical factors which will differentially influence the outcomes, including;

> (i) past experience(s) with the other culture, or *perceptions* of the other culture including student knowledge and perceptions of Canadians *(Skpc),*
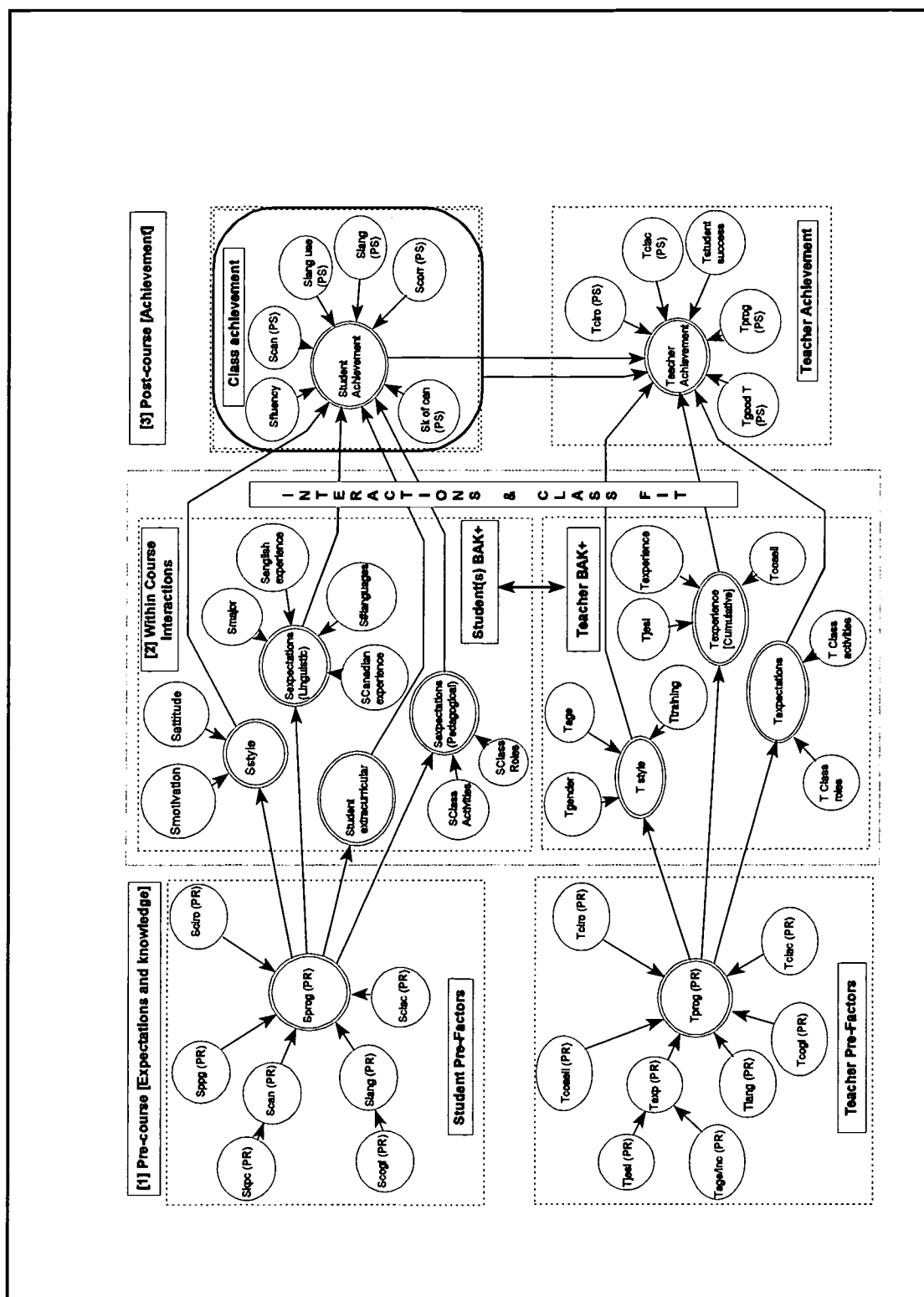
Figure 4   The LPPC Interactive Model of SLA

student knowledge of Canada (*Scan*), teacher experience with Japanese students (*Tjesl*),

(ii) past experience(s) with the program format, or *pedagogical* situation including teacher experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (*Tcoaeli*), student experience with Canadian teachers (*Sppg*)

(iii) expectations concerning program format, or *pedagogical expectations* such as student expectations concerning class activities (*Sclac*) and class roles (*Sclro*), and teacher expectations concerning class activities (*Tclac*) and class roles (*Tclro*)

(iv) individual cognitive/learning and other differences such as student cognitive/learning style and strategies (*Scogl*), teacher cognitive/learning style and strategies (*Tcogl*), teacher age and income (*Tage/income*)

(v) language based differences, or *linguistic* knowledge including student and/or teacher knowledge and/or interest of other languages *(Slang)* or (*Tlang*).

Further, it is hypothesized that *teacher style* (*T style*), which is defined in the study by teacher training (Ttraining), gender (Tgender), age (Tage), and cognitive/ learning style (Tcogl), will interact with *teacher experience* (*T experience*), which is defined as overall classroom experience (Texp), experience with Japanese students (Tjesl), experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (Tjesl), and with *teacher expectations* (*Texpect ped*), classroom roles (Tclro), and class activities (Tclac). These three teacher variables, which cumulatively form "TBAK+", will influence *classroom practice* (activities, techniques, etc.) within the context of a short-term intensive study-abroad language program to differing degrees.

Teacher variables (or TBAK+) will then interact during the program with *student variables* (SBAK+). SBAK+ will be based on *student style,* which includes motivation (Smotivation), cognitive/learning styles (Scogl) and demographic variations (Sses), *student linguistic expectations,* which include major (Smajor), experience with English (Sengex), number of languages spoken (S#langs), previous experience with Canada and/or Canadians (Scanexp), and *student pedagogical expectations,* with respect to classroom roles (Sclro) and activities (Sclac).

The interaction of TBAK+ and SBAK+, together with situational factors such as *student extracurricular contact* (Student extracurr contact), will influence *student*

achievement, which is defined as increased fluency (Sfluency), positive perceptions of Canada and Canadians (Scan), increased comfort in language use (Slang use) and comprehension (Slang), increased knowledge of Canada (Sk of can), and desire to return to Canada (Scorr). The interaction between TBAK+ and SBAK+, and/or the interaction of TBAK+ and the group (CBAK+) will influence *teacher achievement,* which is defined as positive assessment of student(s) success (Tstudent success), self-assessment as a good teacher of Japanese students (TgoodT), positive assessment of the program (Tprog), and "realistic" expectations of classroom roles (Tclro) and activities (Tclac).

1.8 Chapter summary

In this chapter, a number of issues concerning the context of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study and the development of the LPPC model were discussed. First, the applicability of concepts and/or constructs from a number of theories of second language acquisition and second language pedagogy to the specific context of the short-term intensive language program was considered. Second, a rationale for basing a model of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term and/or study-abroad program on a modification of the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985) and Woods (1996) "BAK" was offered. This rationale included the proposal of the modified BAK construct (e.g., TBAK+, SBAK+, and CBAK+). Third, a discussion of research on short-term programs was presented to contextualize the issues of temporal dimensions. Finally, a model of interaction within a short-term intensive language program, including a parallel construct to student achievement, labelled "teacher achievement,"and based on modifications of the Socioeducational Model, was developed.

Chapter Two: Research Design and Methodology

2.0 Introduction: Issues in Methodology

The methods of data collection used in research on short-term and/or study-abroad programs have been quite diverse, although researchers have typically relied on (i) test scores (usually pre/post-course) to measure linguistic skills, and/or (ii) questionnaires, interviews and/or diary self-report techniques to collect attitudinal (or perceptual) and/or pedagogical information. Due to the scope of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, which examined both student and teacher populations, a balance between depth, breadth, and time constraints was required in the design and methodology.

In a number of studies which examined similar areas of interest and/or similar populations as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, pre- and/or post-course Likert scale questionnaires were used to collect demographic and self-report data on attitudes towards language programs, language learning and specific pedagogical aspects of the classroom. Such data collection instruments were used by Gardner (1985) and many others in examining the perspective of language learners (Brecht et al., 1995; Brecht & Robinson, 1995; Clément, 1979; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977a & b; Freed, 1995a, b & c; Gardner et al., 1974; Gardner, Smythe & Brunet, 1977; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Guntermann, 1995; Hanna & Smith, 1979; Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; Huebner, 1995; Lafford, 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; MacFarlane, 1998; Marriott, 1995; Polanyi, 1995; Regan, 1995; Shapson, Kaufman & Day, 1981). While it should be noted that any questionnaire is only as valid as its individual items, Likert scales are said to minimize the limitations of forced choice questionnaires by giving respondents more choice of response, while facilitating factor analysis and other statistical analysis (Babbie, 1992). In addition, since many of the items incorporated into the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute questionnaires were based on items from previously tested instruments such as Gardner's (1985) AMTB [see discussion in Section 1.2.1] and Oxford's (1990) SILL [see discussion in Section 1.3.3], their reliability would generally be considered to be higher than previously untested items (Babbie, 1992). With a subject population of 384 students and 14 teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, having a questionnaire format which could be computer-

scanned was also a planning concern. Likert-scale questionnaires are easily adapted to this type of data collection.

Many second language acquisition studies have also included some form of interview to provide further depth of analysis and triangulation (Brecht et al., 1995; Brecht & Robinson, 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; MacFarlane, 1998; Marriott, 1995; Polanyi, 1995). Interviews were also used in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study design with the teachers and a subset of students to facilitate identification of specific areas of linguistic change (Freed, 1996c; Lennon, 1990) and to provide triangulation with questionnaire responses, especially with respect to items which were repeated in both formats (e.g., perceptions of language change, pedagogical expectations, etc.).

Research studies concerning teacher perspectives, which were also a focus of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, have also employed both Likert-type scale questionnaires (Ames, 1986; Hanson-Frieze et al., 1983; Kassabgy et al., 1998; Woods, 1996), and interviews (Oxford, 1998; Oxford et al., 1998; Rohrkemper & Brophy, 1983; Woods, 1996). For example, Woods (1996) analyzed interviews, diaries, teaching logs, and classroom observations of eight ESL teachers to develop his model of teacher cognition which proposes the primary factor in explaining teachers' perceptions and behaviours to be their "BAK" (or beliefs, attitudes and knowledge) [see discussion in Section 1.4.6]. Woods' BAK covers many of the same factors as "teacher style," "teacher experience" and "teacher expectations/perceptions" in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study analysis, and his use of complementary methods of data collection and analysis provides an appropriate model within the limits of the study. Oxford (1998) also used a combination of data collection and analysis techniques to examine the influence of demotivation in second language learning.

Therefore, to develop a balanced view of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute both interviews and questionnaires were used to collect data from teachers and students. Innovations in the methodology of this study by comparison with previous research included a content-based (or theme-based - Woods, 1996) approach to

analysis of student and teacher interview data, as well as examining weekly student interviews for evidence of linguistic change (primarily fluency markers - Freed, 1995; Lennon, 1990). The latter modification will be seen to improve our ability to identify temporal dimensions in language change. In addition, while many of the studies on short-term and/or study-abroad programs have included some analysis of motivational and attitudinal variables from the perspective of language learners, virtually no studies have attempted to concurrently examine the teacher's perspective or perceptions on personal and pedagogical issues in such programs.

As will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.6, some limitations of the data collection tools outlined above include the fact that forced-choice items such as Likert scales effectively restrict the possible range of responses a subject could provide (Babbie, 1992), and direct interview questions concerning personal perspectives are subject to the "white coat" effect. In other words, the interviewee may respond based on what they think the interviewer wishes to hear, rather than what the subject themselves feel. To avoid the latter bias, Woods (1996) used narratives from which he extracted themes rather than using direct questions concerning teacher's personal theories of learning and teaching. In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, as noted above, triangulation of interview and questionnaire data was used to minimize bias.

2.1 Definition of Terms

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study was a pilot study as it was the first study of the specific program and population from the perspective of examining both sides of the learning equation. A large number of variables based on hypothesized variables in the LPPC model reviewed previously were included as discussed in Section 1.2.1.1. Variables of interest were categorized generally under the following classifications: linguistic, perceptual, and pedagogical change.

2.1.1 Definition and Measurement of Linguistic, Perceptual and Pedagogical Change

Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (LPPC) will be operationalized: (i) with respect to three broad categories of change rather then referring to specific processes; (ii) with respect to the specific subcategories used in the questionnaires (Appendix A and B), (iii) with reference to comparable factors or variables identified in earlier research within the Socioeducational Model, and (iv) with reference to the proposed LPPC model.

The term(s) *linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change* refer to pre- and post-course change in (i) student expectations and language performance as measured via questionnaire and interview data collection procedures, and (ii) teacher expectations and behaviours as measured via questionnaire and interview data collection procedures, *within the context of a short-term intensive or study-abroad language program*. Each of the three major categories will be further defined below.

2.1.1.1 Measures of Linguistic Change

Linguistic change was assessed based on (i) student interview data (fluency) and (ii) self-report questionnaire data (perceived language change). Fluency related measures in student interview data included topic changes, inappropriate responses, incomplete responses, number of grammatical errors and lexical errors, mean length of utterance (MLU), total number of utterances, and range. The use of fluency measures from interview data for measures of linguistic change rather than language test scores was based on the following reasons: (i) the questionnaire items were presented in a bilingual format, with all questions and directions in both Japanese and English to alleviate possible comprehension problems, (ii) no pre-course/post-course assessment of language skills was available to the researcher, and (iii) previous research suggested fluency to be the most salient change in short-term programs (Freed, 1995c). Perceptions of linguistic change were measured based on student responses to questionnaire responses concerning language use anxiety, interest in foreign languages, self-assessment of language proficiency, and student interview data concerning language comprehension and comfort,

as well as teacher questionnaire and interview responses concerning perceived areas of student linguistic progress.

2.1.1.2 Measures of Perceptual Change

Perceptual or perception change refers to changes in responses by teachers and students in pre-course and post-course questionnaire and interview responses concerning their expectations of Canada, Canadian culture, language learning, and/or their expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program. Specifically, subcategories of perceptual change found on Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student questionnaires included the following: Attitudes towards target language group, attitudes towards language learning, language learning anxiety, and perceptions of the learning environment. Teacher questionnaires included the following additional subcategories: Perceptions of Self as Teacher and Program success.

A number of items on the questionnaires were based on such previously employed instruments such as Oxford's (1990) SILL, Andresson's (1986) questionnaire on educational travel, and as noted previously, on research done within the Socioeducational Model. Other questions were designed with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute curriculum as the basis. Examples of motivation-based items on the student questionnaire based on the AMTB (Gardner, 1985) include Items# 11 ("I came to Canada for a vacation"), #12 ("I came to Canada because I want to work in a job that requires English"), and #13 ("I came to Canada as a course requirement"). Attitudes towards the target language group (Canadians) were the focus of student pre-course (PR) and post-course (PS) questionnaire items (#PR19/PS1- #PR26/PS8), such as #PR19/PS1 ("I think Canadians are friendly") and #PR26/PS8 ("I think Canadians are similar to Japanese people"). Items concerning attitudes towards language learning (which appeared on both student and teacher questionnaires) included "I think learning languages is (difficult)" (on both student and teacher questionnaires), "I think learning English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire), "I think learning to read English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire), I think learning to write English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire), "I think learning to speak English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire),

"I think learning to understand spoken English is (difficult)" (on student questionnaire), and "I think learning languages is different than learning other subjects" (on teacher questionnaire).

2.1.1.3 Measures of Pedagogical Change

Pedagogical change refers to change in responses by teachers and/or students in pre-course and post-course questionnaires and interviews concerning such "pedagogical features" as program format, teaching techniques and focus, classroom behaviours (student and teacher behaviours), and/or program goals. Measures of pedagogical change were primarily designed based on the researcher's experience in the 1991 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (e.g., student questionnaire Section #8 "Perception of classroom roles," Items #PR60/PS40-PR65/PS45),[25] and anecdotal evidence from other teachers with previous experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute with respect to course curriculum, course goals, and teaching techniques typically used in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. An example of the latter items include teacher questionnaire items #PR36-45, such as #PR36 ("In this program, I expect to use/used music"), #PR37 ("In this program, I expect to use/used games"), and #PR 40 ("In this program, I expect to use/used pair work"). In addition, a list of teaching techniques, based on a review of a number of TESL preparation texts (Harmer, 1983; Oller & Richard-Amato, 1983; Richards & Nunan, 1990) was generated (e.g., using music, games, drills, pair work, group work, etc.).

Attitudes and/or expectations concerning the classroom situation were investigated in the student questionnaire Section #8 (Perception of classroom roles - #PR60/PS40-PR65/PS45), which included #PR60/PS40 ("I think the teacher will want me to be polite"). Section #9 (Perception of class activities - #PR66/PS46-PR73/PS53) of the student questionnaire includes items such as #PR66/PS45 ("I think the teacher will use music in class"), #PR68/PS48 ("I think the teacher will have us work in groups"), and #PR72/PS52 ("I think the teacher will give us homework"). As noted above, these

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[25]These items are also similar to items used by Barkhuizen (1998).

"pedagogical" areas were also assessed on the teachers questionnaires. For example, perceptions of classroom roles (also referred to as "successful student characteristics") were examined in items #PR56-63, including #PR56 ("I believe a successful student will be/was one who volunteers answers"), #PR62 ("I believe a successful student will be/was one who consults with other students before answering"), and #PR63 ("I believe a successful student will be/was one who competes"). In addition, items concerning perceptions of classroom activities included #PR36-45, such as #PR36 ("In this program, I expect to use/used music"), #PR37 ("In this program, I expect to use/used games"), and #PR 40 ("In this program, I expect to use/used pair work").

2.2 Research Objectives and Design

This study incorporates a multifaceted approach to data collection to obtain a comprehensive description of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute by triangulating self-report data from questionnaires (student and teacher) and interviews, with objective measures of linguistic change from interview data (student).

Consistency was a goal in the development of both data collection tools and procedures to strengthen the reliability and validity of the findings. Therefore, such measures as matched pre-course and post-course questionnaire items and repeated interview questions were used (as discussed below). Other issues of reliability and validity are discussed in Sections 2.9 and 2.10. Participant perspective was incorporated into the design in both the questionnaire and interviews formats because this study combined both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies, and validity in qualitative research "assume(s) meaningfulness of human actions depend on contexts or situations in which actions, feelings, and perceptions occur" (McMillan and Schumacher, 1989: 188).

Thus, in order to ensure consistency in the data collection, a number of items were repeated in both student and teacher interviews (e.g., student interviewee's name, questions about food and shopping, etc.), all interviews were video-taped and/or audio-taped, questionnaire items were based on a 5-point Likert scale, and multiple variations of items related to certain main areas of interest were incorporated into questionnaires. For

example, the student questionnaire sections "Perceptions of Canadians" included 11 items, and "Perceptions of Program" included 6 items [see Appendix A]. In addition, the researcher was involved in all aspects of design, including planning, data collection, and analysis which contributes to the reliability of the research, according to McMillan and Schumacher (1989). Data collection techniques and research protocols were also designed to maximize consistency and replicability. For example, matched questions on pre- and post-course questionnaires were identical except for the relevant verb tense changes from future tense ("I think I will...") to past tense ("I did...") [see Appendix A and B]. To minimize bias, questionnaire translations were checked by three native speakers of Japanese. Transcriptions of videotaped interviews were viewed by two native speakers of English.

2.3 Selection and Description of Sample Populations

This section describes subject population selection criteria as well as the two sample populations studied in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute: the ESL students and teachers. Initial interest in the subject populations for this research arose from the researcher's participation in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (1991) as an ESL teacher. The lack of research on short-term intensive or study-abroad language program despite their proliferation, as well as the potentially rich database to be generated from such a large sample, also contributed to the identification of the sample populations. Preliminary research on "Perception and attitude change in a Japanese Tourist Segment (educational travellers)" by Betty Andressen (1986) also suggested the Japanese English as a Second Language (JESL) population to be worthwhile as a subject population.

The sample populations selected for this study consisted of two groups. The first group consisted of 384 female Japanese students from Aoyama Junior College in Osaka, Japan. The second group consisted of 14 ESL professionals hired as ESL instructors in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. Both groups were identified as providing subject population sizes appropriate for statistical analysis, the program length conformed to the time frame of interest, and previous experience by the researcher with

this particular program provided an awareness of program and administrative concerns and processes.

The populations studied in this research project were pre-selected by the administration of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (e.g., student enrollment, hiring of instructors). Student interview subjects were also chosen by the administrators of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. For these reasons, the populations in this study are not considered random (which could influence the extent to which the results of the study are generalizable - Babbie, 1992). However, all participants in the program were involved in the study, therefore, the findings should provide a comprehensive description of this program, which may generlize to other similar populations.

2.3.1 Student Questionnaire Subjects

The subjects in the questionnaire component of the study were 384 female Japanese college students in 14 ESL classes participating in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. The majority of subjects (98.2%) were 18 or 19 years old. They had never visited an English speaking country previously (72.6%) and they had never visited Canada before (97.9%). They were therefore quite similar in background.

2.3.2 Student Interview Subjects

The subjects in the interview component of the study were 28 female Japanese college students between the ages of 17-19. This interview cohort was part of the larger group of 384 female Japanese college students in 14 ESL classes participating in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (e.g., one pair of students per class = fourteen pairs). Subjects were chosen by the program administration to take part in four interviews during the three week program.

Approximately one third of the interviewees (32.1%, n=9) had made at least one visit to an English speaking country previously, and 4 subjects (7.1.%) had made 2-5 visits. Approximately half of the students spoke at least two languages. With the exception of one pair of students, all interviewees participated in at least three of four interviews. The majority of subjects participated in all four interviews.

2.3.2.1 Interviewees: Representative?

Although the initial assumption in this research was that the students interviewed could be considered representative of the population, there did appear to be some minor differences. For example, there appeared to be more members of the interview cohort who had travelled to English speaking countries than in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute population as a whole. It was found that 9 of 28 interviewees (32.1%) had been to English speaking countries before. Seven (25%) students had been on one prior visit by comparison with 21% (n=79) in the general subject population, and two interviewees (7.1%) had 2-5 visits by comparison to 6.4% (n= 24) in the general population. In addition, from the perspective of pre-course self-identification as knowing more than one language, 15 of 28 interviewees (or 50%) indicated that they knew two languages in comparison with 148 of 384 in the general population (39.6%). Thus, it appears that the interviewees as a group were slightly more experienced in travel and language use than the general population. According to Si-Qing (1990), these findings might mean that the communicative strategies of the interviewees could differ slightly from the general population, if they were more advanced than the average Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student participant. However, this prediction could not be tested within the design of this study.

The interviewees were also chosen by the program administration of Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. It was not possible to ascertain which selection criteria, if any, were used[26]. However, it is suggested that the impact of any differences on the overall results (such as questionnaire results) would be minimal given the considerable individual variation in performance within the interview cohort itself (e.g., from very verbal to primarily monosyllabic) [see discussion, Section 3.2.1.4].

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[26] The researcher did inquire - officially there were no criteria other than assumed willingness to participate.

2.3.3 Teacher Questionnaire and Interview Subjects

All teachers participated in both questionnaire and interview components of the study, although one teacher did not return his pre-course questionnaire. The majority of the teachers (64%, n=9) were between 20 - 40 years of age, female (64%, n=9), and from Canada (78.6%, n=11). The others cited the United Kingdom as "country of origin" (14.3%, n=2). Almost half of the teachers (42.9%, n=6) reported a yearly family income of $20,000 or less. All teachers spoke English as their first language. All teachers had experience teaching Japanese ESL students.

2.3.4 Rationale for Focus on Japanese ESL Programs

Short-term intensive ESL language programs and study-abroad programs have proliferated nationally and internationally in recent years as a result of both cultural and economic factors (Andressen, 1987; Freed, 1995b). The status of English as an International language has fuelled an international desire for English language programs (Andresson, 1987). The perception of the relative superiority of the immersion experience for language learning has developed interest in such programs (Brecht et al., 1995; Brecht & Robinson, 1995; Clément, 1979; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977a & b; Freed, 1995a, b & c; Gardner et al., 1974; Gardner, Smythe & Brunet, 1977; Guntermann, 1995; Hanna & Smith, 1979; Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; Huebner, 1995; Lafford, 1995; Lapkin et al., 1995; Marriott, 1995; Polanyi, 1995; Regan, 1995; Shapson, Kaufman & Day, 1981; Siegal, 1995; Sikkema & Niyekawa, 1987; Tucker & Lambert, 1970). Specifically, these conditions have created a lucrative market[28] for short-term intensive and study-abroad language programs in English speaking countries as many people who want or need to learn English are unable to spend extended periods of time in a target language community for various reasons (e.g., financial, personal). This fact may begin to account for the relative dearth of research investigating the theoretical underpinnings of short-term intensive language program with respect to second language acquisition (Freed, 1995b), in

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[28] The term "market" has been used herein in part to emphasize the fact that short-term intensive language programs may be characterized as historically having been developed for economic reasons (i.e., to fulfil a demand - Andresson, 1986).

contrast to research on the economic and tourist value of short-term intensive language programs (Andressen, 1986).

One of the most significant short-term intensive language program markets in North America in recent years has catered to the Japanese. Specifically, the strength of the Japanese economy[29] and a belief in the benefits to the young of both exposure to other cultures and the acquisition of English has led to the development of numerous short-term immersion programs. As noted above, although some studies on the impact of such programs on tourism have been done (Andressen, 1987), little research has been specifically addressed to the aspects of these language programs relating to linguistic, perceptual, or pedagogical change. Therefore, participants in Japanese English as a Second Language (JESL) programs were identified as meaningful populations for study.

Many Japanese English as a Second Language programs may be implicitly (or explicitly) designed around single sex groupings, in part as a function of "twinnings" in Japanese English as a Second Language short-term intensive language programs. These groupings thus arguably reflect both the typically sex-segregated Japanese school system and the cultural patterns of gender relations in Japan (Moeran, 1989).

Based on these patterns, important questions for research arise, including: (i) the possible influence of Japanese linguistic and cultural factors on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program, and (ii) the influence of gender-based factors on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program [see discussion, Section 1.5.3].

2.3.4.1 Japanese Summer English Language Students

The extent to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute can be considered representative of the general trend in Japanese ESL travel can be assessed by comparison to Andresson's (1986) findings. For example, according to Andresson's (1986: 59) research, Japanese summer students who come to Canada as a group to study English fit the following criteria: (i) they visit only in July and August, (ii) they travel as a

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[29]Until the recent recession (e.g., 1995-98) - however, this data was collected in 1993.

group, and (iii) they stay at Canadian post-secondary institutions.

In addition, Andresson found that in 1986, 840 students participated in Japanese English as a Second Language programs, 98.6% (828) which were in B.C., group size ranged from 6-180 students (mean: 37), length of stay ranged from 5-42 days (mean: 21 days), all programs used dormitory, homestay, or a combination of these two as their major form of accommodation, and 91% of programs included overnight travel on their itinerary. Similarly, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students visited in July, travelled as a group (of 384 students) , stayed in a dormitory at a Canadian post-secondary institution in British Columbia (the University of Victoria residences) for approximately 21 days, and each had the opportunity to experience a one-day "home-stay" with a Canadian family. The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute itinerary also included overnight travel, as at the end of the three-week course, in one week students flew to Banff, Niagara Falls, Washington, D.C., and Disneyland (CA). Such comparison is also arguably important from the perspective of developing an understanding of the cultural context of a short-term intensive language program, in other words, to attempt to identify results which may be culture specific (rather than generalizable) (Freed, 1995a).

With respect to socioeconomic status as a demographic factor in linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program, according to Andresson (1986),[30] most Japanese would be considered "middle class" by North American standards (with the majority of adult males being "salarymen" or employees of large corporations); thus only parental occupation is included in the student questionnaire as an indicator of socioeconomic status.[31]

Finally, an often understated, yet not to be underestimated, benefit in the choice of the selected subject population was the value placed on co-operation and politeness by the

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[30] Administrators in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute.

[31] As questions concerning income are considered problematic in Japanese society (see discussion in Andresson, 1986), items ascertaining parental and maternal occupation were substituted.

Japanese culture (Andresson, 1986).[32] Although the apparent homogeneity of the subject population might be considered problematic with respect to generalization to other ethnic or mixed student populations, it does appear consistent with the main focus of this study, Japanese English as a Second Language programs.

Therefore, the sampling procedure used in this study was *purposeful* (McMillan & Schumacher, 1989) as the goal was to "understand something about certain select cases without needing...to generalize to all such cases [all short-term intensive language programs]" (Patton, 1980 - cited in McMillan & Schumacher, 1989: 182). According to McMillan and Schumacher (1986), purposeful sampling samples are chosen because they are likely to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomenon of interest. As noted above, the chosen population samples (both teacher and student) provide a wealth of data on language, perception and pedagogical changes within a Japanese English as a Second Language short-term intensive language program due to the comprehensive nature of the data collection techniques and instruments. It should be noted, however, that the LPPC model which has been proposed to explain the findings of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study is designed to accommodate more diverse populations, and hence is itself potentially more generalizable.

2.3.5 Rationale for Focus on ESL teachers

To investigate the contribution of variables on both sides of the learning equation, it was necessary to develop a profile of the classroom teachers via questionnaires and interviews.[33] From prior experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (in 1991), the researcher had hypothesized that perceived differences and/or changes in attitude or performance observed in different ESL classes within the same

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[32] In fact, the co-operation of both the administration and the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students ensured an incredible completion and return rate on the questionnaires of almost 100%, and the enthusiasm of the vast majority of the interviewees (despite convoluted scheduling and lack of sleep)!

[33] Due to the logistics of the program (time and administrative constraints), observation of classroom interactions was not a viable option.

program over the duration of the Institute may have in part resulted from "teacher factors" (i.e., differences between teachers) because the student population appeared to be generally homogeneous upon arrival. Thus, in order to begin to identify "teacher factors," and to later develop the concept of "teacher achievement" [see Section 1.4.8], a large number of possible variables which were hypothesized to be relevant to developing "teacher profiles," were examined, including (i) expectations concerning students, program, and classroom format, (ii) personal learning preferences and styles, and (iii) classroom style and activities.

2.3.6 Site Selection

The criteria used to determine an appropriate subject population for this research included issues of accessibility for the researcher and participants, and proximity to research facilities. The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute met these criteria because the program took place at Camosun College and at the University of Victoria in Victoria, B.C. The housing of the students in residence at the University of Victoria throughout the three-week program ensured that student interviewees were able to meet the researcher at the designated room in the Linguistics Department in which video and audio recording equipment were available for each scheduled meeting.

Similarly, the administration of student questionnaires was facilitated by the relative proximity of the rooms in which the fourteen ESL classes took place. The assistance of the Head Teacher also greatly facilitated data collection. The fact that all of the teachers lived in the Greater Victoria Area also facilitated administration of pre- and post-course interviews and questionnaires.

2.4 Data Collection and Administration

This section will provide a detailed explanation of the development and administration of data collection procedures (questionnaires and interviews) in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. A discussion is presented regarding the development of questionnaire and interview items for both student and teacher subject populations. Criteria for final selection of items, based on general theoretical issues and program specific areas of interest, are also discussed. These criteria

included relevance to hypotheses being tested, cultural appropriateness, linguistic accessibility, and administrative concerns.

2.4.1 Data collection: General description of purpose

The purpose of this study was to attempt to identify variables and factors of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change with respect to both student and teacher populations in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. The use of interviews provided a complimentary participant perspective and triangulation with the researcher-set questionnaires for both student and teacher questionnaires, as well as linguistic data used to analyze fluency-based change from student interviews. The interviews were designed to obtain three basic types of data: (i) linguistic and/or sociolinguistic change in student performance, (ii) student perspectives and expectations concerning various aspects of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and (iii) teacher perspectives and expectations with respect to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute.

Finally, data collection and analysis techniques were developed to attempt to provide precise descriptions of the variables and characteristics outlined; therefore the researcher was attentive to how data was recorded and under what circumstances.

2.4.2 Data Collection

The data was collected over the course of the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute by use of the teacher and student pre- and post-course questionnaires and interviews. To ensure anonymity, in accordance with the University of Victoria guidelines for research involving Human Subjects, each student and teacher subject was assigned an identification number, which was subsequently used to tag relevant data. Consent forms were distributed, explained, and signed before commencement of research.

2.4.3 Student Considerations

One of the main research considerations was the administration of questionnaires and interviews to Limited English Proficient (LEP) student subjects. Most test and administrative materials were therefore presented in a bilingual format (Japanese and

English). A translator was also present for the first set of student interviews in order to explain the process and to minimize cross-linguistic interference in order to ensure participant comprehension of (i) the research project itself (and obtaining informed consent), and (ii) the data collection processes (questionnaire, interviews). Bilingual materials were chosen to ensure the questionnaire results did not reflect students' limited English, rather than the variables of interest.

Andresson's (1986) success in having Japanese English as a Second Language students complete a 100+ item questionnaire (in Japanese) suggested that the length of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute questionnaire of approximately 90 items would not be excessive (e.g., 92 on pre-course questionnaire, 72 on the post-course questionnaire). No problems concerning length of questionnaire were detected in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study.

Student interviews were also designed with Limited English Proficient students in mind. For example, initial student interviews were scheduled for only 5 minutes each with a relatively small number of questions (10) to minimize language anxiety. The decision to interview students in pairs was also made to minimize anxiety. The amount of time scheduled for student interviews was also based on scheduling considerations such as logistics of scheduling 14 interviews on four different occasions within three weeks. Interview questions were designed to be culturally sensitive and appropriate to student interests based on the researcher's experience with teaching female Japanese students in the 1991 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute and other ESL teaching experience.

The semi-structured interview format allowed exploration of topics not anticipated in order to obtain sufficient oral data to assess language change (in other words, it was more important for students to talk, than to address any particular topic). As noted earlier, Young (1995) also suggests that female non-native speakers are more likely to discuss topics having to do with their own experiences, than display questions, etc.

2.4.4 Teacher Considerations

Teacher considerations in this study included obtaining informed consent and participation, and minimizing time demands on individual teachers. These concerns were addressed in the following manner: (i) consent was obtained from the program administration, (ii) a formal presentation at the teacher orientation meeting explained the purpose and format of the research, (iii) consent forms which explained the research emphasized the individual teacher's right to not participate, (iv) teacher interviews were scheduled at the individual's convenience, and (v) questionnaires were completed at the Orientation Meeting (pre-course) and at the same time students were completing their post-course questionnaires (post-course). To address concerns of possible low return rates (e.g., typically 30% - see Voth, 1993), pre-course questionnaires were completed at the end of the Orientation Meeting, and post-course questionnaires were completed on the last day of class (while the students were completing their own questionnaires). The latter arrangement proved useful as the only teacher questionnaire not returned (a pre-course questionnaire) was one of the very few not completed at the Orientation Meeting.

2.4.5 Questionnaires: General Purpose

The purpose of the teacher and student questionnaires was to obtain data concerning linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program in pre- and post-course administrations in a format which: (i) was consistent across subjects, (ii) accessed information in all of the areas of interest, (iii) was feasible within the size and time constraints of the program, and (iv) allowed for categorization and coding of data to facilitate statistical analysis.

2.4.5.1 Student Questionnaires

The purpose of the student pre- and post-course questionnaires was to obtain information in the categories discussed below to develop and test a model of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program.[34] A number of different categories were examined. In the analysis, some of these categories

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[34]A number of these items were re-classified to address specific areas of interest as discussed in Chapter 3.

were reconfigured or collapsed as discussed in Section 2.8.

The primary categories are illustrated in the Table below.

Table #2	Student Questionnaire Topic Categories
Topic Area	**Questionnaire Section**
(i) Demographic information	[Section 1 - Pre-course questionnaire]
(ii) Program and personal goals	[Section 2 - Pre-course questionnaire]
(iii) Knowledge and perceptions of Canada	[Section 3 - Pre-course questionnaire]
(i) Perceptions of Canadians	[Section 4 - Pre-course questionnaire]
	[Section 1 - Post-course questionnaire]
(v) Perceptions of program	[Section 5 - Pre-course questionnaire]
	[Section 2 - Post-course questionnaire]
(vi) Knowledge of Canada	[Section 6 - Pre-course questionnaire]
	[Section 3 - Post-course questionnaire]
(vii) Perceptions of language learning	[Section 7 - Pre-course questionnaire]
	[Section 4 - Post-course questionnaire]
(viii) Perceptions of classroom roles	[Section 8 - Pre-course questionnaire]
	[Section 5 - Post-course questionnaire]
(ix) Perceptions of class activities	[Section 9 - Pre-course questionnaire]
	[Section 6 - Post-course questionnaire]
(x) Cognitive/learning style	[Section 10 - Pre-course questionnaire]
	[Section 7 - Post-course questionnaire]

The study was explained to students twice: first, in a form included with their initial information packages in Japan, and secondly, at the Orientation session on July 4, 1993. Consent forms were signed at the Orientation session. Student questionnaires were administered at 8:00-8:30 a.m. on July 5, 1993 and July 23, 1993 by the classroom teachers [supervised by the author]. All students who have indicated their willingness to participate in the study completed questionnaires. Students responded on computer scan sheets to facilitate data collection.

2.4.5.2 Questionnaire Development

Considerations in development of student pre- and post-course questionnaires included development of a clear, comprehensive format with relevant, appropriate and well-worded questions - in a bilingual format where appropriate. The Japanese translation of the student questionnaires was reviewed for accuracy and appropriateness by three native Japanese speakers (before and after the test administration). Wording on student pre- and post-course questionnaires differed only in the relevant linguistic adjustments

(e.g., verb tenses: Pre-course: "I will/expect..." -> Post-course: "I did/expected...").

For example: (PR30) I expect to learn about Canada and Canadians.
(PS12) I learnt about Canada and Canadians.

In addition, as noted above, items concerning demographic and cognitive/learning style appeared only on the pre-course questionnaire.

Other administrative concerns included time demands (e.g., less than 60 minutes classroom time total was available), accessibility of subjects to the interview meeting place, and costs (e.g., photocopying, computer scan sheets for student questionnaires).

2.4.5.3 Questionnaire Administration

Student questionnaires were completed on the first and last days of class in the ESL classes. Students were given instructions on how to fill in computer scan forms. They were given approximately 20-30 minutes to complete the questionnaires. Teachers reported few administrative problems. One unforeseen problem with the pre-course questionnaire, however, was "missing questions." In other words, items had been deleted for various administrative reasons, but the remaining items had not been renumbered resulting in problematic numbering. Fortunately, this typographical error did not appear to influence overall performance. In fact, the students were the ones who identified the problem, and informed their teachers. Numbering was consistent and appropriate on the post-course questionnaire.

Due to the logistics of having 14 classes taking place across two campuses, the administration and collection of the student questionnaires was done by the classroom teachers, who were provided with a handout explaining the process to be followed. The instruction sheet was enclosed with the questionnaires and computer scan sheets. Distribution of materials was handled by the Head Teacher.

2.4.6 Teacher Questionnaires[35]

The purpose of the teacher pre- and post-course questionnaires was to obtain information concerning perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program in the following categories:

Table #3   <u>Teacher Questionnaire Topic Categories</u>

Topic Area	Questionnaire Items
(i) Demographic information	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #2-6]
(ii) Education and training	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #7-16]
(iii) Theories of SLA	[Pre-course questionnaire: Item #17]
(iv) Perceptions of program goals	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #16-29, and 64-70]
	[Post-course questionnaire: Items #2-15, and 51-57]
(v) Perceptions of technique use (General)	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #30-35]
(v) Perceptions of technique use (JESL)	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #36-45]
	[Post-course questionnaire: Items #16-32]
(vi) Perception of program focus	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #46-55]
	[Post-course questionnaire: Items #33-41]
(vii) Successful student characteristics	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #56-63]
	[Post-course questionnaire: Items #42-50]
(viii) Perceptions of teaching style	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #24-73]
	[Post-course questionnaire: Item #58]
(ix) Cognitive/learning style	[Pre-course questionnaire: Items #74-81]
(x) Perceptions of program success	[Post-course questionnaire: Items #8, 59]

Teacher pre-course questionnaires were distributed at the Teacher Orientation Meeting on June 29, 1993 to those teachers willing to participate in the study. Post-course questionnaires were distributed on the last day of class, July 23, 1993, and collected within the next week. Pre-course and post-course questionnaires differed only in the relevant linguistic adjustments (e.g., verb tenses: Pre-test: "I will/expect..." -> Post-test: "I did/expected...").

> For example: (PR) In this program, I expect to use...music.
> (PS) In this program, I used...music.
> In addition, as noted above, items concerning demographic and cognitive/learning

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[35]A number of these items were re-classified to address specific areas of interest as discussed in Chapter 4 and Section 2.8.

style appeared only on the pre-course questionnaire, and items concerning program success appeared only on the post-course questionnaire. The teacher questionnaire was in English only.

2.4.7 Interviews: General Purpose

The purpose of the student interviews and teacher interviews was to obtain more detailed information on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program to triangulate with the limited response self-report data obtained through the questionnaires. Teacher interviews, in which teachers were individually interviewed, took part at the beginning and end of the program, covered similar topics to those found on the teacher questionnaire (such as theories of second language acquisition and teaching, expectations concerning program goals and classroom activities, successful student characteristics, etc.). By contrast, student interviews, in which only a subset of 28 students took part, occurred approximately weekly for a total of four interviews, were used as a primary source of data for identifying areas of linguistic change, as well as developing more detailed perspectives on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program from the student's point of view.

2.4.7.1 Conducting the Interviews

Student interviews were recorded on both audiotape and videotape to (i) record any verbal and non-verbal communication, (ii) for ease of data retrieval, (iii) to avoid loss of data due to mechanical failure, and (iv) to facilitate multiple viewings. Teacher interviews were recorded in the audio format only because: (i) all teachers were native English speakers so possible nonverbal communication was not of interest, and (ii) most interviews were conducted by telephone (to accommodate individual schedules).

Both student and teacher interviews were conducted by the same individual (the researcher) for consistency. Student interviews were scheduled for 5-10 minutes each (although some interviews went longer with student agreement). Teacher interviews were scheduled for 15 minutes each (although many interviews went longer).

2.4.7.2 Student Interviews

Four interviews were scheduled for 14 pairs of students (28 students from 14 classes) within the context of the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute in order (i) to obtain naturalistic language data by allowing for nervousness, etc., in the first interview, and (ii) to attempt to identify "critical windows" for language development by inter-interview comparisons.

The purpose of the student interviews was (i) to obtain linguistic data to attempt to identify areas or linguistic phenomena of change in spoken English [see discussion, Section 2.1.1.1], as well as obtaining detailed information concerning issues of interest from the questionnaire, for example (ii) to investigate whether expectations and perceptions of Canada and/or the program change over the three-week period, and (iii) to elicit comments and suggestions concerning curriculum, preferred learning styles, language learning ability and cultural awareness.

Four sets of 5-15 minute taped oral interviews were scheduled once per week for four weeks. Student interviews were based on a set open-ended questions asked by the interviewer on such topics as expectations of Canada and the program, self-perception of performance in class, general discussion of previous week's activities, etc. [See Appendix C]. Two students per class, for total of 28 participants, were selected by the administrators of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute from those students who indicated their willingness to be interviewed on the Consent form. Interviews took place in the Seminar Room in the Department of Linguistics at the University of Victoria.

2.4.7.2.1 Student Interview Format

Student interviews ranged from 5-20 minutes (Mean length: 12 min) and followed a basic format. First, pairs of students arrived at the designated place at pre-arranged times. Video- and audiorecorders were in operation. Second, greetings were exchanged between students and the interviewer. Third, hospitality was offered[36]. Fourth, students

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[36]In keeping with Japanese tradition, it was deemed important to provide "hospitality" to interviewees in the form of cookies or chocolates which were offered at the beginning of each

were asked to identify themselves (e.g., either "What's your name", or "You are...?").
Fifth, interview questions were asked [see Appendix C].

Although the order in which the questions were asked typically followed the order
in Appendix C, the interviews took a semi-structured form with issues arising in
conversation being further explored. A key interest was changes in linguistic and
sociolinguistic competence, so some flexibility was allowed:

(i) to develop topics of interest to students (e.g., discussion of the
Folk Fest, career aspirations, marriage, and shopping);
(ii) to abandon questions which were problematic due to the
linguistic constraints of interviewing ESL students ;
(iii) if a question was deemed inappropriate or irrelevant.

Finally, a decision was made concerning the time of the next interview based on
each pair's schedules, students and interviewer exchanged goodbyes, and the students left.

As the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was designed to
ensure that all 384 participants had access to all events and activities, extracurricular
activities were repeated each week with different groups. The impact of this repetition on
the study was that essentially every pair of students had slightly different extracurricular
schedules, and thus, had slightly different experiences at the time of each interview.

Except for the first set of interviews, which occurred on weekday evenings, most
interviews were scheduled for weekends when the students had more free time.

2.4.7.3 Teacher Interviews

The purpose of these interviews was primarily to obtain data on perceptual and
pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program, including detailed
teaching style profiles (e.g., techniques, educational philosophy, cultural awareness and
attitude, etc.) by combining questionnaire and interview responses.

Two sets of taped open-ended interviews were used (i) to develop teaching style
profiles of each teacher by discussing issues of techniques, educational philosophy,
cultural awareness and attitude, etc., and (ii) to elicit comments and suggestions

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interview (except the first interview).

concerning curriculum, expectations of learner characteristics and classroom dynamics, and awareness of cross-cultural factors. Interviews were scheduled both before and after the course outside of class time at the convenience of the teacher.

2.4.7.3.1 Teacher Interview Format

Teacher interviews ranged from 15-45 minutes (Mean length: 25 minutes). The majority of teacher interviews were conducted over the phone, recorded on a Asahi CS-660 tape recorder (Asahi Electronics, Co., Japan) with an amplifier which could be attached to a telephone receiver. Others were done in person (at the researcher's home) using the same tape recorder. The option of having interviews conducted over the phone reflected a desire (i) to facilitate discussion (less formal setting) and (ii) to accommodate teacher and program scheduling. Pre-course interviews were conducted prior to commencement of the program or at the beginning of the first week, depending on interviewees' schedules and availability. Post-course interviews were also conducted primarily over the phone. Post-course interviews occurred over a three-week period after the end of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. "Post-course" was considered any period after the end of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute.

The format for both sets of teacher interviews was similar: subjects were informed that they would be contacted by phone for an interview of approximately 15 minutes in which they would be asked questions similar to those on the questionnaires (e.g., concerning their perceptions of various aspects of the program, and their expectations as ESL teachers). Interviews were scheduled at the teachers' convenience. The interviews followed the questions outlined in Appendix D, with flexibility allowing elaborations by respondents.

Some issues arising from the teacher interview responses [discussed in Chapter 4] include gender differences in perception of students, differences in expectations of student behaviour, and curriculum suggestions, as many subjects saw this as an opportunity to give input to Camosun College concerning the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program.

In addition, two teachers who had taught in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program were interviewed again in the summer of 1996 to clarify and elaborate on some issues that had been raised by earlier analysis of the 1993 data such as the role of gender in the student-teacher interactions, and the definition of teacher achievement. Both teachers were interviewed at the same time in a seminar room at the University of Victoria Graduate Student Centre.

2.5 Data Analysis Procedures

In this section, I will discuss the data analysis procedures used on each type of data collected in the study including student and teacher questionnaire data, and student and teacher interview data.

2.5.1 Student Questionnaire Analysis Procedures

Three hundred and eighty-three questionnaires were distributed and collected in each of the pre-course and post-course phases of the study. Demographic data and data pertaining to participants previous experience with Canada, Canadians, and the English language was collected on the pre-course questionnaire only. All other questionnaire items were present on both pre-course and post-course questionnaires.[37] All questionnaires were returned completed, yielding a response rate of 100%. The data were entered into permanent computer files via computer scan answer sheets for statistical analysis. Computer scan data was subsequently cleaned and checked with reference to the original answer sheets. SPSS^X (1983) and SPSS for Windows (1992) were used to analyze the data. Initial analysis was performed in SPSS^X on the mainframe computer at the University of Victoria. Data files were later transferred to PC, with subsequent analyses being performed in SPSS for Windows.

Frequency distributions and t-test results for all student pre-course and post-course questionnaire items are presented in Appendix A. Other measures examined included mean, standard deviation, median, range, kurtosis, variance, skewness, and minimum/maximum. Matched pre- and post-course responses were analyzed for change

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[37]Pre- and post-course items differed only in the use of appropriate verb tenses (e.g., "I will meet Canadians...", "I met Canadians...").

using both parametric tests (2-tailed paired t-tests, Levene's) and non-parametric tests[38] (Chi-square). Groups of variables were analyzed using repeat-measures ANOVAs and MANOVAs (e.g., pre- and post-course comparisons by teacher gender). A factor analysis was performed on (i) pre-course and post-course questionnaires as a whole, and (ii) on groups of items hypothesized to be attributes of variables of interest to the LPPC Model, such as perceptions of classroom activities (CLAC), attitudes towards language learning, etc. An analysis of reliabilities for these categories was also performed. The reliabilities are reported for these aggregates (α) in Section 2.9.

2.5.2 Student Interview Data Analysis Procedures

Interviews were transcribed orthographically, and transcriptions were analyzed for occurrences of variables of interest. Statistical analysis was done in SPSS for Windows (1996). Statistical procedures included frequency distributions (mean, standard deviation, variance, range, kurtosis, skewness, maximum/minimum), paired t-tests, and MANOVAs).

Measures of linguistic change included: mean length of utterance (MLU), range (e.g., total number of words per student per interview), number of grammatical errors, number of lexical errors, number of incomplete responses, number of inappropriate responses, and number of student-initiated topic changes. As discussed in Section 1.6, these measures appear consistent with the research of Freed (1995c), Lennon (1990) and others as measures of fluency. For the purposes of the analysis, these terms will be defined as below.[39] It should be noted that these examples were chosen with the on-going context of the interview (i.e., topics, etc.) taken into consideration:

(i) *Examples of grammatical errors (from interview data):* may include inappropriate tense marking, inappropriate omission of determiners,

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[38]Although Likert scale data is generally considered ordinal from the perspective of social sciences (Babbie, 1992), and therefore the application of parametric tests is considered acceptable, both types of analyses were run on both student and teacher questionnaire data for additional strength of analysis.

[39]Due to the fact that it is often difficult to specifically categorize LEP speech errors, I am adopting these measures for the purpose of this analysis only.

prepositions, etc., creating non-native-like errors (within the context of the interview):

> Example 1: KO: We went to Empress
> Example 2: OT: We sung song
> Example 3: KK: I play tennis and skating
> Example 4: Y: I want to...good speaker
> Example 5: M: I went to downtown, walk a lot.

(ii) *Examples of lexical errors (from interview data):* Includes word choices which appear inappropriate or inaccurate in Standard English to the question posed (within the context of the interview)

> Example 1:
> > Interviewer: What did you do downtown?
> > KK: Rocks, wax
> > Interviewer: Ah, the wax museum
> Example 2:
> > Interviewer: What did you learn in class?
> > KU: Canadian style
> > Interviewer: What is 'canadian style'
> > KU: Slug
> > Interviewer: Slang, not slug.
> Example 3:
> > Interviewer: Is it easier to speak English now?
> > Y: More easy
> Example 4:
> > Interviewer: Did you buy anything?
> > E: T-shirts, lips
> > Interviewer: Lipstick?

(iii) *Examples of incomplete responses (from interview data):* include sentence fragments which occurred where (i) inappropriate (e.g., where a native speaker would not typically use them, even in conversation); (ii) of a form native speakers would not use such as where transparently due to lack of vocabulary (within the context of the interview):

> Example 1:
> > Interviewer: What else did you do last night?
> > R: Farewell
> > Interviewer: Farewell dinner?
> Example 2:
> > Interviewer: What is the story?
> > KK: Princess, eats apple, die
> Example 3:

Interviewer: What did you buy?
A: These jeans, very cheap.

(i) *Examples of inappropriate responses (from interview data):* include responses not directly related to the question posed or the previous direction of questions (within the context of the interview).

Example 1:
Interviewer: What time have you been going to bed?
K: 10 minutes
Example 2:
Interviewer: What did you buy?
S: CD
Interviewer: Which one?
S: Someone
Example 3:
Interviewer: Have you gone to restaurants in Victoria?
H: Sandwiches

(v) *Examples of student-initiated topic change(from interview data):* include topic changes initiated by the Interviewee (student) either (i) after answering interviewer- posed questions, or (ii) instead of answering interviewer-posed questions (within the context of the interview):

Example 1:
Interviewer: How was your week?
R: Monday is movie night.
Example 2:
Interviewer: Are you a good squash player?
KK: No. I went to the Oak Bay Beach Hotel.

In order to identify significant time periods in the language acquisition/language activation processes in a short term intensive immersion program, three statistical tests were used: paired t-tests, correlations (Pearson's *r*), and repeat-measures ANOVA.

2.5.3 Teacher Questionnaire Data Analysis Procedures

Data from the questionnaires were subject to statistical multivariate analyses . Data were analyzed using SPSS for Windows. Analysis included frequency distributions on each items, MANOVAs and repeat-measures ANOVAs. Non-parametric chi-square and parametric t-tests were also performed although very few differences were found between the results of the two types of tests. Comments from open-ended questionnaire items were

collected separately and categorized.

2.5.4 Teacher Interview Data Analysis Procedures

Interviews were transcribed orthographically, and transcriptions were analyzed for occurrences of variables of interest. Analysis is primarily a qualitative discussion of the findings.

2.6 Limitations of research

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of the data collection. For example, one teacher did not complete the pre-course questionnaire, several students did not attend all four interviews, and there were a couple of missing items on the student pre-course questionnaires. In addition, the scope is limited in at least three ways. First, the study is based on an analysis of a single student and teacher population within a single program. Second, the research focusses on the effects of a limited number of variables. Third, student interview data was collected only from a subset of the total, due to program and temporal constraints.

Although the use of a subset of students for interviews could influence reliability, external and internal validity, the following aspects of the research design support the choice of the research design: (i) the apparent homogeneity of the student subject population [see Section 2.3.2.1], (ii) the comprehensive nature of the questionnaire administration (e.g., included the entire student population), (iii) the relatively large number of interview subjects (e.g., 26 of 28 student interviewees participated in all four interviews), and (iv) the multiple interview format (resulting in approx. 30-45 minutes of taped interview per student interviewee).

Nonetheless, the extent to which student interview subjects may be considered representative of the subject population may have been influenced by the fact that the student interview participants were drawn (i) from pre-existing groups, (ii) by the administration of Aoyama College, and (iii) selection criteria (if any) were not revealed to the researcher[40].

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[40]An inquiry was made regarding possible selection criteria. Officially, the decisions were based on the assessment of a teacher familiar with the students supporting their ability and desire to

Finally, this study did not include input from the administrators of the program, or any supplementary personnel associated with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (e.g., cultural assistants, host families, etc.). The exclusion of these categories was due to research and administrative concerns such as lack of access, materials, time, etc. Given the extensive nature of the data collection employed in this study, the contribution of input concerning such non-academic variables was considered (i) minimal and (ii) beyond the scope of the research. Future research, however, might attempt to assess the relative impact of extracurricular activities and contact on language and/or perception change in a short-term intensive language program. For example, Andresson (1986) suggests a general perception of benefit to such extracurricular learning experiences as granted via home-stays and host-family interaction.

The resulting data from this study was approximately 28 taped teacher interviews, 56 taped student interviews, 27 teacher pre- and post-course questionnaires (approximately 70 items each), and approximately 766 student pre- and post-course questionnaires (approximately 160 items total). The combination of research methodologies provided data in the following areas: demographic information (students and teachers), BAK+ (beliefs, attitudes, knowledge of language and language learning, experience with Canada and Canadians, etc.) (students); beliefs, attitudes, knowledge with respect to language learning, teaching, experience with Japanese ESL students and the COAELI, etc. (teachers)), and linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. The research methodologies described stem both from ethnography (Woods, 1996) and from research on motivation and attitude change (Clément, 1979; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977a & b; Gardner et al., 1974; Gardner, Smythe & Brunet, 1977; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Hanna & Smith, 1979; Hoeh & Spuck, 1975; MacFarlane, 1998; Shapson, Kaufman & Day, 1981).

2.7 Reliability

All questionnaire items on student and teacher pre-course and post-course

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contribute to the study (personal communication, Dennis Okada).

questionnaires were analyzed for degree of reliability within categories. Reliability refers to the degree to which individual items on the questionnaire within a category appear to measure the similar trait (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). In general, the closer the reliability (α) is to 1.0, the more reliable the categories are considered to be. Student questionnaire items were categorized in two ways: (i) general categories (as appeared on the student questionnaire, described in Table 1), and (ii) categories based on the LPPC model (Table 4). The categories of the LPPC model[41] included:

(i) *Student style (Sstyle)* - an aggregate of student motivation (Smotivation), and cognitive/learning style (Scogl); it may also include culture (Sculture), gender (Sgender) and/or language (Slanguage)

(ii) *Student cultural expectations (Sculture)* - an aggregate of previous experience with Canadians and Canada (Scanadian experience), knowledge and perceptions of Canada and Canadians (Skpc), and interest in foreign languages, perceptions of Canadians, and attitudes towards target group

(iii) *Student linguistic expectations* (Sexpectations - Linguistic) - an aggregate of previous experience with English (Senglish experience), college major (Smajor), number of languages spoken (S#languages), language comfort, language use anxiety, attitudes towards language learning, interest in Foreign languages, self-assessment of literacy, and perceptions of language learning

(iii) *Student pedagogical expectations* (Sexpectations - Pedagogical) - an aggregate of expectations concerning class activities (Sclass activities), class roles (Sclass roles), program goals (Sppg), and attitudes towards learning situation.

To clarify which categories relate to which LPPC model-based factors, I have noted beside each category either Student style (SS), Student cultural expectations (SCE), Student linguistic expectations (SLE), or Student pedagogical expectations (SPE). Not all of the attributes listed under each factor (above) were measured on the student questionnaires, however. For example, culture, gender and language were already known because all of the students were Japanese females.

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[41]The rationale for these classifications was discussed in Chapter 1 [especially, Section 1.4.6]

Table #6 **Student LPPC Category Reliabilities**

Category	Items	[α]
Student style	Cognitive/learning style; Motivation	.5227
Student linguistic expectations	Attitudes towards language learning, Language comfort, Language use anxiety, Perceptions of language learning, Self-assessment of proficiency, Language learning anxiety	.5594
Student cultural expectations	Attitudes towards target population, Perceptions of Canada; Knowledge and perceptions of Canada	.3303
Student pedagogical expectations	Attitudes towards learning situation, Interest in Foreign languages, Perceptions of class activities, Perceptions of class roles, Perceptions of program, Cognitive/learning style Perceptions of program goals	.7215
CBAK+	Student linguistic expectations, student cultural expectations Student pedagogical expectations[43]	.7324

Teacher questionnaires and LPPC categories were also examined. These categories are summarized below:

(i) *Teacher style (Tstyle)* - an aggregate of training (Ttraining), gender (Tgender), cognitive learning style (Tcogl), knowledge of additional language(s) (Tlang) and views on language learning (Ttheories), and age (Tage)

(ii) *Teacher experience (Texperience)* - an aggregate of experience teaching Japanese ESL students (Tjesl), general experience in the teaching profession (Texperience), and specific experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute programs (Tcoaeli)

(iii) *Teacher expectations (Texpectations)* - an aggregate of teacher expectations concerning classroom activities (Tclac) and class roles (Tclro).

Reliabilities also show support for the categories developed in the LPPC model, as summarized in the table below.

Table #7 **Teacher LPPC Category Reliabilities**

Category	Factors	[α]
Teacher style	Training, gender, age, income	.7306
Teacher experience	JESL, experience, COAELI	.5384
Teacher expectations	Perceptions of class activities Perceptions of class roles	.5632
TBAK+	Age, COAELI, gender, experience income, JESL, training	.7205

Therefore, it appears that the classifications or categories (and arguably factors)

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[43] If CBAK+ also includes student motivation, $\alpha=.6801$. Motivation was on pre-course only.

proposed in the student and teacher questionnaires, and by the LPPC model, generally show acceptable or high levels of reliability. These findings provide support for the use of these measures in the analysis of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change.

2.8 Validity and the research methodology

There are a number of potential issues to be raised with respect to the validity of the collection and analysis of the data and the presentation of the results, with regard to the research questions being posed. These research questions relate to linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term study-abroad program. These questions are all viewed through the teachers' and students' perceptions as represented by their verbalizations and self-report responses of questionnaire items. A variety of means to achieve triangulation to enhance the validity of the data to similar types of studies have been suggested in the literature [see Babbie, 1992]. Below, I consider the possible dangers possible in this type of study, and examine a number of ways to take them into account.

Although there is a possibility that simply taking part in the study could influence student and/or teacher behaviour (Woods, 1996), the fact that the teachers were not being otherwise observed or evaluated, together with the fact that interview items and questionnaire items covered much of the same information and primarily focussed on the teacher's expectations for the program, would suggest such an effect would not be substantial. In other words, there should not have been any reason to change to "impress the researcher", and any inconsistencies would be evident by comparisons of individual interview and questionnaire responses. There is a possibility that the type of interview question may have influenced the type of response given by teachers (for example, concerning personal theories of learning), as Woods (1996) suggests may happen, however, these concerns were also investigated indirectly on the questionnaires which would allow triangulation and identification of the impact of any such modifications.

In addition, it was possible that taking part in the student interviews (as only 28 students did) may have influenced student interviewees perceptions of the program and/or the amount of linguistic change. The effect of taking part in the interviews themselves could also have influenced students' language production, although it would be difficult to

control for this variable. In fact, an analysis comparing pre-course/post-course change on LPPC category variables between interviewees and the other students found significant differences on only one variable "Attitudes towards learning situation" (F=5.71, p<.017), suggesting that the influence of any such "interviewee" effect on the results of the whole study would not appear substantial. This variable related to practicing English, learning more English, and meeting Canadians. One other potential influence on interview results could be a "newness" effect at Interview#1 due to inexperience of the subjects and/or the interviewer. Such effects require further future research.

Finally, the extent to which the results of this study are generalizable to other teacher and student populations is also an important concern. The teacher population, although relatively small, can be compared to other such populations (such as Voth, 1993) due to the diversity of age, experience, etc., found. By contrast, although the student subject population is quite large, the homogeneity of age, gender, culture, language background, SES, etc., suggests that results may be most easily compared with similar populations.

The LPPC model, as noted previously, was developed to accommodate a diversity of subject population characteristics, and therefore it should allow comparison of findings with other subject populations.

2.9 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the terms linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change were operationalized: (i) with respect to three broad categories of change rather then referring to specific processes; (ii) with respect to the specific subcategories used in the questionnaires; and (iii) with reference to comparable factors or variables identified in earlier research within the Socioeducational Model. An overview of selection criteria and a description of the two sample populations studied in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (ESL students and teachers) was provided as well. A rationale for the focus on Japanese ESL programs, and on ESL teachers within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was also presented.

A detailed explanation of the development and administration of data collection

procedures (questionnaires and interviews) in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study was developed. The development, format and administration of questionnaire and interview items for both student and teacher subject populations was described, and criteria for final selection of items were discussed based on general theoretical issues and program specific areas of interest. These criteria included relevance to hypotheses being tested, cultural appropriateness, linguistic accessibility, and administrative concerns. Issues of reliability and validity were also addressed.

Chapter Three: Student Questionnaire and Interview Results - Evidence for LPPC

3.0 Introduction

The following chapter contains the presentation and discussion of findings of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student questionnaires and interviews as related to linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive study-abroad language program. In each section, results will be presented and a general discussion of the findings will follow. A discussion of the findings relevant to the hypotheses outlined below will then be presented. The chapter will be divided into the following sections: Demographics (SBAK+ factors such as student style, student linguistic expectations, student cultural expectations and student pedagogical expectations), Linguistic Change (evidence of perceptions of linguistic change, linguistic change in production, the existence of significant temporal periods, and intersubject variation), Perceptual Change (evidence of change in attitudes towards target language group, interest in foreign languages, language learning anxiety, cognitive/learning style, and integrative motivation), Pedagogical Change (evidence in change of attitudes towards language learning and attitudes toward learning situation), Evidence of language acquisition and language activation, Student achievement and CBAK+, and Summary of findings. Student questionnaire and interview data will be discussed together as relevant to the LPPC model and BAK+.

This chapter develops a comprehensive picture of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student subject population which is important: (i) to address the general lack of information on Japanese English as a Second Language populations, (ii) to address the general lack of information on the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute 1993 student population, (iii) to develop a clear understanding of the degree to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute subject population was representative of populations in short-term intensive study-abroad language programs, and (iv) to test hypotheses concerning the influence of previous language training and/or cultural exposure on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short term intensive immersion program. The study hypotheses [Section 1.0] addressed in this chapter are summarized below in the specific form in which they were

investigated:

> Hypothesis #1: Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will occur during the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute;
>
> Hypothesis #2: Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will be measurable and statistically significant;
>
> Hypothesis #3: Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will be found in the following categories
>
>> #3(i) Perceptual/attitudinal change will occur in measures of attitudes towards target language group, interest in foreign languages, language learning anxiety, cognitive/learning style, and integrative motivation; these changes will reflect an increase in positive attitude.
>>
>> #3(ii) Pedagogical change will be found in the following questionnaire categories: Perceptions of Program, Perceptions of Language Learning, Perceptions of Classroom Roles, and Perceptions of Class Activities. Specific measures will include measures of attitudes towards language learning and attitudes toward learning situation. Overall, these changes will reflect an increase in positive attitude.
>>
>> #3(iii) and #3(iv) Evidence for linguistic change and/or perceived linguistic will be found with respect to mean length of utterance, total number of words per student per interview, number of grammatical errors, number of lexical errors, number of incomplete responses, number of inappropriate responses, and number of student-initiated topic changes, as well as language use anxiety, self-assessment of literacy or proficiency, and knowledge of Canada

The analysis of the student data also serves to develop the constructs hypothesized for the LPPC Interactive Model of Second Language Acquisition developed in Chapter 1. It was hypothesized that *student style* (motivation, attitude, cognitive/learning styles and demographic variables), *student linguistic expectations* (major, experience with English, number of languages spoken), *student cultural expectations* (previous experience with Canada and/or Canadians), *student pedagogical expectations* (classroom roles and activities) and *student extracurricular contact* would interact with *teacher style* (teacher training, gender, age, and cognitive/learning style), *teacher experience* (overall classroom

experience, experience with Japanese students, experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute), and *teacher pedagogical expectations* (classroom roles and activities), which would influence *classroom practice* (activities, techniques). This interaction, also characterized as TBAK+ and SBAK+, would influence both *student achievement* (increased fluency, positive perceptions of Canada and Canadians, increased comfort in language use and comprehension, increased knowledge of Canada) and *teacher achievement* (positive assessment of student(s) success, self-assessment as good teacher of Japanese students, positive assessment of the program, "realistic" expectations of classroom roles and activities).

In this Chapter, the degree to which the student factors identified above are supported by the data, and the type of change observed (positive or negative linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change) will be discussed.

3.1 Exploring CBAK+: Student style, linguistic, cultural & pedagogical expectations

In this section, I will explore evidence for the development of a profile of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study student subject population as a whole[44] (or Class BAK+ as proposed by the LPPC model), based on student style, and student linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations.

3.1.1 Student style: Results and discussion

Student style (Sstyle) was defined in this study as an aggregate of student motivation, attitude and cognitive/learning style (which may also include culture, gender and/or language). In this section, I will examine findings of attributes of student style.

3.1.1.1 Demographic information: Age, SES and gender

Student style (Sstyle) was defined in this study as an aggregate of student motivation, attitude and cognitive/learning style (which may also include culture, gender and/or language). In this section, I will examine findings of demographic attributes of student style.

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[44]Individual learning profiles are beyond the scope of this study.

Results

The subjects in the questionnaire component of the study were 384 female Japanese college students in fourteen ESL classes who participated in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. The majority of subjects (98.2%, n=294) were 18 or 19 years old. The subjects in the interview component of the study were 28 female Japanese college students between the ages of 17-19, who generally shared the larger group's demographic characteristics.[45] This interview cohort was chosen from the larger group of 384 female Japanese college students. Subjects were chosen by the program administrators to take part in four interviews during the three week program.

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, the majority of students indicated that their fathers were "Businessmen" (63.3%, n=235) or they were involved in "Independent business"[46] (22.6%, n=84). In addition, 20.2% (n=76) of the students indicated their mothers were "Businesspersons."

Table #8		Socioeconomic status
Parental Occupation	**N**	**Percentage**
Businessmen (father)	235	63.3%
Independent business (father)	84	22.6%
Businessperson (mother)	76	20.2%
Housewife (mother)	207	55.1%
Professional (father)	11	3.0%
Professional (mother)	6	1.6%
Teacher (father)	7	1.9%
Teacher (mother)	7	1.9%
Other (father)	34	9.2%
Other (mother)	80	21.3%

The majority of students (55.1%, or n=207) indicated their mothers were housewives, a finding consistent with Andresson (1986). "Other" was chosen more often in reference to mothers' occupations (by 21.3%, n=80) than fathers' occupation (9.2%, n=34). It is impossible, however, to determine to what "other occupations" responses

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[45]They did differ somewhat in areas of experience with Canadians and travel [see discussion, Section 2.3.2.1].

[46] A term suggested by Dennis Okada.

referred.

Discussion

The findings reported above appear consistent with Andresson's (1986) position that while in some subject populations factors such as socioeconomic status are considered crucial to describing and differentiating participants, the majority of Japanese families fit into what would be considered middle- to upper-middle class in North America, based on male occupations of "businessman" or "salaryman." In addition, by contrast with contemporary North American society, the majority of Japanese women have traditionally not worked outside the home after marrying. Based on the lack of variation in students' socioeconomic status, it appears that socioeconomic status is not a useful variable with respect to this population. In other words, as the majority of subjects indicated that their fathers were businessmen and their mothers were housewives, the variable would not appear to explain other variation or change.

The extent to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute can be considered representative of the general trend in Japanese ESL travel is also apparent by comparison to Andresson's (1986) findings. For example, according to Andresson's (1986) research, Japanese summer students who come to Canada as a group to study English fit the following criteria: (i) they visit only in July and August, (ii) they travel as a group, and (iii) they stay at Canadian post-secondary institutions. Andresson also found that in 1986, 840 students participated in JESL programs, 98.6% (n=828) of whom were in B.C. Group size ranged from 6-180 students (mean: 37), length of stay ranged from 5-42 days (mean: 21 days), all programs used dormitory, homestay, or a combination of these two as their major form of accommodation, and 91% of programs included overnight travel on their itinerary. Similarly, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students visited in July, travelled as a group (of 384 students), stayed in a dormitory at a Canadian post-secondary institution in British Columbia (the University of Victoria residences) for approximately 21 days, and each student had the opportunity to experience a one-day "home-stay" with a Canadian family. The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute itinerary also included overnight travel. At the end of the three-

week course, in one week students flew to Banff, Niagara Falls, Washington, D.C., and Disneyland (CA).

In addition, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student subject population appears to be very similar to the traveller/learner profiles developed by Andresson. For example, Andresson found 68% of the Japanese ESL population to be aged 15-19, and 74% of the Japanese ESL population to be female [see Andresson, 1986: 77]. In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, 98 % of the student population were in the 15-19 age range, and all students (100%) were female. Therefore, the student population in this study appears quite similar to other Japanese English as a Second Language program participants. To the extent the population is representative of a particular group, the findings may therefore be anticipated to generalize to other similar populations (Babbie, 1992).

3.1.1.2 Motivation

Students' motivation for entering into a language learning situation has been shown to influence their success in the ESL classroom (Tremblay & Gardner, 1994). It has been suggested that "integrative" motivation or the desire to assimilate into the target group - personal or internal motivation) is often more powerful with respect to success in second language acquisition than "instrumental" motivation (learning the language for a job, etc.) (Gardner, 1985 - but see Kraemer, 1993). The extent and distribution of differences in motivation in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute is described below. In this description, mean (average) group scores which are reported in the tables are the main focus in the construction of CBAK+. However, I will also refer on occasion to specific descriptive statistics (e.g., frequencies, in percentage responses on 5-point Likert scales) to clarify specific trends. These frequencies are also summarized in Appendix A.

Results

The majority of participants more strongly agreed or agreed with the statement "I came to Canada because I want to work in a job that requires English" (63.6%, n= 242), than with the statements "I came to Canada because I'm interested in Canada and

Canadian culture" (55.2%, n=209), or "I came to Canada as a course requirement" (54.2%, n=206). Only 46 students (12.2%) agreed with the statement "I came to Canada for a vacation," 26.4% (n=100) chose "Neutral," and the rest disagreed.

It is interesting to note that according to the results summarized below "instrumental motivation" appears to have been a slightly stronger motivation than "integrative motivation" with this subject population, with more students indicating they had come to Canada for work-related reasons (63.6%, n=242), than sociocultural reasons (55.2%, n=209), or academic reasons (54.2%, n=206).

Table #9 **Motivation**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
(11) I came to Canada for a vacation	2.689	1.043	Neutral
(12) I came to Canada because I want to work in a job that requires English	1.211	1.059	Agree
(13) I came to Canada because I'm interested in Canada and Canadian culture	1.525	0.879	Agree
(14) I came to Canada as a course requirement	1.392	1.170	Agree

A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4

The mean responses also indicate that the students agreed slightly more strongly that they had come because of future jobs (mean: 1.211) and/or as a course requirement (mean: 1.392), than to learn about Canada or Canadians (mean: 1.525). However, coming to Canada as a vacation evoked a mean response which was between neutral and disagree (2.689).

Discussion

These results, which are consistent with Kraemer's (1993) findings suggesting that integrative motivation is not necessary for language acquisition in all populations, appear to suggest the need for further research into the types of motivation as related to different groups of students (e.g., culture, short-term or study abroad) because (i) this motivation appears to be prevalent in even as large a population as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study participants, and (ii) if positive change is found to occur (especially positive linguistic change) in a short-term program, the motivation type may have a strong effect.

Finally, since only 46 students (12.2%) agreed with the statement "I came to Canada for a vacation," it appears that more students were aware of the academic

purposes of the program than of the sociocultural purposes, and/or expected a more traditional focus. Data from the interviews further supports the instrumental orientation of many Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students. A large number of students stated that they wanted to learn English to become "ground hostesses" (or greeters) at the airport - or stewardesses if they were tall enough.

In the LPPC Model, student motivation (Smotivation) is considered a sub-factor of student style, or a factor in individual variation. The fact that the majority of students appear to share the same "instrumental" motivation, however, also suggests little salient influence of this factor on change in this study.

3.1.1.3 Cognitive/learning style

Pre-course findings concerning students' cognitive/learning styles also show little overall inter-student variation, which provides evidence of a particularly homogeneous (rather than heterogeneous) CBAK+ for this population.

Results

44.5% of students (n=169) either agreed or strongly agreed that they "learn(t) best by reading," while only 18.5% (n=74) disagreed or strongly disagreed. Other findings include 77.1% (n=293) either agreed or strongly agreed that they "learn(t) best by listening" while only 3.2% (n=12) disagreed or strongly disagreed; and 19% (n=82) either agreed or strongly agreed that they "learn(t) best by writing," while 33.5% (n=127) disagreed or strongly disagreed.

The only strategies which showed some diversity were (i) memorizing lists, with 30.8% (n=117) either agreeing or strongly agreeing that they "learn(t) best by memorizing lists," and 21.3% (n=81) disagreeing or strongly disagreeing, and (ii) practicing by (one)self with 21.6% (n=120) either agreeing or strongly agreeing that they "learn(t) best by reading," while 30.3% (n=115) either disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Discussion

This overall lack of diversity does not appear consistent with the findings of Oxford (1990) and others which would predict a greater diversity of learning strategies although the number of items on the student questionnaires concerning strategy use was

considerably shorter than Oxford's (1990) SILL, which may have influenced results.

Examining the data from the perspective of group trends, mean scores for each variable are presented below. These findings suggest the strongest preferences for strategies also appear to be those which would be most useful in a short-term or study-abroad program.

Table #10   **Cognitive/learning style**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
(PR74) I think I learn best by reading	1.657	0.995	Agree
(PR75) I think I learn best by listening	0.921	0.812	Strongly agree
(PR76) I think I learn best by writing out notes	2.163	0.864	Neutral
(PR77) I think I learn best by memorizing words and/or lists	1.881	0.913	Agree
(PR78) I think I learn best by practicing by myself	1.932	1.040	Agree
(PR79) I think I learn best by practicing speaking with native speakers	0.400	0.623	Strongly agree
(PR80) I prefer to study in a group	1.743	0.892	Agree
(PR81) I prefer to study by myself	1.997	1.087	Agree

A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4

For example, the majority of students strongly agreed that they learnt best by listening (mean: 0.921) and practicing speaking with native speakers (mean: 0.400). With respect to practicing speaking with native speakers, 93.2% of students (n=354) either agreed or strongly agreed that they learnt best with this strategy (and no students disagreed).

These cognitive/learning style results can be interpreted in at least two ways: first, it can be interpreted that students who participated in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study were predisposed to using oral/aural strategies at the beginning, or second, the students (correctly) anticipated the skills which would be most useful in this program (rather than general preferences in strategy use), and responded accordingly on the questionnaire. As will be elaborated later in Section 3.3, it appears that the latter explanation is more plausible. In other words, items concerning strategy use were interpreted as referring to strategies to be used in the program itself (i.e., a situation-specific interpretation).

In addition, the similarities in response across the group also support the overall homogeneity of the group with respect to preferred strategies (in this context), and they suggest that the students' strategies as indicated on the pre-course questionnaires could

positively predispose them for the types of activities and learning focusses of the program (i.e., they should be successful). However, as an attribute which could distinguish different types of students, and perhaps, therefore, account for any observed variation in later outcomes or differences in change, cognitive/learning style does not appear to be useful for this homogeneous population.

3.1.1.4 Student style: Summary

In summary, the contribution of student style to the development of the CBAK+ (or class profile) of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population is the image of a group of young Japanese women with primarily instrumental motivation and a preferred learning style which emphasizes oral and aural skills.

3.1.2 Student linguistic expectations

In terms of the LPPC model, the SBAK+ category of *student linguistic expectations* (Sexpectations - Linguistic) includes an aggregate of previous experience with English (Senglish experience), college major (Smajor), number of languages spoken (S#languages), previous experience using English with Canadians (Scanadian experience), and perceptions of language learning. In this section, I will develop a profile of the linguistic expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population as a whole.

3.1.2.1 Education and language learning experience

In this section, I will develop a profile of the linguistic expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population as a whole based on education and language learning experience.

Results

The students had most recently completed high school (57.7%, n=217) or college (42.3%, n=159). English was the major of 91.1% of students (n=349). The only other major chosen was "Business" by 27 students (7.2%). Other possible options were "science," "tourism" and "other." The majority of students (96.3%, n=363) had six to nine years of English language training, with an additional 2.9% (n=11) of students indicating they had ten to fifteen years experience. In addition, one participant had 16 or more years

of experience, and one participant had 2-5 years of ESL. The majority of participants (56.7%, n=212), however, reported speaking only one language (presumably Japanese), while 43.2%(n=162) of subjects reported speaking two (39.6%, n=148) or three languages (14%, n=14). The latter results may be interpreted as suggesting a possible difference between perceived language proficiency and actual language ability. Theoretically, this finding at the beginning of the course might anticipate a similar difference at the end. For example, student interviewees, from whom the language data was obtained, may not perceive as much linguistic change as may be objectively identified.

Discussion

In the LPPC model, it was hypothesized that inter-subject differences in previous language learning experience and education could influence linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change in a short term intensive language program as an attribute of "student linguistic expectations" (Sexpect (ling)), as well as being of relevance to the issue of language learning versus language activation. It was therefore interesting to note that while some differences existed in previous language learning experience among students in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, more similarities were found than differences. For example, it was found that 96.5% (n=363) of the students had six to nine years of English language training, with an additional 2.9% (n=11) of students indicating they had ten to fifteen years experience, and one student having had 16 or more years of experience. Due to these similarities, language learning experience and education does not appear to be a useful distinguishing factor with this homogeneous population. These findings of student population homogeneity also suggest that post-course differences found in student results may be to a greater extent attributable to *teacher factors*, because students did not differ from each other in many ways.

It was known prior to administration of the questionnaires that the students were typically just entering their second year at Aoyama Junior College. Therefore, it was not surprising to find that 57.7% (n=217) of subjects had most recently completed high school. It is suggested, however, that the fact that a large number of students (42.3%, n= 159) chose "College" was most likely due to their having interpreted the question to mean

"are currently in college" (entering second year at Aoyama Junior College). This interpretation is supported by anecdotal evidence from the ESL teachers.

English was the major of 91.1% (n=349) of the students. The only other major chosen was "Business" by 27 students (7.2%). Both of these choices (especially the former) were considered to suggest a strong initial interest in English language learning, and/or they offer an explanation for the earlier findings concerning the apparent instrumental orientation of students with respect to motivation. However, anecdotal evidence also suggests a second or third option not evident in these results. It was discovered *post hoc* by the researcher that two of the fourteen ESL classes were special groupings (secretarial students).[47] The fact that "secretarial" was not an option may have resulted in subjects choosing either "no answer" (1.8%, n=7) or either "business" or "English." These differences did not appear to have influenced the overall results, however.

These findings appear relevant to two theoretical issues. First, the apparently extensive EFL language backgrounds of the majority of students suggests the conceptualization of linguistic-based change found in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student populations may be better viewed in terms of *language activation* rather than *language acquisition*. This finding is further supported by the temporal threshold identified from the interview data [see discussion, Section 3.2]. Second, due to the relatively homogenous subject population with respect to experience, number of languages spoken, etc., the generalizability of the findings of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute short-term intensive language program to other short-term intensive language programs may be restricted to similar populations with similar language training or experience.[48] However, as noted previously, this apparent homogeneity does simplify the development of a generally representative class profile

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[47]Personal communication (P. Rubidge).

[48] Arguably, the Canadian French as a Second Language (core) program seems to produce similar results - and/or other study-abroad programs - in which students have studied as   first languages, but go to immersion to practice (Gardner, 1985).

(CBAK+).

3.1.2.2 Attitudes towards language, language learning, and language use

Linguistic expectations were hypothesized to be based on actual experience [see Section 3.1.2.1], as well as attitudes towards language, language learning and language use.

Results and discussion

In this section, I will elaborate on the construction of the CBAK+ for the students in this study by briefly describing group attitudes (based on mean responses). Each of these categories were present on both pre-course and post-course questionnaires. Therefore, they will also be discussed with respect to change in Section 3.2.

Table #11   **Attitudes towards language learning**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Result
**(PR57) I think that having an accent in English is	0.887	0.863	Big problem
*(PR59) I believe having good Listening/Speaking skills in English is	0.240	0.480	Very important
*(PR91) I believe having good reading & writing skills in English is	0.510	0.630	Very important

*A (Very important) = 0, B (Important) = 1, C (Ok) = 2, D (Not important) = 3, E (Not very important) = 4 ; **A (Big problem) = 0, B (A problem) = 1, C (Only a problem if not understood) = 2, D (Not a problem) = 3, E (Indicates my heritage) = 4

Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills were seen as important or very important at the beginning of the program. Having an accent was also considered a big problem. In other words, "good" pronunciation was seen as important. In addition, learning languages in a general sense or English was considered "very difficult." "Learning to read English" was considered to be "difficult," while learning to write, speak and understand spoken English were perceived to be "very difficult."

Table #12   **Language learning anxiety**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
(PR44) I think learning languages is	0.603	0.614	Very difficult
(PR46) I think learning English is	0.758	0.689	Very difficult
(PR47) I think learning to read English is	1.013	0.750	Difficult
(PR48) I think learning to write English is	0.525	0.601	Very difficult
(PR49) I think learning to speak English is	0.602	0.676	Very difficult
(PR50) I think learning to understand spoken English is	0.794	0.773	Very difficult

A (Very difficult) = 0, B (Difficult) = 1, C (OK) = 2, D (Easy) = 3, E (Very easy) = 4

The fact that students appeared to consider the process of learning language(s) as difficult or very difficult, while they also believed good language skills to be important,

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suggests a high initial level of language learning anxiety. In general, students were also more optimistic about learning to understand spoken English (aural rather than oral development, passive rather than active language skills). In addition, students did not appear to be very confident in using English and/or meeting Canadians, further supporting the interpretation of high levels of language use anxiety. They appeared to feel most confident using English with other Japanese people, the option with the lowest level of cultural or linguistic risk-taking.

Table #13   **Language use anxiety**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Result
*(PR27) I think I know how to behave appropriately with Canadians	2.722	0.758	Disagree
*(PR28) I feel confident speaking English to Canadians	2.784	0.793	Disagree
*(PR29) I feel comfortable socializing with Canadians	2.230	0.936	Disagree
**(PR54) I think speaking English to a shop clerk in a store or bus driver is	1.350	0.803	Difficult
**(PR55) I think speaking English to a teacher is	1.293	0.764	Difficult
**(PR56) I think speaking English to Japanese people is	1.700	0.901	Difficult

*A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4
**A (Very difficult) = 0, B (Difficult) = 1, C (OK) = 2, D (Easy) = 3, E (Very easy) = 4

Finally, linguistic expectations may also be based on previous experience (Brecht et al., 1995). Based on self-assessments of literacy/proficiency, it would appear students had more problems in English grammar or spelling than Japanese. These results are not unexpected since Japanese was their native language.

Table #14   **Self-assessment of literacy/proficiency**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
(PR89) When I write in English, I have problems with grammar/spelling	1.247	0.819	Often
(PR90) When I write in Japanese, I have problems with grammar/spelling	2.376	0.813	Sometimes

A (Always) = 0, B (Often) = 1, C (Sometimes) = 2, D (Rarely) = 3, E (Never) = 4

However, if students believed they often had problems with English grammar or spelling, we might expect that they would expect to encounter similar problems during the three-week program, and that a continuation of such problems could either be interpreted negatively ("I did not improve") or positively ("these problems are expected"). Areas in which grammar or spelling which were perceived to have improved in the same period would probably be interpreted as positive change (and arguably, therefore, as achievement).

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3.1.2.3 Linguistic expectations: Summary

In summary, linguistic expectations within the construction of the CBAK+ for the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students appeared to include the following expectations: language learning is difficult, language skills are important, and using English is difficult (high levels of language use anxiety). Students were also found to have some previous experience with native speakers and an interest in English music. These results would suggest generally positive attitudes towards the target language speakers and culture.

3.1.3 Student cultural expectations: Results and discussion

Student cultural expectations (Sculture) were defined as an aggregate of previous experience with Canadians and Canada and perceptions of the target language group (Canadians). In this section, I will develop a profile of the cultural expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population as a whole.

3.1.3.1 Cross-cultural experience

In this section, I will develop a profile of the cultural expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population as a whole based on cross-cultural experience.

Results

The majority of the students (72.6%, n=273) had never been to an English speaking country prior to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute in Victoria. However, a minority (21.0%, n=79) had made one previous visit, and 6.4% (n=24) had reported making 2-5 visits to English speaking countries. In addition, 77.8% (n=294) of the students indicated they had either rarely (32.8%, n=124) or never (45%, n=170) met Canadians in Japan.[49] 18% (n=68) of the students had met Canadians in Japan

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[49]However, based on the mean response (often) to #PR82 ("I speak with native speakers outside of class"), it should be remembered that the majority of native speakers of English in Japan are not Canadians, and therefore students may have had more previous contact with native English speakers then is clearly recognized here.

sometimes, and 4.2% (n=16) had met Canadians in Japan often or frequently. Only 8 students (2.1%) had ever visited Canada prior to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. However, previous academic exposure to the study of Canada appeared divided, with 49.7% (n=189) of students reporting that they had rarely or never studied about Canada in school, and 49.4% (n=188) reporting that they had sometimes or often studied about Canada in school.

Discussion

The extent of students' previous travel to any English speaking countries was of interest with respect to the possible influence of previous experience with different cultures and/or possible immersion experiences (SBAK+) on pedagogical and perceptual change in the areas of expectations concerning classroom activities and roles, perceptions of Canada and Canadians, and culture shock. It was hypothesized (Hypothesis #10) that the degree to which one has a "realistic" (coinciding with the actual events encountered) conception of the new culture and cultural norms (and program expectations) may also influence the degree to which culture shock-type phenomena impact on an individual.

Thus, the finding that the majority of students (72.6%, n=273) had never been to an English speaking country prior to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute in Victoria suggests the influence of previous experience as a factor would be minimal. Interestingly, a disproportionate number of the student interview subjects had been abroad to English speaking countries, although these differences would probably not have influenced overall group results due to the small number of interviewees [see discussion, Section 2.3.2].

The degree to which students may have been familiarized to aspects of Canadian culture through encounters with Canadians while in Japan, or through study of Canada while in Japan, was also considered. Such previous experience does not appear to have been extensive, as 77.8% (n= 294) of students indicated they had either rarely or never met Canadians in Japan. However, there appeared to be a split concerning previous academic exposure to the study of Canada with 49.7% (n=189) of students reporting that they had rarely or never studied about Canada in school, and 49.4% (n=188) reporting

that they had sometimes or often studied about Canada in school. These results could reflect either differences in class focus or preparation at Aoyama College (pre-Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute), or a problem in interpretation of the question. As the students were only entering their second year at Aoyama College, these differences may reflect curricular differences in their previous schooling.

In general, however, these findings create a profile of a subject population (CBAK+) with little prior contact with Canadians or Canadian culture, nor much knowledge of Canada, and therefore, little previous schema or passive knowledge of the culture (although not necessary a lack of linguistic knowledge - see previous Footnote) to be activated. With such a population, we could expect culture shock, linguistic change with respect to topics such as knowledge of Canada, and little familiarity with Canadian teaching techniques.

3.1.3.2 Attitudes towards target language group

In this section, I will develop a profile of the cultural expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population as a whole based on attitudes towards the target language group.

Results

Students appear to have arrived with generally positive views of the target language population, describing Canadians as friendly, polite, helpful, considerate and honest. They were neutral with respect to the negative trait item "superficial" and disagreed with the negative trait item "rude." They tended to not expect similarities between Japanese and Canadians, with the mean (2.835) suggesting a more negative (disagree) reading.

Table #15   **Attitudes towards target language group**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results

*(PR19) I think Canadians are friendly	0.619	0.681	Strongly agree
*(PR20) I think Canadians are polite	0.976	0.744	Strongly agree
*(PR21) I think Canadians are honest	1.053	0.766	Agree
*(PR22) I think Canadians are helpful	0.558	0.696	Strongly agree
*(PR23) I think Canadians are considerate	0.802	0.794	Strongly agree
*(PR24) I think Canadians are superficial	2.398	0.888	Neutral
*(PR25) I think Canadians are rude	3.302	0.646	Strongly disagree
*(PR26) I think Canadians are similar to Japanese people	2.835	0.722	Neutral
***(PR50) I think understanding English television or movies is	0.640	0.773	Very difficult
***(PR51) I think learning to understand Canadian culture is	1.440	0.728	Difficult
***(PR53) I think making friends with Canadians is	1.620	0.792	Difficult

*A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4
***A (Very difficult) = 0, B (Difficult) = 1, C (OK) = 2, D (Easy) = 3, E (Very easy) = 4

They also anticipated considerable difficulty understanding Canadian culture (and culturally embedded television and radio) and making friends with Canadians.

Discussion

It appears that initial attitudes were generally positive towards the target language group, although understanding Canadian culture was thought to be difficult. Therefore, CBAK+ would be initially very positive. We might predict (i) little positive change would be seen (because of ceiling effects), and (ii) changes would be more likely to coincide with the more "concrete" traits on the questionnaire (e.g., friendliness, helpfulness, consideration) which a student may be more likely to have been able to "test" during her encounters with Canadians. These "testable" characteristics could include, for example, the "friendliness" or "helpfulness" of cultural assistants or host families or strangers on campus who smile and say hello, and/or give directions or advice, etc. The trait of "honesty" may be a more amorphous concept than those discussed above, and/or it would be one which few students would have the opportunity to "test." The perceived difficulty in making friends with Canadians could also be easily tested.

Thus, influence of contact with Canadians, in general, on factors relating to comfort with language use and changes in perceptions of cross-cultural differences between Canadians and Japanese students may be identified. For example, pre-course responses to the statement "I think Canadians are similar to Japanese people" were primarily negative with 58.7% disagreed or strongly disagreed.

3.1.3.3 Cultural expectations: Summary

In summary, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students shared not only the same language, gender and culture, but also on average, they had little

personal experience with Canadians or Canadian culture. However, they also shared a very positive attitude towards Canadians. These results would suggest generally positive attitudes towards the target language speakers and culture, which as noted above, could be tested by contact in the following three weeks. However, as the initial responses were quite positive, a ceiling effect on positive change may occur.

3.1.4 Student pedagogical expectations

Student pedagogical expectations (Sexpectations - Pedagogical) were defined as an aggregate of expectations concerning class activities (Sclass activities), class roles (Sclass roles), and program goals (Sppg). As in the previous section, due to the more concrete nature of the items in these categories (techniques and activities), these expectations were considered to be more "testable" during the course of the program than other areas. It was predicted that any divergence of class expectations from class experience would be identifiable in pedagogical change [Section 3.2.3]. In this section, I will develop a profile of the pedagogical expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population as a whole, based on previous student experience with Canadian teachers, student expectations of the program, classroom activities and classroom roles.

3.1.4.1 Experience with Canadian teachers and expectations of the classroom

In this section, I will develop a profile of the pedagogical expectations of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population as a whole, based on previous student experience with Canadian teachers, student expectations of the program, classroom activities and classroom roles.

Results

Only 24.4% (n=92) of the students had ever had a Canadian teacher in Japan. Of these students, almost half (10.6%, n=40) had only had a Canadian teacher for one class. Only 8.8% (n=33) had Canadian teachers for an extended period of time such as one year (7.2%, n=27) or more than one year (1.6%, n=6). It is difficult to interpret the 5% (n=19) who chose "other" (tutors?). In general, the majority of students, 75.6% (n=285) indicated

that they had never had a Canadian teacher in Japan.[50] Therefore, the fact that the students

apparently had little experience with Canadian teachers suggests pedagogical expectations

consistent with traditional Japanese education, not communicative/ sociocultural ones.

Discussion

Based on student responses concerning their expectations of the program (or

learning situation), students appeared to have expected a considerable amount of contact

with Canadians and a lot of language learning and practice (Table #16). Given these

expectations, we would expect change if the expectations were not met.

Table #16   **Expectations of the program**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
(PR30) In this program, I expect to learn about Canada and Canadians	0.508	0.714	Strongly Agree
(PR31) In this program, I expect to learn more English	0.273	0.507	Strongly Agree
(PR32) In this program, I expect to practice my English	0.220	0.468	Strongly Agree
(PR33) In this program, I expect to learn about Canadian youth culture	0.844	0.775	Strongly Agree
(PR34) In this program, I expect to be given opportunities to meet Canadians	0.380	0.611	Strongly Agree
(PR35) In this program, I expect to have my beliefs challenged by new experiences	0.449	0.682	Strongly Agree

A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4

In addition, as illustrated in Table 17, students expected their teachers to use

games, group and pair work, and reading and writing activities in class often, but they

expected music, homework and tests less often.

Table #17   **Expectations of classroom activities**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
(PR66) I think the teacher will use music in class	2.073	0.741	Sometimes
(PR67) I think the teacher will use games in class	1.551	0.734	Often
(PR68) I think the teacher will have us work in groups	1.669	0.810	Often
(PR69) I think the teacher will have us work in pairs	1.400	0.844	Often
(PR70) I think the teacher will have us read in English	1.047	0.979	Often
(PR71) I think the teacher will have us write in English	1.601	0.891	Often
(PR72) I think the teacher will give us homework	2.313	0.831	Sometimes
(PR73) I think the teacher will give us tests	2.523	0.780	Sometimes

A (Always) = 0, B (Often) = 1, C (Sometimes) = 2, D (Rarely) = 3, E (Never) = 4

As noted previously, these expectations could be easily tested in the program itself.

In other words, little change would occur if expectations were met, more change if not.

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[50]It should be noted, however, that not having had a Canadian teacher in Japan does not
necessarily mean that the students had not been exposed to "Western" teaching (for example,
communicative approach).

With respect to successful student characteristics (or expectations of classroom roles) (Table #18), it appears that students considered volunteering answers and co-operating with other students to be the most valued student behaviours. These values appear consistent with Japanese cultural values (Wadden, 1993). The students also agreed, albeit slightly less strongly, that being polite and sitting quietly was important.

Table #18   **Expectations of classroom roles**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
(PR60) I think the teacher will want me to be polite	1.395	0.827	Agree
(PR61) I think the teacher will want me to sit quietly until asked a question	1.438	1.067	Agree
(PR62) I think the teacher will want me to volunteer answers	0.653	0.709	Strongly agree
(PR63) I think the teacher will want me to co-operate with other students	0.997	0.882	Strongly agree
(PR64) I think the teacher will want me to compete with other students	1.923	0.876	Agree
(PR65) I think the teacher will correct my English pronunciation and grammar	1.097	0.814	Agree

A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4

The extent of previous experience with Canadian ESL teachers was of interest because of the possible influence of previous experience with different cultures, teacher styles and/or possible immersion experiences on pedagogical and perceptual change, for example, expectations concerning classroom activities and roles, perceptions of Canada and Canadians, and culture shock (Hypothesis #10).

The degree to which students may have been familiarized to aspects of Canadian culture and/or pedagogical techniques through encounters with Canadians and/or Canadian teachers while in Japan, or through study of Canada while in Japan did not appear to have been extensive, as 75.6% (n=285) of students indicated they had never had a Canadian teacher in Japan, and 77.8% (n= 294) of students indicated they had either rarely or never met Canadians in Japan. Therefore, with respect to program goals, the students appear to have expected to learn and practice English, and meet Canadians and learn about the culture. They expected the teachers to use group and pair work, games and focus on reading and writing. They did not expect much homework or many tests.

With respect to prior interest and/or exposure to English,[51] the category of "interest in foreign languages" was intended to contrast students' interest in English

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[51] These items may be interpreted both ways.

language media with Japanese language media. It appears that prior to taking part in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, the majority of the students' contact with English came from listening to English radio/music. While this result was not unexpected because access to English (or American) music would be much easier than English print media in Japan, listening to English music probably offers more support for an interest in North American culture, rather than the English language, and therefore it provides little insight into possible language achievement.

Table #19   **Interest in Foreign Languages**

Question/Category	Mean	Standard deviation	Results
(PR83) I listen to English radio/music	1.746	1.072	Often
(PR84) I watch English TV	2.536	0.914	Sometimes
(PR85) I read English magazines, newspapers and/or books	2.778	0.946	Sometimes
(PR86) I read Japanese magazines, newspapers and/or books	0.779	0.936	Always
(PR87) I write letters/essays/reports in English	2.853	0.844	Sometimes
(PR88) I write letters/essay/reports in Japanese	0.992	0.877	Always
(PR82) I speak with native speakers outside of class	2.444	0.790	Sometimes

A (Always) = 0, B (Often) = 1, C (Sometimes) = 2, D (Rarely) = 3, E (Never) = 4

An interesting finding was the response to #PR82 ("I speak with native speakers outside of class"). The amount of contact is important as *student extracurricular contact* is assumed to influence *student achievement* in the LPPC model. This finding suggests many students already had some contact with English speakers (although these English speakers were not necessarily Canadians). Therefore, contact with native speakers of English would not be completely novel to many students. The diversity of response, however, there could be a considerable individual variation in amount of contact while in Canada.

3.1.4.2 Pedagogical expectations: Summary

In general, these findings appear to create a picture of a subject population (CBAK+) with little prior contact with Canadian teachers or Canadian culture. With such a population, we would therefore expect culture shock, linguistic change with respect to topics such as knowledge of Canada, and little familiarity with the type of teaching techniques most likely to be used in a short-term program with sociocultural goals.

3.1.5 COAELI student Pre-course CBAK+: Summary

In summary, as illustrated in Figure 5 [below], the Camosun Osaka Aoyama

English Language Institute student population group profile, or CBAK+, was composed of an aggregate of individual profiles (SBAK+). The cumulative CBAK+ includes a number of interesting characteristics.
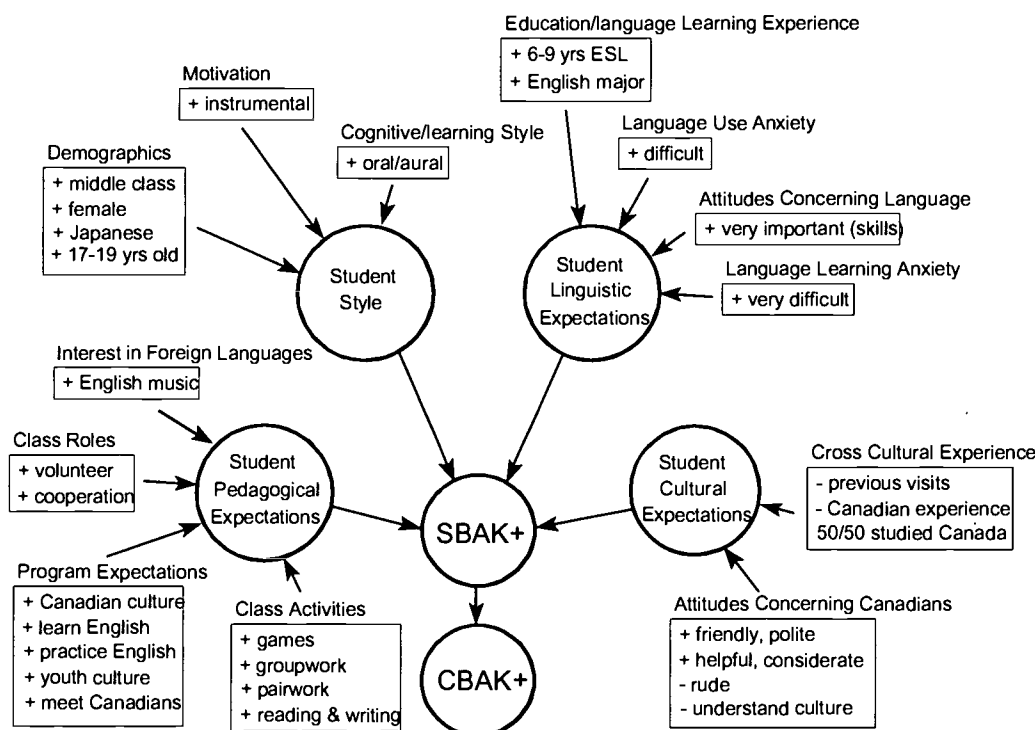
Figure 5   COAELI Student Pre-course CBAK+

The students were a group of young Japanese women with primarily instrumental motivation and a preferred learning style which emphasizes oral and aural skills. They appeared to expect language learning and language use to be difficult, although they felt that language skills were important. The students were also found to have some previous experience with native speakers and interest in English music. As a group, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students shared not only the same language, gender and culture, but also on average, they had little personal experience with Canadians or Canadian culture. However, they also shared a very positive attitude towards

Canadians.

3.2 Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change

In this section, I will examine evidence of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. This evidence will be linked to concepts within the LPPC model. First, I will discuss evidence of perceived and measured linguistic change. I will then examine evidence of perceptual and pedagogical change.

3.2.1 Linguistic change: Results and discussion

The term *linguistic change* in this analysis refers to pre- and post-course changes in (i) student perceptions of language comfort and use as measured by responses to questionnaire and interview items (Perceptions of language change), and (ii) changes in student production across four interviews (Linguistic change).

I will first discuss perceptions of linguistic change because in the context of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute perceived (positive) change was hypothesized to be one of the most salient factors in the construction of student achievement (due to the lack of language tests, etc.).[52] The importance of self-interpretation (or attributions) to an individual's perception of achievement was discussed in Section 1.4.8. Positive perceived linguistic change on questionnaire items will also be considered a factor influencing a higher level of perceived student achievement (and arguably, teacher achievement) than negative change.

In this analysis, positive change will generally[53] refer to changes in mean responses towards the most positively worded choice on positively worded items ("Strongly agree," "Very easy," "Always"), and negative change will refer to changes in mean responses towards the most negatively worded choice on positively worded items ("Strongly

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[52]While perceptions of language change could also have been analyzed as perceptual change, examining the results with respect to linguistic change provides added insight into language change (i.e., triangulation).

[53]In some cases, such as pedagogical change [Section 3.2.3], changes in responses may be interpreted differently (e.g., the extent to which expectations were met).

disagree," "Very difficult," "Never").

Perceptions of linguistic change will also be discussed with respect to comments by student interviewees concerning changes they perceived in their own language abilities over the four interviews. In each of four interviews, students were explicitly asked to discuss perceived areas of improvement in listening and/or speaking skills.[54] These interview responses provide more detailed insight into perceived linguistic change than indirect questionnaire responses alone.

Second, I will discuss evidence of linguistic change based on changes in fluency measures. To begin, I will discuss evidence of change over time based on changes in measures including variables such as communicative strategies (topic changes), comprehension (inappropriate responses, incomplete responses), topic development, number of grammatical errors and lexical errors, mean length of utterance (MLU), total number of utterances (per student per interview), and range (difference between maximum/minimum length of utterance per student per interview). I will then discuss evidence of significant time periods ("windows of change") in a three-week program and the validity of the measures proposed for linguistic change themselves.

Thirdly, evidence of individual variation in linguistic performance and linguistic change among the student interviewees will be discussed. Individual variation in changes in fluency has been a frequent finding in study-abroad research (Freed, 1995c), and the extent to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study also finds evidence of such variation provides an indication of the similarities between these studies, as well as further information concerning the phenomenon. Finally, a summary of the content of the student interviews will be provided.

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[54]Reading and/or writing were known to not be a focus of the program.

3.2.1.1 Perceptions of linguistic change

Considerable support for linguistic change can be found by triangulating questionnaire, quantitative analysis of interview data and self-report data of interview transcripts. These findings are also important with respect to the construction of the variable *student achievement* (and therefore, teacher achievement) in the LPPC model, which includes increased fluency (*Sfluency*), and increased comfort in language use (*Slang use*) and comprehension (*Slang*). In the following section, I will provide evidence of perceived language change based on student self-report on questionnaires and interviews.

3.2.1.1.1 Language use anxiety and language comfort

In this section, I will provide evidence of perceived language change based on student self-report on questionnaires concerning language use anxiety and language comfort.

Results and discussion

Statistically significant positive change was seen with respect to indicators of increased comfort with language use, such as knowing how to behave appropriately with Canadians (p<.001), feeling confident speaking English and socializing with Canadians (p<.001), and speaking English with clerks, bus drivers and teachers (p<.001). Statistically significant positive change (p<.05) was found with respect to speaking English to Japanese people.

Table #20   **Language use anxiety and Language comfort[55]**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean #2	Change	T-score	<
Language comfort					
*(PR27)/(PS9) I think I know how to behave appropriately with Canadians	2.722	2.161	+	-12.37	.001
*(PR28)/(PS10) I feel confident speaking English to Canadians	2.784	2.373	+	-9.24	.001
*(PR29)/(PS11) I feel comfortable socializing with Canadians	2.230	1.952	+	-5.53	.001
Language use anxiety					
**(PR54)/(PS34) I think speaking English to a shop clerk in a store is	1.350	1.989	- [+]	13.13	.001
**(PR55)/(PS35) I think speaking English to a teacher is	1.293	1.730	- [+]	10.28	.001
**(PR56)/(PS36) I think speaking English to Japanese people is	1.700	2.827	- [+]	2.37	.018

*A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4
**A (Very difficult) = 0, B (Difficult) = 1, C (OK) = 2, D (Easy) = 3, E (Very easy) = 4; (+) Positive change; (-) Negative change

Results appear to provide support for the success of the goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute with respect to increased comfort in language use (or positive perceived linguistic change). For example, with respect to speaking with a shop clerk or bus driver (pragmatic survival English), with a teacher, or to other Japanese people (continuing usage), the majority of students progressed from "Difficult" to "OK" or "Easy," with all but #PR56/PS36 ("I think speaking English to Japanese people is") significant at p<.001. This positive change indicates a perceived linguistic change with respect to an increase in comfort with language, and increased comprehension. These results are consistent with the findings in the interview data [Section 3.2.1.1.5], and findings of Freed (1995b & 1995c). These findings are also consistent with program success, because one of the program goals was increased comfort in language use, as well as positive change with respect to the CBAK+ characteristic of (high) language use anxiety (i.e., decreased anxiety). Arguably, lowered language use anxiety may contribute to student achievement and/or teacher achievement according to the LPPC model.

Finally, significant change (p<.001) between pre-course and post-course results was found with respect to both the aggregate variables "language use anxiety" (t=16.80) and "language comfort" (t=-11.89) [discussed in Section 3.3.2.3]. These results provide support for the LPPC model, as well as providing support for Hypotheses #1 and 2 insofar

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[55]Based on a reliability analysis and factor analysis, the category of "language use anxiety" was divided into two separate categories: language use anxiety and language comfort [see discussion Section 3.3.2.5].

as positive linguistic and perceptual change were found.

3.2.1.1.2 Interest in foreign languages

In this section, I will provide evidence of perceived language change based on student self-report on questionnaires concerning interest in foreign languages.

Results

Statistically significant change (p<.001) was found with respect to amount of speaking with native speakers outside of class.

Table #21   **Interest in Foreign Languages**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean #2	Change	T-score	<
(PR83)/(PS63) I listen to English radio/music	1.746	1.688	+	-1.47	n/s
(PR84)/(PS64) I watch English TV	2.536	2.576	-	.96	n/s
(PR85)/(PS65) I read English magazines, newspapers and/or books	2.778	2.860	-	1.77	n/s
(PR86)/(PS66) I read Japanese magazines, newspapers and/or books	0.779	0.880	-	1.81	n/s
(PR87)/(PS67) I write letters/essays/reports in English	2.853	2.769	+	-1.82	n/s
(PR88)/(PS68) I write letters/essay/reports in Japanese	0.992	0.965	+	-.52	n/s
(PR82)/(PS62) I speak with native speakers outside of class	2.444	2.132	+	-6.32	.001

*A (Always) = 0, B (Often) = 1, C (Sometimes) = 2, D (Rarely) = 3, E (Never) = 4
(+) Positive change; (-) Negative change; (n/s) Non-significant

However, no significant change was found with respect to listening to English radio or music, watching English TV, reading English or Japanese magazines, etc., or writing letters, etc. in English or Japanese.

Discussion

The finding that by the end of the course more students had spoken with native speakers outside class than before is not particularly surprising, given their prior lack of exposure to Canadians, or even travel to English countries. These findings are important, however, as the amount of contact is important as *student extracurricular contact* is assumed to influence *student achievement* in the LPPC model. In other words, the fact that the students had more contact on the post-course questionnaire suggests positive achievement since they had initially expressed a desire to meet Canadians and/or practice English. From the student interviews, considerable individual variation in amount of contact was seen. For example, with one student, A, stated she had talked to over 50 Canadians in the past week; whereas other students had only talked to shop clerks to make purchases or when forced to interview Canadians for class assignments. This variation is

consistent with much of the study-abroad research (Brecht et al., 1995; Freed, 1995b & 1995c; Huebner, 1995; Siegal, 1994, 1995) and it will be discussed further in Section 3.2.1.4.

The other results, little or no change, suggest that generally students either did not expect to read or watch TV (etc.) during the program, or they interpreted the question as one of actual occurrence (the dorms did not have such facilities). Therefore, the latter items such as listening to English radio or music, watching English TV, reading English or Japanese magazines (etc.), and writing letters in English or Japanese (etc.) do not appear to be useful measures of perceived linguistic change with this population. However in different educational contexts with different populations, such change could be significant, and it should not therefore be eliminated from future study.

Finally, significant change (p<.05) was found between pre-course and post-course results with respect to the aggregate variable "interest in foreign languages" (t=-2.14) [see discussion, Section 3.3.2.3], despite relatively little change on individual items. This result suggests that an overall increase in interest in foreign languages, or positive change (based on mean scores and item wording). This change would be consistent with positive student achievement.

3.2.1.1.3 Self-assessment of literacy/proficiency

In this section, I will provide evidence of perceived language change based on student self-report on questionnaires and interviews concerning self-assessment of literacy/proficiency.

Results and discussion

Significant negative change (p<.01) was found with respect to perceived increased difficulty with grammar and/or spelling in Japanese over the course of the program. A non-significant positive change can be seen with respect to decreased perceived difficulty in grammar/spelling in English. The results of "self-assessment of literacy/proficiency" may reflect the small number of items on the questionnaire considering this issue.

Table #22   **Self-assessment of literacy/proficiency**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean # 2	Change	T-score	<
(PR89)/(PS69) When I write in English, I have problems with grammar/spelling	1.247	1.304	- [+]	1.37	n/s
(PR90)/(PS70) When I write in Japanese, I have problems with grammar/spelling	2.376	2.248	+ [-]	-2.61	.01

**A (Always) = 0, B (Often) = 1, C (Sometimes) = 2, D (Rarely) = 3, E (Never) =4; (+) Positive change; (-) Negative change;

However, the perceived language attrition in Japanese skills (such that students appeared to feel they lost their Japanese proficiency in three weeks) was completely unexpected. This apparent mirror analog to language activation certainly deserves for further research (which is beyond the scope of this study).

Finally, no significant change was found between pre-course and post-course results with respect to the aggregate variable "self-assessment of literacy/proficiency" [see discussion, Section 3.3.2.3]. These results suggest either problems with the items, or no change in the short period of time. The fact that only two items only indirectly addressed this concern suggests the former interpretation is more plausible.

3.2.1.2 Perceived changes in language ability - Student Interview data

By triangulating questionnaire, quantitative analysis of interview data (fluency) and the self-report data of the interview transcripts, a more detailed description of linguistic change can be obtained. These results are also crucial in the construction of the variable *student achievement*, which includes increased fluency (*Sfluency*), and increased comfort in language use (*Slang use*) and comprehension (*Slang*). In the following section, I will provide evidence of perceived language improvement based on student interview data, especially with respect to increased comprehension which was not formally examined on the questionnaire.

3.2.1.2.1 Language production and language perception

Throughout the interview process, interviewees were asked to reflect on their own language change or development. In general, increased language comprehension appears to have occurred earlier in the program than production, in other words, within the first two weeks. However, the largest perceived improvements occurred in later interviews (Interviews #3 and 4), especially with respect to perceived improvement in language

production.

3.2.1.2.2 Increase in comprehension

A number of students explicitly commented on their perceived improvement in listening comprehension. However, the degree to which this improvement was felt, and at what time in the program (first, second or third week) differed. For example, in Interview #3, M indicates that her comprehension has improved considerably ("listening is very up"), but her speaking lags behind ("speaking not yet"). However, this trend is not universal, as her partner Y appears to have experienced the opposite, ("I speak, but hearing is a little better").

> Example 1 [Interview 3]:
> Interviewer: Is it easier to understand English now?
> M: Listening is very up, speaking not yet.
> Interviewer: What about you?
> Y: I speak, but hearing is a little better.

In Interview #4, A's comments also emphasize a more substantial increase in comprehension over production.

> Example 2 [Interview 4]:
> Interviewer: Is it easier now to speak English than when you came?
> A: A little
> Interviewer: What about listening?
> A: Better. I can hear but can't speak.

By contrast, in Example #3, M cites increased comprehension, as well as increased fluency as defined by increased speed of production ("can do faster").

> Example 3 [Interview 4]:
> Interviewer: Is it easier now to understand English?
> M: Yes.
> Interviewer: What about speaking?
> M: Can do faster.

Thus, M's perception of her increasing fluency (in terms of speed) concurs with Freed (1995c) and Griffith's (1990) results. Griffiths in particular maintains that the temporal variables of interest in L2 pedagogy are speech rate (and pause phenomena, which were not investigated in this study).

While some of these differences may be related to learner style or strategy differences, confirming this observation was beyond the scope of the study. However, the

differences in onset between increased comprehension and increased production appears to provide support for the language activation/acquisition distinction proposed in Section 1.1.3. [and discussed in Section 3.3.1.2]. The initial quick onset of increases in comprehension appears to provide evidence of the activation of passive language knowledge because there would have been little opportunity for students to be exposed to new language or skills at this point (after three or four days of class). The perceived lag in increased ability in language production, however, may be the result of (i) differences in the skills (e.g., listening does not require motor skills, nor as complex productive knowledge of syntax, etc.), and/or (ii) initial lack of success (or difficulty) in being understood (e.g., a hearer problem resulting in a perceived failure in the communicative act) followed by success (Brecht et al., 1995). Questionnaire findings on change in language use anxiety [Section 3.2.1.1.1] provide some support for (ii). For example, responses concerning behaving appropriately with Canadians, feeling confident speaking English with Canadians, and feeling comfortable with Canadians all showed significant ($p<.001$) positive change, as did the aggregate variable. In other words, the students felt more comfortable at the end of the program.

Therefore, these findings appear consistent with both Freed (1995b & 1995c) and Griffith's (1990) regarding the perceived increased fluency with study-abroad students. The variation between increased comprehension and production, and the individual variation, is also consistent with Brecht et al. (1995).

3.2.1.2.3 Language comfort

Language comfort, or comfort in use, also appears to have increased (as per course goals) by the end of the course. Both K and KK appeared to feel more comfortable speaking to Canadians and they indicate having experience "no problems" in native speaker communications by Interview #4.

Example 4 [Interview 4]:
Interviewer: Do you feel comfortable speaking to Canadians?
K: Yes.
KK: Yes.
Interviewer: No problems?
K: No.
KK: No.

These findings also confirm the overall population responses on the student questionnaire items concerning language comfort such as #PR29/PS11 ("I feel comfortable socializing with Canadians"). On the post-course questionnaire, the mean response (1.952) was agree, whereas the mean response on the pre-course questionnaire (2.230) was neutral. This positive change was significant (p<.001, t=-5.53).

3.2.1.2.4 Changes in language processing: Translation

Another interesting finding concerned a perceived change in language processing. In the quote below, while N indicates that she finds it easier to speak English at the end of the course in Interview #4, she emphasizes that, for her, the most significant perceived linguistic change was the fact she no longer translated through Japanese, as illustrated in Example #5 (below).

> Example 5 [Interview 4]:
> Interviewer: Is it easier to speak English now?
> N: Yes
> Interviewer: What about understanding?
> N: Before, when is speak to Canadians, I think English means...but now I just hear.
> Interviewer: Before you had to change it to Japanese. Now you hear it in English?
> N: Ya.

The apparent switch to automatic processing in English is interesting from a theoretical perspective because automaticity is generally considered a high level, top-down, form of language processing (Ellis, 1989). Automatic processing would also be consistent with the process of *language activation*, as automaticity arguably develops from previously "learnt" knowledge. As noted in Section 1.1.3, the fact that a large number of study-abroad students have some previous education in the target language and/or a high level of interest and/or aptitude (since most are self-selected) (Brecht et al., 1995) would also suggest that language activation may play a key role in the swift development of fluency and automatic language processing. In other words, if the basic knowledge of the language were not already in place, change (or emergence) of production and comprehension would be neither as fast nor as widespread. Therefore, this finding of translation provides support for both the LPPC model, and linguistic change

(Hypotheses #1 and 2). It provides evidence of linguistic change and possibly activation, as well as providing insight into a surprising depth of change in processing within a very short period of time. Further research is required on these issues. Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

3.2.1.2.5 Comprehension variability and language learning curve

An interesting description of the rarely discussed phenomenon of what I will refer to as "variable comprehension")[56] may be seen in M's comments (Example #6). While Y indicates a "big difference" in language production between Interview #1 and #2, M's nonverbal response of a wave-like gesture indicating fluctuating language comprehension abilities perhaps speaks more eloquently.

Example 6 [Interview 2]:

Interviewer: Y, is it easier to speak English now?
Y: More easy.
Interviewer: Big difference or little difference?
Y: Big
Interviewer: What about you?
M: (Gestures up and down)
Interviewer: When you are awake it is like this (gestures up) and tired like this (gestures down). I understand. Right now is it up here?
M: (Gestures it is down).

This non-verbal response underlines the probable role of stress, fatigue, and/or performance anxiety on language comprehension. It therefore has both theoretical and pedagogical implications. Theoretical implications would include the influence of context and speaker fatigue on production. Pedagogical implications could include teacher sensitivity to learners' physical and mental condition when requiring student participation in classroom activities.

In a later Interview (#4), Y also comments on the relative nature of language comprehension.

Example 7 [Interview 4]:
Interviewer: Is it easier to understand English?
Y: Well, I couldn't understand and could understand.
Interviewer: If people speak to you quickly you can't understand?
Y: Yes

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[56]"Variable production" is more widely discussed - see Ellis (1989).

These findings of "variable comprehension" based on situational factors are, I would suggest, important both to our understanding of the language learning process, as well as for the description of linguistic change, and for discussion of the role of student attributions in student achievement. Of specific interest is the apparently relative nature of "proficiency" as influenced by context, in addition to the influence of speed of production on comprehension. Both of these points may have direct influence on student achievement based on how the most recent communicative success or failure is attributed by the student (Brecht et al., 1995). In other words, this variation could have a "butterfly effect" on student perceptions of achievement (certainly within the context of the interview).

In the cases described above, the students' perceived language comprehension abilities are arguably influenced by either learner external factors, for example, speaker production (Example 7) or learner internal factors, for example, fatigue (Example 6). The fatigue may arguably in some cases be itself attributed to culture shock (see discussion, Section 1.5.6). Fatigue is explicitly identified as a factor by Y as adversely effecting both production and comprehension during her homestay.

> Example 8 [Interview 3]:
> Interviewer: What was something you did last week?
> Y: I went to home visit
> Interviewer: How was that?
> Y: I can't speak English very well. I can't understand English and I was tired, very, very tired.

With respect to this particular interviewee, Y, the influence of culture shock (and the depression-type fatigue that is often identified with it) must also be considered. Y was tired throughout the course, despite relatively high levels of English proficiency and apparently sufficient sleep. She also was quite happy to go home.

Cases like Y underline the necessity to identify factors such as culture shock which may be demotivating or result in low levels of achievement in short term programs. Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

3.2.1.2.6 Perceived linguistic change: Summary

To summarize, questionnaire and interview data provide evidence of positive perceived linguistic change (the students thought their listening and speaking skills had

improved), decreased anxiety in language use (one of the program goals), and increased extracurricular contact with native speakers of English. Little or no significant change was found with respect to interest in foreign languages or self-assessment of language skills. Therefore, these findings provide support for Hypotheses #1 and 2, as well as aspects of the LPPC model (student achievement, increased fluency), and positive student achievement.

3.2.1.3 Linguistic change: Fluency-based change in production

The construction of the variable *student achievement* (and therefore, teacher achievement) in the LPPC model includes increased fluency (*Sfluency*), increased comfort in language use (*Slang use*), and comprehension (*Slang*). In the following section, I will provide evidence of change in language production based on statistical analysis of fluency-based measures.

Measures of *linguistic change* in production in this section are based on research on fluency and study-abroad programs (Freed, 1995c; Lennon, 1990), and they include variables such as communicative strategies (topic changes), comprehension (inappropriate responses, incomplete responses), topic development, number of grammatical errors and lexical errors, mean length of utterance (MLU), total number of utterances (per student per interview), and range (difference between maximum/minimum length of utterance per student per interview). These measures are of interest as support for the Hypotheses #1 and 2 regarding linguistic change. These results are also relevant to Freed's Practical Issue (iv) "identifying the minimal amount of time for students to benefit linguistically" [see discussion, Section 1.01]. In this section, results and discussion of the statistical analysis of interview data will be presented.

3.2.1.3.1 Evidence of linguistic change: Change over time

It was of interest to this study whether any objective (versus subjective) measures of change in language performance over the three-week program could be identified. Therefore, a repeat measures analysis of variation (repeat-measures ANOVA) was performed. The repeat-measures ANOVA assesses change or variance between averages (or means) on a particular item which was measured in the same manner over two or more

points in time (or repeated measures) resulted in the "F-value".

Results

     As illustrated in Table #23, statistically significant within-variable change (p<.05 to p<.001) was found in five of the variables of interest: Range (p<.05), number of grammatical errors ("Grammar") (p<.01), number of lexical errors ("Lexicon") (p<.05), number of incomplete utterances ("Incomplete") (p<.001), and total number of utterances ("Utterances") (p<.01).

Table #23   **Change over time (within variable) - Repeat measures ANOVA**

Variable	Mean [I1]	Mean [I2]	Mean [I3]	Mean [I4]	F	sig F	df
MLU	2.589	2.456	2.540	**2.928**	2.69	.056	3
Range	6.812	8.333	9.167	**9.269**	3.21	.030	3
Grammar	1.000	1.783	**2.160**	2.039	4.35	.008	3
Lexicon	0.214	0.696	**0.840**	0.731	3.43	.023	3
Incomplete	0.357	1.522	**2.040**	1.385	7.62	.001	3
Utterances	13.429	19.048	**23.130**	20.320	3.74	.003	3
Inappropriate	0.143	**0.348**	0.320	0.154	1.80	.157	3
Topic change	0.000	0.000	0.040	**0.160**	2.11	.109	3

     Overall, the means for the majority of variables increased from Interview #1 to Interview #3, and then decreased from Interview #3 to Interview #4, with the exception of "Inappropriate responses," which peaked at Interview #2. Means were highest in Interview#3 for number of grammatical errors, number of lexical errors, number of incomplete utterances, and total number of utterances, although the significance of this tendency was not clear.

     The results appear to support the hypothesis that linguistic change can be identified, even within the first week of a three-week program. The results also appear to identify a temporal threshold for linguistic change in a short-term program at approximately Interview #3. At this point, means appear to maximize with respect to number of grammatical errors ("Grammar"), number of lexical errors ("Lexicon"), number of incomplete utterances ("Incomplete"), and total number of utterances ("Utterances").

     The extent to which a number of these measures overlap, however, must also be taken into consideration. As Table #24 illustrates, a number of statistically significant intra-interview relationships were found between linguistic features of interest to this study. Some pairs of variables were found to have statistically significant correlations in all

interviews (MLU/Range and Range/Grammar errors), while others showed statistically

significant correlations in fewer interviews [see Table #25]. It appears that a strong

relationship exists between mean length of utterance, range, and number of utterances."

Table #24   **Within-Interview Correlations[57]**

Variables	Pearson's r	Cases (n)	Significance (p)
Interview #1			
MLU/Grammatical errors	.7094	28	.001**
MLU/Range	.8413	28	.001**
Range/Grammatical errors	.7256	28	.001**
Range/#Utterances	.4539	28	.015*
#Utterances/Grammatical errors	.5184	28	.005**
#Utterances/#Inappropriate responses	.4079	28	.031*
Grammatical errors/#Inappropriate responses	.0000	28	1.00
Grammatical errors/#Incomplete responses	.0875	28	.658
Grammatical errors/#Lexical errors	.3104	28	.108
Grammatical errors/#Topic changes	-	28	-
#Inappropriate/#Incomplete responses	-.0797	28	.687
#Inappropriate responses/#Lexical errors	-.1414	28	.473
#Inappropriate responses/MLU	-.0834	28	.673
#Inappropriate responses/Range	-.1127	28	.568
#Incomplete responses/#Lexical errors	.0902	28	.648
#Incomplete responses/MLU	.2270	28	.245
#Incomplete responses/Range	.1921	28	.327
#Incomplete responses/#Utterances	.1552	28	.430
#Lexical errors/Range	.2535	28	.193
#Lexical errors/#Utterances	.2328	28	.233
MLU/#Utterances	.2710	28	.163
Interview #2			
Range/Grammatical errors	.5281	20	.017*
#Utterances/#Inappropriate responses	.5383	19	.017*
Range/#Utterances	-.2781	19	.249
Grammatical errors/#Inappropriate responses	-.0465	23	.833
Grammatical errors/#Incomplete responses	.1259	23	.567
Grammatical errors/#Lexical errors	.2076	23	.342
Grammatical errors/MLU	.2713	21	.234
Grammatical errors/#Topic changes	-	23	-
Grammatical errors/#Utterances	.0422	19	.864
#Inappropriate/#Incomplete responses	-.1546	23	.481
#Inappropriate responses/#Lexical errors	-.0408	23	.854
#Inappropriate responses/MLU	-.1687	21	.465
#Inappropriate responses/Range	-.2025	20	.392
#Inappropriate responses/Topic change	-	23	-
#Incomplete responses/#Lexical errors	.2800	23	.196
#Incomplete responses/MLU	.3201	21	.157
#Incomplete responses/Range	.4162	20	.068
#Incomplete responses/Topic change	-	23	-
#Incomplete responses/#Utterances	.1779	19	.466
#Lexical errors/MLU	.1872	21	.417
#Lexical errors/Range	.1817	20	.443
#Lexical errors/Topic change	-	23	-
#Lexical errors/#Utterances	2403	19	.322
MLU/Range	.6965	21	.001**
MLU/Topic change	-	23	-
MLU/#Utterances	-.0827	20	.729
Interview #3			
Incomplete response/Grammatical errors	-.4690	25	.018*
Range/Grammatical errors	.7463	24	.001**
Range/#Utterances	.6240	23	.001**
#Utterances/Grammatical errors	.4995	23	.015*
Grammatical errors/#Inappropriate responses	-.3395	25	.097

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[57]Note: (*) p<.05; (**) p<.01

Variables	Pearson's r	Cases (n)	Significance (p)
Interview #3 [contd.]			
Grammatical errors/#Lexical errors	.1167	25	.579
Grammatical errors/#Topic changes	-.0156	25	.941
#Inappropriate/#Incomplete responses	.2748	25	.184
#Inappropriate responses/#Lexical errors	-.0668	25	.751
#Inappropriate responses/MLU	-.2762	25	.181
#Inappropriate responses/Range	-.2823	24	.181
#Utterances/#Inappropriate responses	.0204	23	.926
#Inappropriate responses/Topic change	.2976	25	.149
#Incomplete responses/#Lexical errors	.1568	25	.454
#Incomplete responses/MLU	-.3282	25	.109
#Incomplete responses/Range	-.2626	24	.215
#Incomplete responses/Topic change	-.1849	25	.376
#Incomplete responses/#Utterances	-.0043	23	.984
#Lexical errors/MLU	.0456	25	.825
#Lexical errors/Range	.3154	24	.133
#Lexical errors/Topic change	-.1855	25	.375
#Utterances/Lexical errors	.5543	23	.006**
MLU/Topic change	.2750	25	.183
MLU/#Utterances	.1720	23	.433
MLU/Grammatical errors	.5286	25	.007**
MLU/Range	.7835	24	.001**
Interview #4			
Incomplete response/MLU	-.6142	22	.002**
MLU/Range	.7863	22	.001**
Incomplete response/Range	-.5193	26	.007**
Range/Grammatical errors	.5510	26	.004**
#Utterances/Grammatical errors	.5275	25	.007**
#Utterances/Lexical errors	.5174	25	.008**
Topic change/Inappropriate response	.4048	25	.045*
Range/#Utterances	.0745	25	.723
Grammatical errors/#Inappropriate responses	.0554	26	.788
Incomplete response/Grammatical errors	-.2681	26	.185
Grammatical errors/#Lexical errors	.2691	26	.184
Grammatical errors/MLU	.3364	22	.126
Grammatical errors/#Topic changes	-.0105	25	.960
#Inappropriate/#Incomplete responses	.2616	26	.197
#Inappropriate responses/#Lexical errors	-.1092	26	.595
#Inappropriate responses/MLU	-.1604	22	.476
#Inappropriate responses/Range	-.1604	26	.434
#Utterances/#Inappropriate responses	-.1372	25	.513
#Incomplete responses/#Lexical errors	-.2259	26	.267
#Incomplete responses/Topic change	-.0473	25	.822
#Incomplete responses/#Utterances	-.1524	25	.467
#Lexical errors/MLU	.0731	22	.746
#Lexical errors/Range	-.0192	26	.926
#Lexical errors/Topic change	.2821	25	.172
MLU/Topic change	.0243	22	.915
MLU/#Utterances	.0329	21	.887
MLU/Grammatical errors	.5286	25	.007**

However, the latter finding may be an artifact of the relationship between the variables because the measurement "mean (average) length of utterance" is essentially incorporated into the measurement "range," and into "number of utterances."[58] From a

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[58] For example, "mean length of utterance" is calculated on total number of words per utterance divided by number of utterances, and range is calculated based on the difference between the longest and shortest utterances produced by an interviewee in a particular interview

methodological perspective, this finding suggests that one or more of these measures could be collapsed into a single category.

Table #25	Summary of Significant Correlations			
Variable	Interview#1	Interview#2	Interview#3	Interview#4
MLU/Range	p<.001	p<.001	p<.001	p<.001
MLU/Grammatical errors	p<.001	n/s	p<.01	n/s
Range/Grammatical errors	p<.001	p<.05	p<.001	p<.01
Range/#Utterances	p<.05	n/s	p<.01	n/s
#Utterances/Grammatical errors	p<.01	n/s	p<.05	p<.01
#Utterances/Inappropriate	p<.05	p<.05	n/s	n/s
#Utterances/Lexical errors	n/s	n/s	p<.01	p<.01
Incomplete response/Grammatical	p<.05	n/s	n/s	n/s
Incomplete response/MLU	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.01
Incomplete response/Range	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.01
Topic change/Inappropriate	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.05

In general, however, it appears that as mean length of utterance (MLU) increased, the number of grammatical errors, lexical errors, and inappropriate responses also increased.

Discussion

These results therefore provide support for positive linguistic change and positive increases in fluency. Positive increases on both these areas would also be consistent with higher levels of student achievement.

These findings also appear consistent with Freed (1995b & 1995c) and Lennon (1990) who found increased fluency typically meant decreased dysfluencies (hesitations, pauses, incomplete utterances, etc.), not necessarily more accurate use of syntax and vocabulary. Moehle and Raubach (1983 - cited in Freed, 1995c), for example, found increased grammar errors with increased production in study-abroad students. In addition, these findings could arguably be interpreted as some evidence of later onset acquisition insofar as increases in grammatical and lexical mistakes could indicate use of novel language elements. However, the latter hypothesis is very weakly supported. Finally, the findings appear consistent with fluency increasing at the expense of accuracy, although this interpretation can not be confirmed from this analysis.

(and pooled across all interviewees for final calculations). Thus, MLU, range and number utterances share a common statistical basis.

3.2.1.3.2 Evidence of temporal periods

In the previous section, it was demonstrated that the existence of linguistic change within a short-term study-abroad program was supported. However, it had also been hypothesized that in a short-term program, changes within specific time frames (or temporal periods) could be identified.

Results and discussion

Using one-way ANOVAs, four measures were found to show statistically significant change during specific temporal periods based on results of Student-Newman-Keuls test ($p<.05$) [SNK], and/or Scheffe's test ($p<.05$) [S].

Table #26   **Evidence of Temporal Periods**

Measure	Temporal period	F ratio	F prob	Stat
Number of utterances	(1,2), (1,3), (1,4)	4.8950	.0033	SNK, S
Number of lexical errors	(1,3)	2.7588	.0463	SNK
Number of incomplete responses	(1,2), (1,3) (1,4)	11.5044	.0001	SNK, S
Number of topic changes	(1,4) (2,4)	3.1852	.0273	SNK

These findings appear to support the hypothesis that language production increased over the three-week period of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, with significant change being identified with respect to total number of utterances between the first interview and each subsequent interview (Interview #1 and 2, 1 and 3, and 1 and 4). In other words, it appears that even within the space of as little time as approximately one week, students' language production changed significantly. That this change constitutes an increase is confirmed by reference to the changes in means in Table #24.

Therefore, in response to Freed's Practical Issue (iv), which was "identifying the minimal amount of time spent in a study-abroad context for students to benefit linguistically from the experience" [see discussion, Section 1.0.1], I have been able to identify change within as small a temporal period as one week.[59] The fact that significant change in number of utterances was also identified at weekly increments appears to provide additional support for this position. As discussed previously, other variables such

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[59]Identifying significant temporal periods of less than one week was not possible in this study as interviews occurred weekly.

as range or production were also seen to increase gradually over time, however, with no statistically significant temporal periods identified [see discussion, Section 3.2.1.3.1]. The theoretical and practical implications of this finding include the identification of language change in time (temporal factors), as well as the practical implication that such short term programs do have an impact on participants language development [see discussion, Section 5.3]. These results also underline the need for further research to identify specific periods of change (with larger groups of students), both from the perspective of individual variation and group tendencies.

An inverse relationship between increased fluency (increased number of utterances) and decreased accuracy (increased numbers lexical errors, and incomplete responses) also appears to be supported by these findings. Lexical errors increased significantly between Interview #1 and 3, resulting in a more gradual change than was found with respect to the number of incomplete responses, which increased during each of weekly period. As noted earlier, these findings are arguably consistent with Moehle and Raupach (1983, cited in Freed, 1995c), who found increased numbers of grammar errors with increased production by study-abroad participants. The results reported earlier in which gradual significant change was found with respect to number of grammar errors are also consistent with these findings [see discussion, Section 3.2.1.3.1]. In general, the more that students spoke (or as fluency increased), the more apparent language difficulties (or problems with accuracy) were found primarily based on lexical rather than syntactic- or grammar-based errors.

The latter findings, however, may not need to be interpreted as necessarily negative linguistic change. In fact, these errors may be considered evidence of students attempting more complex constructions or attempting to use more sophisticated language as the program progresses (Ellis, 1989), or in other words, as language skill development (or positive linguistic change). The finding of significant change in student-initiated topic changes between Interviews #1 and 4 and Interviews #2 and 4 appears to provide further support for increased (attempts at) use of more sophisticated language as an explanation.

Therefore, in this section, evidence of positive linguistic change was found which

appeared to support higher levels of student achievement. Temporal factors were also identified.

3.2.1.3.3 Linguistic change: Summary

In summary, change in language production was identified within the three-week period. However, increased language use was accompanied by decreased accuracy (primarily based on lexical rather than syntactic- or grammar-based errors). It was argued that general increases in speech production resulting in increased error production are consistent with an inverse relationship between fluency and accuracy in the language of language learners (Ellis, 1989). These findings, while still positive linguistic change, may arguably reflect imperfect activation of passive language knowledge caused by attempts at discussion of more sophisticated topics using more complex language and linguistic structures [see discussion, 3.3.1.2]. Nonetheless, inaccurate language production does not necessarily imply lack of comprehension. Based on student comments in Section 3.2.1.2.2, it appears language comprehension increased steadily throughout the program.

3.2.1.4 Evidence of individual variation in linguistic change

Individual variation in language acquisition and/or language performance in study-abroad program participants has been a relatively frequent finding (Freed, 1995c; Huebner, 1995; Marriott, 1995; Siegal, 1995). The results of this study support these findings.

Among the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student interviewees, for example, while the average MLU for Interview #1 was 2.59 words per utterance, the mean length of utterances (MLU) on Interview #1 ranged from 1.36 words per utterance for student E (Group A2) to 5.61 words per utterance for student Y (Group F1). The differences between individuals were even greater by Interview #4. For example, the average MLU for Interview #4 was 2.80 words per utterance, but MLU's ranged from 1.29 words per utterance for student E (Group A2) (again), to 7.33 words per utterance for student M (Group A1). In addition, the total number utterances per student per interview ranged from a low of a total of 6 utterances in Interview# 3 by student N (Group E1) when the mean number of utterances in Interview #3 was 23.13, to a high of a

total of 78 utterances in Interview# 4 by student Y (Group A1), where the mean number of utterances in Interview #4 was 20.32. The mean number of utterances per student across interviews was 18.72 utterances.

The findings regarding low levels of grammar errors (as defined in this study) across all four interviews also demonstrate a similar degree of individual variation (although it should be noted that these totals are surprisingly low considering the speakers were ESL students).[60] While the mean number of grammar errors across interviews was 1.822, the fewest grammar errors were shown by student T (Group E2) who had no grammar errors in any interview, while the largest number of errors were produced by Y (Group F1) who made 17 grammar errors across four interviews. It is also important to note that T's mean MLU across all interviews was 2.28, whereas Y's mean MLU across all interviews was 3.48. In other words, the difference may partially be explained by the fact that Y tended to speak more in interviews (fluency versus accuracy). However, one could also interpret these differences in terms of strategic competence. In other words, by not speaking much (or avoidance), T limited the number of errors she made. However, further research is necessary. Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

Individual differences, which are very comparable to the findings reported above and therefore they will not be reported here, were also found with respect to number of lexical errors and incomplete responses. Inappropriate responses and topic changes, however, occurred very rarely, with few students making more than one of either measure. These measures therefore did not provide useful information concerning diversity in this population. However, the results do suggest that the students were more competent in English then they perceived themselves to be.

Finally, individual variation in amount of extracurricular contact with native speakers was also found to vary considerably, with one student A (Group B2) stating she had talked to "almost one hundred" Canadians by the end of the program, while most students indicated having talked to 10-30 Canadians. Interest in Canada and other cultures

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[60]This finding also provides support for the perspective that the students in the study had much better language skills than they acknowledged (adding support for activation).

also varied, with some students being very enthusiastic about their experience at the Folk Fest, and others much less so.

3.2.1.4.1 Individual variation: Summary

In summary, although for purposes of identifying population-wide trends in linguistic change it was necessary to focus the analysis on group results [discussed in Sections 3.2.1-3.2.2], it is also important to consider individual variation in type and amount of linguistic change because such variation has been a consistent finding in study-abroad and short-term program research (Freed, 1995c). The inter-student differences are of particular importance if one wishes to examine individual student's feelings of achievement, or to identify factors influencing achievement. These issues are beyond the scope of this study, although they may arguably be accommodated in the LPPC model as it currently is proposed.

3.2.1.5 Interview Topics

In addition to the basic interview questions (Appendix C), the semi-structured format of the student interviews allowed additional topics to be introduced and developed. Topics and issues which arose in earlier interviews were introduced into later interviews (discussion of family, career, extracurricular activities, etc.). A number of different topics were discussed in the interviews [see Table #27], although the most prolific categories concerned activities during the previous week (98 occurrences), shopping (77 occurrences), speaking or studying English (68 occurrences), food (53 occurrences), and interactions with Canadians (42 occurrences).

Table #27	Topic discussed
Subtopics	Number of Times Topic Mentioned

Interview-process
Name	30
How are you?	20
Age	14
Scheduling meetings	35

Sightseeing
General	15
Butchart Gardens	5

Shopping
General	55
Clothes	22

Food
Canadian	24
Chocolate	9
Japanese	20

Canadians
Canadian people/friends	31
Interviewing Canadians	11

English
Studying/speaking English	68

Travel
Visiting Canada	15
Visiting other countries	4

Activities during COEALI
What did you do last week or How was last week	37
Things done last week...Dancing	4
Things done last week...Skating	8
Things done last week...Singing	15
Things done last week...Music	4
Things done last week...Swimming	4
What...doing next week	10
Goodbye dinner	7

Pedagogical activities
What did you do/learn...In class	27

Family
Family...In Japan	5
Family...Future	4
Family...Host family	22

Occupation/future employment
Jobs	13

Expectations
Expectations...Canada/Victoria	6
Differences... Canada/Japan	14
Intention to return to Canada	10

Suggestions
Changes in COAELI	14

In other words, the topics most successfully addressed by the interviewees, who

were Limited English Proficient, were topics which related to immediate experience (recent activities) and personal interest (shopping, eating, meeting people, family, perceived language development). In fact, early attempts by the interviewer to introduce more complex topics (perceptions of teacher expectations, etc.) were not particularly successful. However, the importance of interviewees being provided with topics of interest to language production was clearly supported with respect to the topic of "family." Even formerly reticent interviewees were found to contribute extended discourse on this topic.

These findings, therefore, have both theoretical and pedagogical implications. Theoretical implications concern culturally relevant interests of this population, whereas pedagogical implications include possible topics or materials which may be more (or less) appropriate for classroom use in this learning context [see discussion, Section 5.2]. The findings also appear to be generally consistent with Young's (1990) predictions concerning the interactions between non-native female interviewees and native female interviewers, although the interviewer tended to develop any topics raised by students. For example, if the student indicated that she had gone shopping, the interviewer would follow up with questions concerning types, colours, etc. of purchases. However, the interviewer also included topics which she knew the interviewees would probably want to discuss, including events or issues of which she had been informed in previous interviews (such as Folk Fest). Thus, topics initiated by interviewees appeared to last longer than topics initiated by the interviewer in some cases. However, the context was usually created by the interviewer, so that it could also be said that topics initiated by the interviewer appeared to last longer than topics initiated by the interviewee in many cases.

Strong support can also be found regarding Young's prediction that topics relating to non-native interviewees' personal experiences would last longer than more general topics relating to learning or having a good time. The topics of career and family were the most productive in terms of amount of language generated across students and level of sophistication of language produced. Finally, the prediction that display questions from the interviewer would result in rapid topic decay also appeared to find some support. While repeated questions such as "How's life?" and "What's your name?" were answered

consistently, they did not develop further conversation, and they caused confusion initially.

Andresson's (1986) identification of a number of cultural factors unique to the Japanese perspective on travel and education is also of interest to this analysis. Among the culture-specific factors underlying Japanese perspectives on travel and education which were discussed in student interviews were "the relative regimentation and control under which most Japanese live and work" (Andresson, 1986: 52). For example, a number of students commented on how much more relaxed Canadians were. The "importance of one's place and status in the Japanese hierarchy" (Andresson, 1986: 52) was also alluded to as a few students indicated a preference for the "freedom" of Canada. Finally, the "ethnocentricity of the Japanese and the fact that the Japanese are unaccustomed to racial diversity and multiculturalism, equality of the sexes, and a leisure-oriented lifestyle" (Andresson, 1986: 52) was also indirectly substantiated by the fact that for most students the Folk Fest was their first exposure to other cultures, and most seemed to enjoy it. Also, a number of students noted differences in the equality of the sexes in Canada by reference to the types of clothes women wore (no pantyhose!), the easy interaction between the genders, etc.

In addition, the tendency for Japanese travellers to take photographs and purchase souvenirs and gifts, especially at famous sites, was both substantiated and exploited in this study. According to Andresson (1986), this behaviour may be explained partly because of "the importance in general of gift exchange in Japanese society, shopping is a much more important component of travel for Japanese than for other nationalities" (Andresson, 1986: 52). As is evident in Table #27, shopping was one of the most prolific topics for discussion in interviews with this population (77 occurrences of the topic). Even the most quiet students were able to discuss purchases and sightseeing, and they seemingly enjoyed such discussions, suggesting lower levels of language use anxiety as well as language practice.

This illustration of *culture-specific* (Japanese) attitudes toward and/or motivations for (i) travel in general, and (ii) stereotypical travel activities (shopping and photography) specifically, also is important to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute

study for both theoretical and practical reasons. First, it emphasizes the need for inclusion within the definition of language learning motivation (and CBAK+) of variables consistent with culture specific motivations such as Japanese status-oriented or status-based travel. Further research to attempt to identify the impact of such variables on the planning and realization of socioculturally-oriented programs such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study would therefore be useful. Second, incorporation of the importance of shopping, sightseeing, etc., to the JESL subject population into the data collection protocol appears to have been a useful modification. As these topics were directly relevant to the interests and experience of the subjects, more language data could be obtained from individual subjects. Finally, the similarity and consistency of interview topics across interviews may also facilitate (future) cross-subject comparisons and study of individual variation, although this focus is beyond the scope of this study.

Finally, it should be noted that some prepared interview questions were discarded after initial attempts due to student comprehension difficulties or lack of interest. Areas of most difficulty included impressions of classroom atmosphere and providing specific examples of pedagogical activities ("what was one thing you learnt last week"). It was difficult to ascertain whether the failure of these questions was due to problematic wording, student inability to remember, or unwillingness to comment. Some questions which were supplemented for the discarded questions included a discussion about future plans, or careers, arose from discussion of host family visits. These alternate questions generated a considerable amount of language data, information, and student insights and reflection. For example, the question "why are you (interested in) learning English" uncovered an almost universal desire among interviewees to obtain the job of "ground hostess" (greeter at an airport), or, ideally, as a stewardess. Being a stewardess was a very highly prized job among Japanese women as a "proper feminine" occupation, which was glamorous, while also allowing freedom and travel[61]. In addition, an initial attempt to code student interviews based on both linguistic and non-verbal interactions was abandoned

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[61] Personal communication (Emi Shibata).

due to extreme differences between the three coders over the definition of specific behaviours.

3.2.1.6 Linguistic change and the LPPC model: Summary

In conclusion, this section provides evidence of both perceived and measurable linguistic change in a short term study-abroad program, providing support for Hypotheses #1 and 2. Perceived change included increased language comprehension and production, and increased comfort in language use. Measurable linguistic change included increased amounts of language production across the program (especially with respect to topics of interest to the students), as well decreased accuracy (although levels of errors were not high). These findings were also interpreted as providing support for higher levels of student achievement based on the attribute of increased fluency and comprehension. Change was also seen to occur on a number of measures within identifiable temporal periods, with the minimal period being identified as approximately one week, therefore addressing Freed's (1995c) "Practical Issue" (iv).

3.2.2 Perceptual change: Results and discussion

Perceptual or perception change is defined in this study from the perspective of research on the influence of attitude and motivation on language learners (Gardner, 1985) and Woods' (1996) research on the influence of teachers' beliefs, attitudes and knowledge (BAK) on classroom interpretation and practice. Perceptual change is measured by changes in student responses on pre-course and post-course questionnaire and interview responses. Positive perceptual change on questionnaire items is interpreted as influencing higher levels of perceived student achievement (and arguably, teacher achievement) than negative change would. In this analysis, positive change will usually[62] refer to changes in mean responses towards the most positively worded choice on positively worded items ("Strongly agree," "Very easy," "Always"), and negative change will refer to changes in mean responses towards the most negatively worded choice on positively worded items ("Strongly disagree," "Very difficult," "Never").

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[62]In some cases, such as pedagogical change [Section 3.2.3], changes in responses may be interpreted differently (e.g., frequency of occurrence).

3.2.2.1 Attitudes towards target language group

In this section, I will examine perceptual change with respect to attitudes towards the target language group.

Results

Statistically significant positive change occurred in items describing Canadians as friendly, polite and helpful (p<.001), as well as honest (p<.01). Positive change was also found with respect to the negative trait item "superficial" (i.e., they disagreed more strongly with the statement), and perceptions of similarity between Japanese and Canadians (p<.01). No significant change occurred with respect to the negative trait item "rude." On the latter item, subjects initially disagreed or strongly disagreed. These perceptions basically did not change.

Table #28   **Attitudes towards target language group**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean #2	Change	T-score	<
*(PR19)/(PS1) I think Canadians are friendly	0.619	0.307	+	-8.57	.001
*(PR20)/(PS2) I think Canadians are polite	0.976	0.873	+	-2.41	.016
*(PR21)/(PS3) I think Canadians are honest	1.053	0.907	+	-3.22	.001
*(PR22)/(PS4) I think Canadians are helpful	0.558	0.312	+	-6.57	.001
*(PR23)/(PS5) I think Canadians are considerate	0.802	0.608	+	-4.37	.001
*(PR24)/(PS6) I think Canadians are superficial	2.398	2.548	- [+]	3.03	.003
*(PR25)/(PS7) I think Canadians are rude	3.302	3.323	- [+]	.49	n/s
*(PR26)/(PS8) I think Canadians are similar to Japanese people	2.835	2.705	+	-2.91	.004
***(PR58)/(PS38) I think understanding English television or movies is	0.640	0.840	-[+]	4.98	.001
***(PR51)/(PS32) I think learning to understand Canadian culture	1.440	1.704	-[+]	6.98	.001
***(PR53)/(PS33) I think making friends with Canadians is	1.620	2.031	-[+]	9.45	.001

*A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4
***A (Very difficult) = 0, B (Difficult) = 1, C (OK) = 2, D (Easy) = 3, E (Very easy) = 4; (+) positive change; (-) negative change; (n/s) no significant change

Statistically significant positive change (p<.001) was also seen with respect to perceived difficulty in understanding Canadian culture (and culturally embedded television and radio) and making friends with Canadians.

Discussion

It appears that as predicted in Section 3.1.3 (Cultural Expectations) the greatest positive changes coincided with the more "concrete" traits on the questionnaire (e.g., friendliness, helpfulness, consideration). In other words, with characteristics students were more likely to have been able to "test" during their encounters with Canadians. These "testable" characteristics included the "friendliness" or "helpfulness" of cultural assistants

or host families or strangers on campus, etc.

Positive change was also found with respect to the perceived lack of difficulty in making friends with Canadians. This change may also be expected to have been influenced by contact with Canadians. In general on factors relating to comfort with language use (such as making friends) and changes in perceptions of cross-cultural differences between Canadians and Japanese students, increased contact appears to have resulted in positive change. As extracurricular contact is considered to have an influence on both linguistic change and perceptual change, as well as on student achievement, in the LPPC model, these findings are important with respect to positive change.

Finally, no significant change was found between pre-course and post-course results with respect to the aggregate variable "attitudes towards target language group," possibly due to ceiling effects. In other words, overall initial positive responses could not increase much due to the scale.

3.2.2.2 Attitudes towards language learning

In this section, I will examine perceptual change with respect to attitudes towards language learning.

Results

Statistically significant negative change (p<.001) was found with respect to only one item in attitudes towards language learning ("having an accent is a problem"). More students felt having an accent was "a big problem" by the end of the course, while earlier they had considered accent "a problem." No significant change occurred with respect to perceptions of the importance of oral skills (listening and speaking skills) and literacy skills (reading and writing). Both sets of skills were seen as important or very important both at the beginning and end of the program.

Table #29   **Attitudes towards language learning**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean #2	Change	T-score	<
**(PR57)/(PS37) I think that having an accent in English is	0.887	0.666	-	-4.68	.001
*(PR59)/(PS39) I believe having good Listening/Speaking skills in English is	0.240	0.208	-	-1.07	n/s
*(PR91)/(PS71) I believe having good reading & writing skills in English is	0.510	0.507	+	-.08	n/s

*A (Very important) = 0, B (Important) = 1, C (Ok) = 2, D (Not important) = 3, E (Not very important) = 4
**A Big problem) = 0, B (A problem) = 1, C (Only a problem if not understood) = 2, D (Not a problem) = 3, E (Indicates my heritage) =
4; (+) positive change; (-) negative change; (n/s) no significant change

On the importance of having good oral/aural skills, responses to both questions
#PR57/PS37 ("Having an accent in English is...") and #PR59/PS39 ("Having good
listening/speaking skills in English is...") suggested a growth in awareness of the
importance of these basic skills, possibly because of initial negative experiences in
communication settings outside of the classroom (such as communication breakdown).
Comments from a number of interviewees provide support for this position.

Discussion

Less overall change was seen with respect to the need for good listening and
speaking skills, perhaps because these areas were seen already as important at the
beginning of the program (a ceiling effect). Similar, but not statistically significant, change
was seen with respect to student perception of the importance of literacy skills (reading
and writing in English). Again, here little change occurred probably because the majority
of students saw reading and writing as important initially. Overall, however, oral/aural
skills were obviously considered more important in this program. This finding is
consistent, therefore, with the teacher and program goals and focus suggesting that
expectations were met.

Finally, no significant change was found between pre-course and post-course
results with respect to the aggregate variable "attitudes towards language learning." As
noted above, these results imply that students considered these skills important both
before and after the course.

3.2.2.3 Language learning anxiety

In this section, I will examine perceptual change with respect to language learning anxiety.

Results

While no significant change occurred concerning the perceived difficulty with respect to learning languages in learning English (both of which were seen as "very difficult"), statistically significant positive change was found with respect to perceived difficulty in learning specific skills.

Table #30   **Language learning anxiety**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean #2	Change	T-score	<
(PR44)/(PS26) I think learning languages is	0.603	0.598	-	-.15	n/s
(PR46)/(PS27) I think learning English is	0.758	0.729	-	-.76	n/s
(PR47)/(PS28) I think learning to read English is	1.013	1.192	-[+]	4.42	.001
(PR48)/(PS29) I think learning to write English is	0.525	0.747	-[+]	6.69	.001
(PR49)/(PS30) I think learning to speak English is	0.602	0.712	-[+]	3.06	.002
(PR50)/(PS31) I think learning to understand spoken English	0.794	0.939	-[+]	3.78	.001

A (Very difficult) = 0, B (Difficult) = 1, C (OK) = 2, D (Easy) = 3, E (Very easy) = 4
(+) positive change; (-) negative change; (n/s) no significant change

For example, "learning to read English" was seen as "OK" at the end of the course (p<.001) in contrast with being perceived as "difficult" at the beginning. Learning to write (p<.001), speak (p<.001) and understand spoken English (p<.01) changed from "very difficult" to "difficult."

Discussion

In both the general questions concerning language learning, no significant change was observed. The tasks were considered Difficult or Very difficult by the majority of subjects both at the beginning and end of the program. Therefore, the experience in the program did not influence the perception of difficulty, in fact it may have reinforced the perception. By contrast, on items referring to processes which might have been practiced during the program (such as reading English, writing English, speaking English, understanding spoken English), overall positive change was seen that was statistically significant (p<.001 or p<.01), although the majority of students still generally found language learning difficult. Therefore, the program appears to have met its goals by influencing positive perceptions of processes practiced. Further, based on comments made

by interviewees, it appears that although some positive change was seen with respect to learning to speak English, in general students perceived more change in understanding spoken English (aural rather than oral development, passive rather than active language skills) [see discussion, Section 3.2.1.2]. These findings are consistent with Brecht et al. (1995) who suggested that students' perception of the language learning process is variable depending on the most recent communicative success or failure.

These findings also raise questions concerning the impact of student perceptions on achievement in the LPPC model. For example, how do the students interpret success in comprehension, but apparent frequent failure in production (or what is the net result for perceptions of achievement)? According to the model, this distinction would be dependent on the types of attributes made concerning the cause or locus of control. However, this question is difficult to answer based on the data in this study. Although fluency was seen to increase over the program from the perspective of the measures considered in this study, the extent to which this change was perceived by the interview students differed. Questionnaire responses also indicate less perceived difficulty (and/or anxiety) in language use and with respect to (learning to) understand spoken English (#PR50/PS31), but attributing perceptions of achievement goes far beyond the data. In addition, because unambiguous measures of increased comprehension were not available on the post-course questionnaire, this comparison is ambiguous with respect to the majority of the student population. It is not clear that all student participants perceived the same degree of change as the student interviewees apparently did.

Finally, significant positive change ($p < .001$) was found between pre-course and post-course results with to the aggregate variable "language learning anxiety" ($t = 4.17$) [see discussion, Section 3.3.2.3]. This positive increase provides support for general decreased levels anxiety in language learning consistent with the program goals of increased language comfort and sociocultural/attitudinal change.

3.2.2.4 Perceptions of the language learning environment

One of the most unique aspects of the study-abroad experience is the immersion in the target language community by participants. This immersion both encourages and

· necessitates development of communicative skills which are more "native-like" in order to survive (Freed, 1995c). Although there was some concern regarding the extent to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute could be considered an "immersion" or "quick dip" program because of the fact the students spent so much time in the company of other Japanese students, the intensity of the immersion experience from the perspective of a student participant is clearly illustrated in M's comment below.

> Example 9 [Interview 1]:
> Interviewer: What is the most difficult thing about learning English
> M: In Japan, only one class in English. Here all English. Very difficult.

In this comment in the first interview during the first week in Canada, M's statement clearly supports the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute as an immersion experience. It therefore also provides support for the generalizability of the findings of this study to other similar study-abroad or short-term programs and populations.

3.2.2.5 Perceptual change: Summary

To summarize, this study provides evidence of perceptual change within a short term study-abroad program (Hypotheses #1, 2 and 3). Positive change was found with respect to attitudes towards Canadians, and students showed lower levels of language learning anxiety. These results support the general success of the program which had primarily sociocultural goals (Hypothesis #8), and hence it may suggest higher levels of student achievement. The results also provide support for the positive influence of the immersion experience in promoting perceptual change.

3.2.3 Pedagogical change

One of the three main focuses in this study was the extent to which student expectations of pedagogical format correctly anticipated program and preferred classroom behaviours. *Pedagogical change* refers to change in student responses to pre-course and post-course questionnaires and interviews concerning such "pedagogical features" as program format, teaching techniques and focus, and classroom behaviours (that is, primarily situational factors). In this analysis, positive change will usually refer to changes in mean responses towards the most positively worded choice on positively worded items

("Strongly agree," "Very easy," "Always"), and negative change will refer to changes in mean responses towards the most negatively worded choice on positively worded items ("Strongly disagree," "Very difficult," "Never"). In the case of expectations of class activities and cognitive/learning style, however, the interpretation of the responses is slightly different. These differences are addressed in the relevant sections as frequency of occurrence.

3.2.3.1 Attitudes toward the learning situation (or Perceptions of Program)

In this section, I will examine pedagogical change with respect to attitudes towards the learning situation.

Results

Statistically significant negative change (p<.001) was found in all categories of expectations for program goals and the learning situation.

Table #31   **Attitudes toward the learning situation**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean # 2	Change	T-score	<
(PR30)/(PS12) In this program, I learnt about Canada and Canadians	0.508	0.955	-	10.17	.001
(PR31)/(PS13) In this program, I learnt more English	0.273	1.196	-	18.66	.001
(PR32)/(PS14) In this program, I practiced my English	0.220	1.156	-	17.98	.001
(PR33)/(PS15) In this program, I learnt about Canadian youth culture	0.844	1.643	-	15.72	.001
(PR34)/(PS16) In this program, I was given opportunities to meet Canadians	0.380	0.604	-	5.31	.001
(PR35)/(PS17) In this program, I had my beliefs challenged by new experiences	0.449	0.673	-	4.60	.001

A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4
(+) positive change; (-) negative change; (n/s) no significant change; Note: Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire.

The largest apparent change occurred with respect to having not had as many opportunities to learn more English, practice English and learn about Canadian youth culture as they had anticipated.

Discussion

The finding that statistically significant negative change (p<.001) occurred in all categories of expectations of program goals and the learning situation suggests that the amount and type of contact that students had with English speakers was not exactly what they had wanted or expected, although all responses were still quite positive. The interpretation that the amount and type of contact that students had with English speakers

was not what they had wanted or expected is supported by the fact that the largest apparent change (in mean response) occurred with respect to having had opportunities to learn more English, and to practice English. Mean responses changed from very strongly agree ("learn more English," mean: 0.273; "practice English," mean: 0.220) to simply agree ("learn more English," mean: 1.196; "practice English," mean: 1.156).

While the causes of these changes are difficult to identify directly (were they the result of program constraints, teacher factors or unrealistic student expectations?), comments from a number of interviewees appear to identify program constraints including very large class sizes as a reason students wanted to return to Canada "alone" (not in such a large group) and perhaps to stay in a "home-stay" program in the future. Negative change on questionnaires identified with respect to having contact with Canadians (#PR34/PS16), and having one's beliefs challenged (#PR35/PS17) also appear to support this position.

Finally, negative significant change (p<.001) was found between pre-course and post-course results with respect to the aggregate variable "attitudes towards the learning situation" (t=-18.40) [see discussion, Section 3.3.2.3]. Therefore, evidence supporting pedagogical change was found (Hypotheses #1 and 2). These results also provide further support for the interpretation that the learning situation or context was different from what the students had expected. As these differences occurred as arguably "situational factors," the influence on student achievement is ambiguous. Theoretically, in the LPPC model, attributions concerning areas not within the individual's control (such as situational factors) may not influence achievement.

3.2.3.2 Expectations of classroom activities

In this section, I will examine pedagogical change with respect to expectations of classroom activities. Due to the fact that items in this section are described with reference to perceived frequency of occurrence, not personal preference, negative change will refer to decreases in frequency, and positive change will refer to increases in frequency.

Results

In this category, statistically significant change (p<.001), indicating increased

frequency of use, was seen with respect to use of music, games, group work and pair work in the classroom.

Table #32   **Expectations of classroom activities**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean # 2	Change	T-score	<
(PR66)/(PS46) I think the teacher used music in class	2.073	1.485	+	-9.88	.001
(PR67)/(PS47) I think the teacher used games in class	1.551	0.834	+	-13.09	.001
(PR68)/(PS48) I think the teacher had us work in groups	1.669	1.134	+	-8.05	.001
(PR69)/(PS49) I think the teacher had us work in pairs	1.400	0.960	+	-8.36	.001
(PR70)/(PS50) I think the teacher had us read in English	1.047	2.013	-	15.49	.001
(PR71)/(PS51) I think the teacher had us write in English	1.601	1.601	n/change	0.00	1.00
(PR72)/(PS52) I think the teacher gave us homework	2.313	2.697	-	6.80	.001
(PR73)/(PS53) I think the teacher gave us tests	2.523	3.647	-	23.58	.001

A (Always) = 0, B (Often) = 1, C (Sometimes) = 2, D (Rarely) = 3, E (Never) = 4; (+) positive change; (-) negative change; (n/s) no significant change; Note: Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire.

Less use than expected as indicated by statistically significant negative change (p<.001) was found with respect to use of reading in English, giving homework, and giving tests. No change occurred with respect to use of writing in English.

Discussion

Perhaps the most striking feature of the results on expectations of class activities is the apparent divergence of pre/post-course change as a function of the degree to which activities fit the "traditional" (Japanese) language classroom (although these differences are not significant). Decreases were typically seen in "traditional" activities such as "reading in English," "writing in English," "homework" and "tests"; whereas increases were seen in "non-traditional" activities such as "using music," "using games," "working in groups or pairs." Similarly, although students did not appear to expect much in the way of testing, they did expect some testing, which they did not get. These findings, however, were not unexpected given the acknowledged differences between continuing EFL emphasis (overseas) on Grammar-Translation methodology in contrast to North American TESL emphasis on Communicative Activities (which the teachers also expected [Section 4.1.3]. In addition, a change in the curriculum (in that each class had to perform a song at the closing ceremonies) resulted in a rearrangement of priorities by a number of teachers [see discussion in Section 4.4]. Therefore, this unexpected curricular change (a situational factor) in use of music may have not been anticipated by either students or teachers. In this

case, the change observed should therefore not be interpreted as inappropriate expectations of classroom activities by students.

Finally, no significant change was found between pre-course and post-course results with respect to the aggregate variable "expectations of classroom activities."

3.2.3.3 Expectations of classroom roles (or "successful student characteristics")

In this section, I will examine pedagogical change with respect to expectations of classroom roles or "successful student characteristics."

Results

Statistically significant negative change occurred in all but one measure in expectations of classroom roles.

Table #33   **Expectations of classroom roles**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean #2	Change	T-score	<
(PR60)/(PS40) I think the teacher wanted me to be polite	1.395	1.612	-	3.65	.001
(PR61)/(PS41) I think the teacher wanted me to sit quietly until asked a question	1.438	1.469	-	.54	n/s
(PR62)/(PS42) I think the teacher wanted me to volunteer answers	0.653	0.786	-	2.74	.006
(PR63)/PS43) I think the teacher wanted me to co-operate with other students	0.997	1.330	-	5.76	.001
(PR64)/(PS44) I think the teacher wanted me to compete with other students					
(PR65)/(PS45) I think the teacher corrected my English pronunciation and grammar	1.923	2.171	-	5.34	.001
	1.097	1.213	-	2.07	.039

A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4
(+) positive change; (-) negative change; (n/s) no significant change; Note: Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire.

Negative change (p<.001) was found on perceived expectations for students to be polite, co-operate and compete with other students, as well as volunteering answers in class (p<.01). Correction of errors also showed negative change (p<.05). Non-significant negative change also was found with respect to sitting quietly until asked a question.

Discussion

As discussed in the previous section, some differences between anticipated and realized classroom experience appear to have been identified, providing evidence for the interaction between student and teacher program expectations influencing later pedagogical change [elaborated in Section 5.1.4]. For example, students apparently decided that politeness was less important than anticipated, although this variable was still ranked highly. This change may be a function of differences of cultural expectation

because Japanese politeness is much more formal than Canadian politeness (Andresson, 1986). No significant change was detected, however, with respect to the desirability of "sitting quietly." Interestingly, considering teacher comments concerning student rectitude in the classroom (i.e., difficulty in getting students to talk), fewer students apparently felt volunteering answers was expected by the end of the course, although on average they still strongly agreed with this option.

Another interesting, but somewhat unexpected, shift was seen with respect to the desirability of students co-operating in the classroom. Significantly fewer students agreed at the course end, although the majority still considered it important. It is suggested that this result may reflect an unintended interpretation of the question, or a cultural difference in the interpretation of the behaviour. For example, students may have considered collaborating on constructing answers in class as "co-operation," whereas many of their teachers perceived the same activity as "cheating" [see discussion, Section 4.2.3.4.1]. Interestingly, given the results above, it appears perhaps counterintuitive to discover that apparently while "co-operation" was not as desirable as anticipated, neither was inter-student competition. These results may simply reflect students' perception of how often these activities occurred, rather then referring to how desirable they were.

Finally, significant negative change (p<.001) was found between pre-course and post-course results with to the aggregate variable "expectations of classroom activities" (t=5.65) [see discussion, Section 3.3.2.3]. Therefore, this section provides evidence of pedagogical change (Hypotheses #1 and 2), although the implications for student achievement are not clear due to the fact that negative pedagogical change could be interpreted as an external situational factor.

3.2.3.4 Cognitive/learning style

Although attributes of cognitive/learning have not typically been discussed in terms of application or change, the inclusion of this category on both pre-course and post-course questionnaires permitted the exploration of these dimensions. These results have been included in the pedagogical change section as they seem to mirror other pedagogical changes, and they therefore may be better explained within this context. In addition, based

on reliability analysis, cognitive/learning style was found to fit best within this category (α=.7215) [see discussion, Section 2.7]. Finally, due to the fact that items in this section are described with reference to perceived frequency of occurrence, not personal preference, I will discuss any differences in expected frequency.

Results

A statistically significant increase was found with respect to use of memorizing words (p<.001) and studying privately (p<.05). By contrast, a significant decrease occurred with respect to writing notes (p<.01) and practicing privately (p<.05).

Table #34 **Cognitive/learning style**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean #2	Change	T-score	<
(PR74)/(PS54) I think I learn best by reading	1.657	1.934	-	5.48	.001
(PR75)/(PS55) I think I learn best by listening	0.921	1.000	-	1.79	n/s
(PR76)/(PS56) I think I learn best by writing out notes	2.163	2.285	-	2.73	.007
(PR77)/(PS57) I think I learn best by memorizing words and/or lists	1.881	1.752	+	-2.77	.006
(PR78)/(PS58) I think I learn best by practicing by myself	1.932	2.079	-	2.50	.013
(PR79)/(PS59) I think I learn best by practicing speaking with native speakers	0.400	0.379	+	-.58	n/s
(PR80)/(PS60) I prefer to study in a group	1.743	1.783	-	.74	n/s
(PR81)/(PS61) I prefer to study by myself	1.997	1.876	+	-2.14	.033

*A (Strongly agree) = 0, B (Agree) = 1, C (Neutral) = 2, D (Disagree) = 3, E (Strongly disagree) = 4
+) positive change; (-) negative change; (n/s) no significant change

No significant change was seen in use of listening, practicing with native speakers, or studying in groups.

Discussion

As suggested above, a number of these results seem to mirror other pedagogical changes, insofar as items in which "traditional" skills were apparently not emphasized in the program demonstrated decreases (e.g., #PR74/PS54, #PR76/PS56). However, decreases in listening strategies may also simply reflect the fact that students did not have access to TV, etc. In other words, the item may have been too activity-specific (no T.V.= negative response). Similarly, the increase in memorization may reflect student use of memorization in the classroom, suggesting this skill or strategy to be useful in a short term intensive language program (i.e., theoretical and pedagogical implications). In other words, these responses are ambiguous as students may be recalling skills they used in the program, rather than general preferences consistent with a particular learning style (i.e.,

situational or dynamic interpretation). This interpretation gains support if we consider that the two areas of no change (#PR75/PS55 and #PR79/PS59) involved skills which would have been very useful in a short-term study-abroad program, such as learning best by listening and practicing with native speakers (respectively). These results indicate that the skills that students expected to use were the skills they did in fact use.

Therefore, in a section in which little change was expected because the assumption was that learning style would be relatively static, considerable significant change was observed. These findings appear to contrast with the implicit assumption of Oxford (1990) and others that learning style and/or strategies are generally stable, suggesting that the task-based format of the items may in fact be influenced by the context in which subjects complete the test. However, it should also be noted that administration of the SILL (Oxford, 1990), like much of the motivational research of Gardner (1985) and others, has typically not used a test/re-test format on these variables. Rather, pre-course scores on these inventories are usually correlated with success or achievement on other (usually linguistic) areas. However, because cognitive/learning style has been proposed as a sub-factor in *student style* in the LPPC model, the variable nature of the construct requires further research (which is beyond the scope of this study).

Finally, significant change (p<.001) was found between pre-course and post-course results with respect to the aggregate variable "cognitive/learning style" (t=45.08) [see discussion, Section 3.3.2.3]. Therefore, these results indicate that pedagogically-oriented change did occur from the perspective of learning strategies (more oral/aural). These results, however, undermine the assumptions in Hypothesis #9 concerning the probable influences of difference in learning strategies/styles influencing performance because the student results were not static.

3.2.3.5 Pedagogical change: Summary

To summarize, this study provides evidence of pedagogical change within a short term study-abroad program. Decreases on a number of measures suggests that on average students' expectations (or CBAK+) of class activities and class roles were not met. The influence of this gap on student achievement is, however, by no means clear because the

majority of these changes appeared attributable to situational and/or temporal factors (i.e., factors outside of the students' control). As will be elaborated in Chapters 4 and 5, these differences may result in adjustments, referred to as "hotspots" by Woods' (1996). Such "hotspots" would indicate the influence of BAK on pedagogical change in students which may result in convergence or divergence from teacher expectations.

Based on the amount of change in a number of the items above, it would suggest on average *student pedagogical expectations* to be particularly salient factors in linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program, especially with respect to these two populations.

3.3 Other issues in linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change

In this section, I will discuss evidence relevant to other concepts or constructs proposed in the LPPC model not covered under linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change. These issues include evidence for language activation and/or acquisition, student achievement, and the construction of CBAK+.

3.3.1 Language acquisition and language activation

In this section, I will consider two sets of findings which appear to shed some light on the degree to which processes in a short-term or study-abroad program may be attributed to either language activation or language acquisition [see discussion, Section 1.1.3]. First, I will discuss possible evidence of language acquisition based on changes in student responses to the multiple choice section of the questionnaire. As the ?Knowledge of Canada" section of the questionnaire was the only section which could be considered a test of new versus old information, changes from incorrect to correct answers were considered weak evidence for acquisition.[63] Secondly, I will review the evidence of linguistic change and temporal periods to identify possible areas of activation.

3.3.1.1 Knowledge of Canada: Evidence for language acquisition?

The items in the "Knowledge of Canada" Section of the pre- and post-course

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[63]As noted in Chapter 2, although measurement of specific language change by proficiency tests would have provided a better assessment of this type of change, administrative constraints would not allow such testing in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute.

questionnaires were designed to examine acquisition of factual information covered by the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute curriculum, although this information may also have been acquired from extracurricular sources, especially with respect to #PR41/PS23 ("Which of these are <u>not</u> in Victoria"). Each question had 5 possible answers (1 correct, 4 distracters).

Table #35   **Knowledge of Canada**

Question	Pre-course Correct answers	Post-course Correct answers	% Change Correct answers	p<
(PR36)/(PS18) The province you are in is	56.2% (n= 212)	79.3% (n = 303)	23.1% (n=91)	.001
(PR37)/(PS19) The capital city of Canada is	73.7% (n = 277)	93.7% (n= 358)	20 (n=81)	.001
(PR38)/(PS20) How many provinces are there in Canada	21.7% (n=81)	64.5% (n=247)	42.8 (n=166)	.001
(PR39)/(PS21) The population of Canada is	45.0% (n=166)	63.7% (n=240)	18.7 (n=74)	.001
(PR40)/(PS22) The official language(s) of Canada are	77.5% (n=293)	85.6% (n=327)	8.1 (n=34)	.01
(PR41)/(PS23) Which of these are <u>not</u> in Victoria				
(PR42)/(PS24) A totem pole is	43.4% (n=164)	92.1% (n=352)	48.7 (n=188)	.001
(PR43)/(PS25) Canada is a 'cultural mosaic', this means	95.2% (n=360) 87.2%(n=327)	99.7% (n=382) 97.6% (n=373)	4.5 (n=22) 10.4 (n=46)	.001 .01

Responses are reported here as percentage correct pre- and post-course, and percent change between Time 1 and Time 2. Change was analyzed using a 2-tailed Chi-square. Note that this is the only section in which there were "correct" answers.[64] Change overall appears to support the acquisition of new knowledge. For example, on question #PR36/PS18 ("The province you are in is"), a large number of students who had chosen "None of these" on the pre-course questionnaire, chose the correct answer, British Columbia, on the post-course questionnaire. Similarly, 20% (n=81) more students chose the correct response concerning the capital city (#PR37/PS19) on the post-course questionnaire than on the pre-course questionnaire. There was also a smaller range of alternate answers on the post-course questionnaire, suggesting the majority of students had acquired this information during the program.

These results are also consistent with interview findings concerning student experiences and acquisition of new knowledge. For example, a number of students commented on their experiences with new cultures (dancing, food, etc.) after Folk Fest and the City Option (sightseeing). However, it is difficult to ascertain whether the source

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[64] See Appendix A for full description of questions and possible answers.

of change was curricular or extracurricular.

The responses to question #PR 38/PS20 ("How many provinces are there in Canada"), while following the overall trend noted above (more correct answers on the post-course), raise interesting questions with respect to the distribution of answers [C] "10 Provinces (in Canada)" and [D] "50 Provinces (in Canada)." It is suggested that [D] was incorrectly chosen by 50.7% (n=189) of students in the pre-course questionnaire because they confused Canadian "Provinces" (of which there are 10) with American "States" (of which there are 50), although no direct evidence is available to support this interpretation. These findings also suggest that perhaps this information had not been encountered by all students in their classes in Japan (although this interpretation was impossible to clarify). Nonetheless, this confusion was apparently clarified during the program, as 64.5% (n=247) chose the correct answer on the post-course questionnaire. A similar "convergence" on the correct answer can be seen in #PR39/PS21 ("The population of Canada is"). This material would also have been covered by the program curriculum (i.e., it could have been acquired).

With respect to the question concerning the official languages of Canada, it should also be noted that the second most popular answer ([A] English) is not entirely incorrect as the correct answer is [E] English and French. Nonetheless, fewer students chose [A] on the post-course questionnaire, suggesting this issue had been addressed (or acquired) in some manner during the program.

Concerning the impact of experience on learning was one of the more "experientially-based" items #PR41/PS23 ("Which of these are not in Victoria"). According to interviewees, all students took part in extracurricular activities (e.g., "Sports Option", "City Option", etc.). Through the "City Option," which was basically a sightseeing tour, and other organized activities, students encountered all the choices except for [C] the University of British Columbia, which is in Vancouver, not in Victoria. The contrast, therefore, between a relatively large range of choices on the pre-course questionnaire, and the relatively fewer choices on the post-course questionnaire, where the overwhelming majority of students (92.1%, n=352) chose the correct answer, supports the

acquisition of this information, although whether the source was curricular or extracurricular is not clear.

The items #PR42/PS24 ("A totem pole is") and #PR43/PS25 ("Canada is a 'cultural mosaic' means") focus on knowledge of Canadian cultural issues. The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute curriculum placed a strong emphasis on the incorporation of First Nations culture. The student workbook included a discussion of First Nations languages, myths and culture. In addition, a special performance of a local festival, "Folk Fest," in which members of different cultures including members of the Vancouver Island First Nations participated, was arranged for the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students. These facts suggest that "acquisition" was based on experience.

It is difficult, however, to assess the impact of the program emphasis on these two items based on questionnaire responses because either the majority of students knew this information prior to the program, or the questionnaire items were themselves flawed in not providing viable choices (i.e., the translation might have been transparent), although such problems were not identified by any of the three individuals who reviewed the translation.

In summary, it appears that the responses in the ?Knowledge of Canada" section provide some support for the acquisition of curriculum-based and extracurricular knowledge over the course of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute on items specifically designed to elicit newly acquired language knowledge. This result would support higher levels of student achievement within the LPPC model. However, the caveats noted previously with respect to this section should be re-emphasized: change on this section provides support for language acquisition only if "language acquisition" is defined very narrowly to refer to the acquisition of novel information. No productive language skills were measured by this section of the questionnaire. Therefore, future research should include such measures. Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

3.3.1.2 Evidence for activation?

It will be argued that the findings presented in Sections 3.1 and 3.2 provide some support for the identification of the process of language activation in the changes in

language production found in this study. First, the fact that 99.2% (n=374) of the students had at least six to nine years of English language training before beginning the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute provides indirect support for the assumption that the students possessed at least some pre-existing knowledge of the language (either passive or active knowledge) which could be activated. Second, in student interviews, a number of interviewees noted their increasing, and situationally variable, ability to understand English and use English. An overall low number of grammar errors was also noted, suggesting a relatively good knowledge of the language. These findings appear more consistent with activation (the information is there, its just not always accessible) than acquisition (it wasn't there, and now it is). One student also alluded to what might be termed two-stage activation when she described a change from translation to automatic processing:

> Example 1 [Interview 4]:
> Interviewer: Is it easier to speak English now?
> N: Yes
> Interviewer: What about understanding?
> N: Before, when is speak to Canadians, I think English means...but
>   now I just hear.
> Interviewer: Before you had to change it to Japanese. Now you
>   hear it in English?
> N: Ya.

The apparent switch to automatic processing in English appears important, as noted earlier, because automaticity is generally considered a high level, top-down form of language processing (Ellis, 1989). Automatic processing appears more consistent with the process of *language activation*, as automaticity arguably develops from previously "learnt" knowledge.

Thirdly, it will be suggested that the strongest evidence for activation appears with respect to identification of temporal periods of change [Section 3.2.2.2]. For example, significant differences were found in total number of utterances (and lexical errors) between Interviews #1 and 2, Interviews #1 and 3, and Interviews #1 and 4. Given the fact that the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute curriculum did not emphasize presentation of new language or language skills, but rather it emphasized

language use, these increases appear to represent increasing access to previously learnt knowledge, especially in the period between Interview #1 and 2 (Week 1). "Week 1" was approximately four days for most students, which would appear to be a very short amount of time for language acquisition to have occurred.

Other evidence may be found for language activation in the inverse relationship between increased fluency (number of utterances, range, MLU) and decreased accuracy (increased numbers of language errors) which appeared to hold across the three-week period. In other words, while change in language production was found to occur within the three-week period, increased language use appeared to be accompanied by imperfect activation of passive language knowledge, such as attempts at discussion of more sophisticated topics using more complex language and linguistic structures. Inaccurate language production does not necessarily imply lack of comprehension as indicated by student comments discussed earlier [Section 3.2.1.2].

Other findings (non-significant change), which also appear to support the language activation hypothesis, include the fact that quite a bit of change occurred within the first week (activation). Between Interview #1 and Interview #2 (the first week of the program), change consistent with language activation, and perhaps with language fluency, was found although these changes could also be the effect of inexperience of the interviewer and/or interviewees. For example, an increase in the total number of utterances was found, together with increases in number of lexical errors, which may have resulted from increased attempts to communicate. These results, therefore, seem consistent with Freed (1995b & 1995c) concerning accuracy and fluency.

Similarly, a second period of change appeared at the end of the second week (between Interview #1 and Interview #3), with increases in number of utterances, grammatical errors, lexical errors, and incomplete responses. Although these changes may have been influenced by the significant change seen between Interview #1 and Interview #2 with respect to common variables (number of utterances, lexical errors, and incomplete responses), the fact that not all changes were found to be significant suggests that these results do reflect real differences. Finally, a third period of change appeared between

Interview #1 and Interview #4 (number of utterances, range, grammatical errors, lexical errors, incomplete responses, and student-initiated topic change). These changes appear to be consistent with language activation, as well as increased fluency at the expense of accuracy, although further research is necessary (which is beyond the scope of this study). Increased fluency would be consistent with higher levels of student achievement.

In summary, it is argued that the findings presented in Sections 3.1 and 3.2 provide support for the identification of the process of language activation in the changes in language production found in this study. This finding may be considered a theoretical contribution of the LPPC model with respect to the distinction between language activation and language acquisition in a short term program.

3.3.2 Student achievement

In Section 1.7.1, student achievement was defined with respect to internal factors such as perceptual and pedagogical change, and perceptions of linguistic change, as well as external factors such as linguistic change. Specifically, within the LPPC model of second language acquisition, *student achievement* was defined as including increased fluency, positive perceptions of Canada and Canadians, increased comfort in language use, increased comprehension, increased knowledge of Canada, and desire to return to Canada. While it was beyond the scope of this study to identify specific cases of high or low student achievement (perceived or otherwise), I will re-examine the data presented in this chapter for evidence of positive and negative linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. First, I will consider the predictions made based on the class profile (or CBAK+) which included student style, and student linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations [Sections 3.1.1-3.1.4]. Second, I will discuss evidence of positive and negative linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change, and I will speculate about the overall level of student achievement in this study.

3.3.2.1 Construction of Class BAK+

Four main factors were hypothesized to be components of Class BAK+: student style, and linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations. Based on the analysis of student data from the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, "student style"

suggested a highly homogeneous group of students of a similar age, gender, culture, language, cognitive/learning style and socioeconomic status. There appear to be two main implications of this homogeneity: (i) the development of the description of CBAK+ was relatively easy in terms of this particular subject population (i.e., a more heterogeneous group might be more difficult to describe), and (ii) any post-course inter-class differences in performance or perceptions would be arguably attributable to more external factors (such as teacher factors or situational constraints). The latter point will be explored in depth in Sections 5.1 and 4.4.2.2.

A description of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students based on linguistic, cultural or pedagogical expectations included the following characteristics. "Linguistic expectations" included strong beliefs in the difficulty in learning and using English, interacting with Canadians, as well as the importance of good language skills. For most students, previous extracurricular exposure to English appeared to be limited to listening to English radio or music. With respect to "student cultural expectations," the majority of students had rarely or never met Canadians before, although approximately half of the students said they had sometimes or often studied Canada in school. In general, students held quite positive views of Canadians, although the majority of students thought making friends with Canadians would be difficult. The majority of students also had no previous experience with Canadian teachers. Their "pedagogical expectations" included anticipating learning about Canada and Canadian culture, as well as learning more English. They also expected to be provided with opportunities to use English, although in class they expected reading and writing activities, as well as games and group work. They did not expect much homework, many tests or much music. Finally, students expected their teachers to want them to volunteer answers and to co-operate with other students.

Therefore, change appeared to be based on participant factors (such as student motivations, culturally-based expectations, etc.), situational factors (such as changes in program or extracurricular activities), and temporal factors (such as the amount of change that could occur in three weeks).

3.3.2.2 Areas of positive and negative change: LPPC categories

Positive change was found in the areas of decreasing language use anxiety, increasing language comprehension, increasing language production (albeit with more errors), more positive attitudes towards Canadians, and less (perceived) difficulty in understanding Canadian culture and making friends with Canadians, less perceived difficulty in learning to read, write, speak or understand English, and increased contact with native speakers. Other positive change included less language use anxiety and higher language comfort, as well as perceived and measurable increased fluency. In other words, support for positive attitudinal, perceptual, and linguistic change was found (Hypotheses #1, 2, 3, and 8). From the LPPC model, this positive change should contribute to an overall perception of student achievement.

In addition, statistically significant positive change (p<.001, t= -5.46) was seen with respect to the desire of Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students to return to Canada, with 95.2% (n=354) of students either agreeing or strongly agreeing that they would like to return to Canada (an increase from 89.3% , n=325 on the pre-course questionnaire). The fact that a large majority of students wished to return provides support for the success of the program in reaching at least one of its goals of familiarizing students with travel to other countries, and developing comfort in using English in an overseas experience. In addition, a strong desire to return to Canada was considered an attribute of high levels of student achievement within the LPPC model.

Areas of negative change included the perception that having an accent in English was an even bigger problem than anticipated (probably due to experiences with communication breakdown). Negative change was also found in categories of pedagogical change or perceptual change as related to classroom events. For example, although attitudes toward the learning situation were still positive, decreases were observed with respect to expectations concerning learning about Canada and Canadians, learning and practicing English, and having opportunities to meet Canadians. Expectations concerning what behaviours the students believed the teachers valued also showed negative change (decreases) on all but one traits (no change on sitting quietly until asked a question). The

possible influences of negative change of student perceptions of achievement is difficult to assess for a number of reasons, such as whether situational constraints would result in "hotspots" causing reconfigurations of SBAK+ or CBAK+, or whether negative change would influence student achievement at all, because situational constraints could be attributed to external sources.

First, much of the "negative change" would not necessarily be interpreted generally as reflecting negative perceptions (such as changes from "strongly agree" to "agree" on positively worded items). Second, based on initial student linguistic expectations concerning the perceived difficulty in learning and using English, even occasional communication failure may not have been interpreted necessarily as failure (especially if students felt that their comprehension had improved despite expected difficulties). However, I would also suggest that this second point could be particularly vulnerable to individual variation (based on the "butterfly effect"). In other words, while one student might interpret occasional problems as a natural and expected occurrence (and/or perhaps attribute failure to external factors like listener problems), another student could internalize and generalize failure based on one minor miscommunication or misinterpretation (a "butterfly effect"). Third, as noted above, negative pedagogical change, while suggesting that students' initial expectations concerning class activities and/or roles were not met, perhaps creating 'hotspots" or reasons for changes in BAK in Woods' (1996) terms, does not necessarily imply that students would interpret these differences as failure. In fact, it is reasonable to suggest that such external, temporal and situational factors such as time and program constraints (especially class size) could be irritating, but not personally threatening. For example, the fact that a number of students commented that they wanted to come back to study, but alone, rather than in a group, suggests that the group size was seen as a situational constraint which could be overcome with relative ease.

Finally, we might expect that students would be somewhat used to adapting to different teacher's classroom (Brophy & Good, 1974); therefore, situational constraints would have relatively little impact on their attributions normally, although in extreme

cases, demotivation could occur (Dörnyei, 1998; Oxford, 1998). By contrast, a teacher who finds that what they are doing in class is not working may attribute an activity's failure to personal failure. On the other hand, they could attribute such failure to student factors or situational factors, depending on their personal orientations (or values) (Ames, 1983).

Changes in cognitive/learning style and expectations of classroom activities appeared to show parallel trends. These parallels concerning class activities included higher than expected use music, games, group and pair work and lower than expected use of reading, homework or tests by teachers. Parallels also included less agreement in cognitive/learning style with "learning best" with reading, listening, writing notes, and practicing by oneself, and more agreement with memorizing words, practicing by speaking with native speakers, and studying by oneself. The former findings also suggest a reaction against the large class size, although it would be difficult to predict how such attributions would influence student achievement. According to the LPPC model, external attributions such as situational constraints would not have a strong negative influence on achievement.

Finally, no change was seen with respect to perceived difficulty in learning English (still "very difficult") nor with respect to listening to English music, watching English TV or reading English or Japanese magazines (etc.) or writing letters (etc.). The former finding was interpreted to be primarily a ceiling effect due to quite high initial response levels, especially with respect to perceived difficulty in learning English. In addition, a number of the activities were not necessarily accessible in either Japanese or program contexts (such as watching English T.V.) which may have influenced the results, suggesting that in this context, these items were poorly worded, and therefore they were not useful to the analysis.

In conclusion, the analysis of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the student questionnaire and interview data revealed more positive change, which would be consistent with student achievement, than change which would not be consistent with such achievement. Areas of negative change and/or no change appeared to be primarily attributable to situational factors, which were hypothesized to have little impact on

students' perceptions of achievement.

3.3.2.3 LPPC categories: Pooled Results

Using the pooled, scaled data from reliability tests [Section 2.7], overall change in response by LPPC category was examined.

Results and discussion

Statistically significant change (p<.001) was found in all categories except for the categories "Attitudes towards target group," Attitudes toward language learning," and "Self-assessment of proficiency" [as noted in previous discussions].

Table #36		Areas of LPPC Change		
LPPC Category	Pretest	Posttest	T-score	2-tailed sig
Attitudes towards target group	1.48	1.47	0.43	n/s
Attitudes towards language learning	0.37	0.36	-0.37	n/s
Attitudes towards learning situation	0.45	1.04	-18.40	.001
Interest in foreign languages	2.03	1.99	-2.14	.033
Language comfort	2.58	2.16	-11.89	.001
Language use anxiety	1.31	1.85	16.80	.001
Language learning anxiety	0.72	0.82	4.17	.001
Self-assessment of proficiency	1.81	1.77	-1.05	n/s

The results from the analysis of pooled questionnaire data also appear to support the hypotheses regarding linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program. In other words, the results show that change occurs, and in general, it appears to promote positive attitudes.

Based on mean category responses, significant positive change was found on "Language use anxiety," "Language comfort," "Interest in foreign languages," and "Language learning anxiety." In other words, students' linguistic and sociocultural perceptions increased positively. Significant negative change was observed in "Attitudes towards learning situation" which suggested some "mismatches" between student and teacher expectations with respect to actual classroom practice although, as discussed previously, due to the apparent situational basis for these changes, they were not expected to have a strong negative effect on students' perceptions of achievement.

3.3.2.4 Student questionnaire categories: Pooled Results

Using the pooled, scaled data from reliability tests, overall changes in response by questionnaire category were also examined.

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Results

Statistically significant change (p<.001) was found in all categories except the category "Perceptions of class activities."

Table #37   <u>Areas of Perceptual Change in Student Questionnaire</u>

	Pretest	Posttest	T-score	2-tailed sig
Perceptions of Canadians	20.23	18.07	-10.01	.001
Perceptions of Language Learning	13.44	15.89	9.84	.001

Statistically significant positive Perceptual change (p<.001) (based on mean responses) was found with respect to Perceptions of Canadians and Perceptions of Language Learning.

Table #38   <u>Areas of Pedagogical Change in Student Questionnaire</u>

	Pretest	Posttest	T-score	2-tailed sig
Perceptions of Classroom Roles	7.50	8.56	5.65	.001
Perceptions of Program	21.30	17.71	-18.33	.001
Perceptions of Class Activities	14.18	14.35	.77	n/s
Perceptions of Cognitive/learning style	26.67	42.52	45.08	.001

Statistically significant negative pedagogical change (p<.001) (based on mean responses) was found with respect to the categories "Perceptions of Classroom Roles" and "Perceptions of Program," and "Cognitive/learning style." Significant change was not evident with respect to the category of "Perceptions of Class Activities."

Discussion

The results from the pooled questionnaire data therefore also appear to support the hypotheses regarding linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program. For example, statistically significant change occurred in all but one category (not in "Perceptions of Class Activities"). Positive change was found with respect to socio-cultural variables ("Perceptions of Canada," "Perceptions of Language Learning"). However, positive change was not found with respect to pedagogical change ("Perceptions of Classroom Roles" or "Perceptions of Program").

As discussed in the previous section, the apparent inverse relationship between "Perceptual Change" (positive, increase) and "Pedagogical Change" (negative, decrease) may reflect the differences between general expectations of the short term intensive language program experience (especially the extracurricular aspects such as meeting

people, learning and practicing language with Canadians, etc.) proposed in the LPPC model, which were met and/or exceeded, and specific expectations of the classroom experience (teacher/student role expectations, use of techniques, etc. or situational factors) which were either not met or negatively evaluated. It was suggested that these results may also reflect a difference between student expectations of a traditional Japanese classroom with a focus on literacy skills (reading, writing, tests) and the reality of the socio-culturally and orally focussed short-term intensive language program classroom (using games, songs, interviews, etc.) in which they found themselves.[65]

Finally, these findings are generally consistent with (i) Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program goals and expectations (sociocultural development rather than language learning), (ii) general findings in short term intensive language program-type research (Brecht et al., 1995; Freed, 1995; Gardner, 1985), (iii) differences in EFL training in Japan (traditional grammar-based classrooms) and/or cross-cultural differences (Andresson, 1986), and (iv) reports of Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers [see discussion - Chapter 4].

3.3.2.5 Changes in student linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations

In order to explore change in the CBAK+ attributes (student style, linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations), a number of smaller categories were combined.

(i) *Student style (Sstyle)* - an aggregate of student motivation (Smotivation), and cognitive/learning style (Scogl), culture (Sculture), gender (Sgender) and/or language (Slanguage)
(ii) *Student cultural expectations (Sculture)* - an aggregate of perceptions of Canadians, and Attitudes towards target group
(iii) *Student linguistic expectations* (Sexpectations - Linguistic) - Language comfort, Language use anxiety, Attitudes towards language learning, Interest in Foreign languages, Self-assessment of literacy, Perceptions of language learning
(iii) *Student pedagogical expectations* (Sexpectations - Pedagogical) - an aggregate of Perceptions of class activities (Sclass activities), Perceptions of class roles (Sclass roles), Perceptions of program (Sppg) and Attitudes

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[65] As noted previously, "negative" change does not necessarily imply negative perceptions of classroom roles or program. In fact, these results may reflect differences between expected prevalence of certain types of experiences and activities.

towards learning situation.

Due to the fact that the majority of attributes in *Student style* were assessed on the pre-course questionnaire only, change in this factor was measured with respect to cognitive/learning style only. Statistically significant change was observed on all four variables. These findings provide support for (i) change occurring in linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical areas predicted initially and (ii) change occurring in the aggregate variables proposed by the LPPC model as part of SBAK+ (i.e., support for the model).

Table #39   Areas of changes in linguistic, cultural & pedagogical expectations

Category	Pretest	Posttest	T-score	2-tailed sig
Student linguistic expectations	1.49	1.53	3.02	.003
Student cultural expectations	1.71	1.62	-6.10	.001
Student pedagogical expectations	1.10	1.31	14.06	.001
Student style (Cognitive/learning style)	26.67	42.52	45.08	.001

In other words, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute did succeed in influencing student linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations, and student style.

3.4 Chapter Summary - CBAK+, LPPC, and student achievement

To summarize, the factors proposed of CBAK + (student style, linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations) created a profile of a subject population with little prior contact with Canadian teachers or Canadian culture. The contribution of student style to the development of the CBAK+ (or class profile) of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student population was the image of a group of young Japanese women with primarily instrumental motivation and a preferred learning style which emphasizes oral and aural skills. Students also were found to have some previous experience with native speakers and interest in English music. These results generally suggested initial positive attitudes towards the target language speakers and culture, however, the overall homogeneity of responses on questionnaires also suggested that little variation in post-course responses would be found.

Linguistic expectations within the construction of the CBAK+ for the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students also included the beliefs that language learning was difficult, language skills were important, and using English was

difficult (high levels of language use anxiety). A positive experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was therefore predicted to increase fluency and lessen anxiety. Evidence was found to support this prediction. Based on students' backgrounds in EFL, language activation was also predicted to occur. Support was also found for this prediction. With respect to cultural expectations and pedagogical expectations, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students shared the same language, gender and culture, and they possessed very positive attitudes towards Canadians, as well as having little personal experience with Canadians, Canadian culture or Canadian teachers. Cultural and pedagogical expectations were expected to result in some culture shock, linguistic change with respect to topics such as knowledge of Canada, and little familiarity with the type of teaching techniques most likely to be used in a short-term program with sociocultural goals. Support was also found for these hypotheses.

A number of the findings provided support for the influence of the factors identified above. First, this study provided evidence of both perceived and measurable linguistic change in a short-term study-abroad program (especially fluency). Perceived change included increased language comprehension and production, and increased comfort in language use. Measurable linguistic change included increased amounts of language production across the program (especially with respect to topics of interest to the students), as well decreased accuracy (although levels of errors were not high). Change was also seen to occur on a number of measures within identifiable temporal periods, with the minimal period being identified as approximately one week (supporting activation). Second, evidence of perceptual change within a short-term study-abroad program was also found. Positive change was found with respect to attitudes towards Canadians, and students showed lower levels of language learning anxiety. These results support the general success of the program which had primarily sociocultural goals. Thirdly, this study provided evidence of pedagogical change within a short-term study- abroad program. Decreases on a number of measures suggests that on average students' expectations (or CBAK+) of class activities and class roles were not completely fulfilled. Finally, the responses in the Knowledge of Canada section provided weak support for a finding of the

acquisition of curriculum-based and extracurricular knowledge over the course of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute on items specifically designed to elicit newly acquired language knowledge (supporting acquisition).

In conclusion, evidence was found to support the hypotheses proposed at the beginning of the chapter, although not all change was statistically significant. In other words, concerning Hypothesis #1 and 2, linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change did occur during the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute which was generally statistically significant. In addition, evidence for linguistic change and/or perceived linguistic was found with respect to total number of words per student per interview, number of lexical errors, number of incomplete responses, number of inappropriate responses, number of student-initiated topic changes, language use anxiety, self-assessment of literacy/proficiency, and knowledge of Canada [Hypotheses #3 (iii) and (iv)]. Support was also found for Hypothesis #3 (i) as perceptual/attitudinal change was found to occur in measures of attitudes towards target language group, interest in foreign languages, and language learning anxiety. These changes reflected an increase in positive attitude. Finally, pedagogical change was found in Attitudes towards the learning situation, Perceptions of Program, Perceptions of Classroom Roles, and Perceptions of Class Activities [Hypothesis 3 (ii)].

Chapter Four: Teacher Interview and Questionnaire: Evidence for LPPC
4.0 Introduction

The following chapter contains the presentation and discussion of findings of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher questionnaires and interviews as related to linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive study-abroad language program. In each section, results will be presented and a general discussion of the findings will follow. A discussion of the findings relevant to the hypotheses outlined below will then be presented. The chapter will be divided into the following sections: Demographics (TBAK+ factors such as teacher style, teacher experience and teacher expectations), Linguistic Change (evidence of perceptions of student linguistic change), Perceptual Change (perceptions of self as teacher, perceptions of success), and Pedagogical Change (perceptions of linguistic program goals, class activities, class roles, sociocultural program goals, pedagogical emphasis, successful student characteristics/expectations of class roles), Evidence of the influence of teacher factors on inter-class differences, Teacher achievement and TBAK+, and Summary of findings. Teacher questionnaire and interview data will be discussed together as relevant to LPPC and BAK+.

This chapter develops a comprehensive profile of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher subject population which is important: (i) to add to the data concerning teachers of Japanese English as a Second Language students, (ii) to address the general lack of information on the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute 1993 teacher population, (iii) to develop a clear understanding of the degree to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher subject population was representative of those populations in other short-term intensive study- abroad language programs, and (iv) to test hypotheses concerning the influence of age, income, gender, ESL or teaching training, experience teaching in general, teaching experience with Japanese ESL students, and/or experience having taught in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute previously on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive immersion program. The study hypotheses (p. 3) addressed in this

chapter are summarized below in the specific form in which they were investigated[66]:

Hypothesis #1: Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will occur during the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute;

Hypothesis #2: Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will be measurable and statistically significant;

Hypothesis #3: Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will be found in the following categories

#3 (i) Perceptual/attitudinal change will occur in measures of self-perception as a teacher and program success;

#3 (ii) Pedagogical change will be found in the following questionnaire categories: Perceptions of Program, Perceptions of Classroom Roles, and Perceptions of Class Activities. Overall, these changes will reflect an increase in positive attitude;

#3 (iii) & (vi) Perceived linguistic change will be found with respect to language use anxiety, language comfort and language comprehension, and knowledge of Canada;

Hypothesis #4: Different teacher styles and/or techniques will have measurable and significant effects on the student performance;

Hypothesis #7: Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will also relate to different teacher styles and/or techniques, and be measurable and significant;

Hypothesis #8: Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change will be greater in the socio-psychological competences than in linguistic competence;

Hypothesis #9: Individual differences in learning strategies and/or styles among students and/or teachers will correlate to differences in performance;

Hypothesis #10: Japanese student and Western/Canadian teacher differences in culture and/or gender will correlate to factors outlined above; further, the influence of the amount of experience of either students or teachers with members of the other group will be measurable and significant.

The analysis of the teacher data also serves to develop the constructs hypothesized for the LPPC model of second language acquisition developed in Chapter 1. It was hypothesized that *teacher style* (as defined in the study by teacher training, gender, age, culture, income, theoretical perspective, and cognitive/learning style), together with

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[66]Hypotheses #5 and #6 are discussed in Chapter 5.

teacher experience (overall classroom experience, experience with Japanese students, experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute), and *teacher expectations* (classroom roles and activities), would influence *classroom practice* (activities, techniques, etc.), which would interact with *student style* (motivation, attitude, cognitive/learning styles and demographic variations), *student linguistic expectations* (major, experience with English, number of languages spoken, previous experience with Canada and/or Canadians), *student pedagogical expectations* (classroom roles and activities) and *student extracurricular contact.* This interaction, also characterized as TBAK+ and SBAK+, would influence both *student achievement* (increased fluency, positive perceptions of Canada and Canadians, increased comfort in language use and comprehension, increased knowledge of Canada) and *teacher achievement* (positive assessment of student(s) success, self-assessment as good teacher of Japanese students, positive assessment of the program, "realistic" expectations of classroom roles and activities).

In this Chapter, the degree to which the teacher factors identified above were supported by the data, and the type of change observed (positive or negative linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change), will be discussed. Change was observed on a number items, however, few changes were statistically significant. Following Woods (1996) and others, I will therefore discuss findings in terms of trends and tendencies. Discussion of trends and tendencies is to be understood to concern findings which may or may not be the result of chance. Of a total of 14 teachers involved in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, 13 subjects completed the pre-course questionnaire, and 14 subjects completed the post-course questionnaire. The results are discussed below.

4.1 Exploring TBAK+: Teacher style, experience & expectations

In this section, I will explore evidence for the development of a profile of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study teacher subject population as a whole[67] (or TBAK+ as proposed by the LPPC model), based on teacher style, teacher

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[67]Individual learning profiles are beyond the scope of this study.

experience and teacher expectations.

4.1.1 Teacher style: Results and discussion

Teacher style (Tstyle) was defined as an aggregate of training and education (Ttraining), gender (Tgender), cognitive learning style (Tcogl), knowledge of additional language(s) (Tlang) and views on language learning (Ttheories), age and income (Tage), and culture (Tculture). To develop profiles of "teacher style" a compendium of traits was elicited, including classroom personality, self-assessment of teaching aptitude, preference for teaching techniques, classroom pedagogical emphasis, and personal language learning strategies. In this section, I will examine findings of these attributes of teacher style.

The results of the analysis are first presented in the form of frequency distributions. A discussion of the analysis follows. Results will be reported as percentages in the text to provide clarity of explanation. Individual cases are reported in the tables and/or Appendix B.

4.1.1.1 Demographics: Age, gender, cognitive/learning style, nationality

Analysis of demographic data provides a general profile of the members of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute based on age, gender, nationality and knowledge of other languages.

Results

The majority of the teachers (64%, n=9) were between 20 - 40 years of age, and four teachers (n=4) were 40-60 years of age. The majority of teachers (64%, n=9) were female. Five teachers were male (35.7%). The majority of teachers (78.6%, n=11) were from Canada, with the others citing the United Kingdom as "country of origin" (14.3%, n=2). Based on country of origin, it appears that as a group the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers could be defined as "Western" (or non-asian, white educated Western European and/or North American), although a number of these teachers had considerable experience with Asian student populations [see discussion, Section 4.1.2]. Almost half of the teachers (42.9%, n=6) reported a yearly family income of $20,000 or less, two teachers (14.2%) reported family incomes of $20,000-40,000 per year, and three teachers (21.4%) reported family incomes of $60,000-90,000 per year.

Discussion

Within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher population, nine teachers were female (64%), and five were male (36%). The population characteristics of the teachers involved in the program appear to be consistent with characteristics found in the general ESL population (Voth, 1993). This finding suggests a higher probability of generalizability of findings to similar populations. Charles Voth (1993) found that 79% of BCTEAL[68] members were female, 19% were male, and the majority indicated English was their first language. These findings are also consistent with the TESOL survey findings (Hafernik et al., 1993) as the majority of Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers (64%, n=9) were female, as were those possessing the highest level degrees (Bachelors of Arts, Masters of Arts, and Masters of Education). In addition, the administrators of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (especially on the Japanese side) appeared to be primarily male, although the student population was all female. With respect to employment status, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program was only a three-week program. It would be difficult to assess which teachers (or genders) were more likely to be fully employed outside of that summer program for comparison with Hafernik et al.'s findings.

In summary, by comparing demographic information concerning the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers to Voth's (1993) survey of ESL teachers in the province and Harfernik et al.'s (1993) study of gender distributions in the field, it appears that the teacher population in this study may be considered generally representative of the general population on these characteristics.

4.1.1.2 Teachers, language learning and cognitive/learning style

Teachers' interest and knowledge of other languages, as well as their personal learning styles and strategies, were considered to be attributes of the factor "teacher style" within TBAK+ within the LPPC model.

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[68]British Columbia Teachers of English as an Additional Language Association

Results

All teachers spoke English as their first language, and seven other languages were cited as second or additional languages (with a number of teachers listing more than one additional language), including French (42.9%, n=6), German (21.4%, n=3), Chinese (7.1%, n=1), Japanese (28.6%, n=4), Spanish (7.1%, n=1), Swedish (7.1%, n=1), and Russian (7.1%, n=1). These results suggest that generally the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers were themselves experienced, and arguably successful, language learners. This interpretation is further supported by the teachers' views of language learning and their own ability in learning languages as discussed in Table #40.

The following table describes teachers' perceptions of the language learning process in general, as well as their perceptions of their own language learning abilities and strategies.

Table #40   Perceptions of language learning and strategies

Question/category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
Learning languages is difficult	2.92	1.04	Agree
Learning languages is different than learning other subjects	2.08	0.86	Agree
I consider myself a good language learner	1.85	0.90	Strongly agree
I learn language best by listening	3.15	0.90	Neutral
I learn language best by reading	3.23	1.01	Neutral
I learn best by writing out notes	2.31	0.86	Agree
I learn best by memorizing words and/or lists	2.85	0.90	Agree
I learn best by practicing by myself	2.79	0.98	Agree

Strongly agree=1, Agree=2, Neutral=3, Disagree=4, Strongly disagree=5

Results of the analysis of questionnaire data concerning the teachers' perceptions of the language learning process and of their own learning styles and strategies indicate general agreement that learning languages is somewhat difficult (mean=2.92) and different from learning other subjects (mean=2.08). Most teachers, while considering themselves good language learners (mean=1.85), were generally neutral with respect to preferred language learning strategies, although they appeared to slightly favour literacy-based strategies (writing notes, mean=2.31; memorizing words and lists, mean=2.85) and solitary learning strategies (practicing by oneself, mean=2.79), over general comprehension-based strategies (listening, mean=3.15; or reading, mean=3.23). None of

these differences, however, were statistically significant.

Due to a diversity of opinion not clearly apparent in the mean scores, I will also briefly discuss individual variation [also, see Appendix B]. While the majority of teachers agreed (42.9%, n=3) that learning language was difficult, less than half (28.5%, n=4) either disagreed or strongly disagreed. In addition, most teachers (78.6%, n=11) considered themselves to be good language learners. Only one individual did not agree with the statement. However, a clear majority of teachers (71.4%, n=10) agreed or strongly agreed that language learning was different (but not necessarily more difficult) from learning other subjects.

With respect to specific language learning strategies, the teachers appeared to differ with respect to preferences for specific strategies. For example, approximately the same number agreed (21.4%, n=3) as disagreed or strongly disagreed (28.5%, n=4) that they liked to learn by listening (in other words, suggesting they were auditory learners). The majority of participants were neutral. A similar distribution was seen with respect to the strategy of learning through reading.

By contrast, a majority of the teachers (57.2%, n=8) either agreed or strongly agreed that they found writing useful in language learning. The use of memorizing appeared to be favoured by approximately half of the teachers (42.9%, n=6). However, a similar percentage omitted the question (35.7%, n=5). Finally, half of the teachers were neutral with respect to the use of practicing (or practicing by oneself), with a further 28.6% (n=4) either agreeing or strongly agreeing, and 21.7% (n=3) disagreeing.

Discussion

It is interesting that the majority of the teachers saw language learning as separate from other forms of knowledge acquisition. However, this result does appear to be consistent with current theoretical perspectives in the fields of linguistics and applied linguistics, and it may therefore simply reflect the teacher education and other academic backgrounds of the individuals (Barkhuizen, 1998; Woods, 1996). Another interesting, and perhaps theoretically important, finding is the fact that virtually all of the teachers (78.6%, n=10) considered themselves to be good language learners, suggesting that by

comparison with the general population, ESL teachers may be more positive towards, or better at, language learning than their students. For example, the majority of Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students considered learning languages to be difficult or very difficult (pre-course 94.3%, n= 358), and/or learning English to be difficult or very difficult (pre-course 87.1%, n=331).

These differences could theoretically have either positive or negative ramifications. For example, a teacher who believed language learning was an obtainable goal could motivate students. By contrast, teachers who have experienced little difficulty themselves in learning languages might also have less patience with students who are struggling. Further research on this issue, however, is beyond the scope of the study.

Based on Woods' (1996) concept of the influence of the BAK on teacher practice, the LPPC model suggests that a teacher's personal experience in language learning and/or in language teaching might influence their perspectives and practices in the classroom [see discussion, Section 1.4.8]. In addition, from this perspective, it is particularly interesting that almost a third of the teachers (28.6%, n=4) had some knowledge of Japanese, the language of their students. Knowledge of Japanese, and/or Japanese culture, could influence the teachers' approach to this population, and/or their expectations concerning areas of problems and areas of progress. Thus, these findings appear to relate to Hypothesis #10 ("the influence of the amount of experience either of students or teachers with members of the other group will be measurable"), although the actual influence could not be clearly identified.

Of course, the question of whether these results are related to learning style, strategy use, general aptitude or enthusiasm remains open. However, research by McCarthy (1987) and others (Brophy & Good, 1974; Dörnyei, 1998; Oxford, 1998; Woods, 1996) suggests that teachers do tend to carry their personal learning styles into the classroom, and that these differences influence classroom events and interpretation [see discussion, 1.4.3]. The differences between teacher and student perceptions of language learning (etc.) are further discussed in Section 5.1.3.

Voth's (1993) findings on what he refers to as teacher learning style, or "training

experiences and activities compared to percentage of subjects who had a high preference for indicated experience or activity" (p. 69), are also interesting from the perspective of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study's goal of developing "teacher profiles" and assessing whether "teacher learning styles" differ, from and/or influence, the classroom context. While Voth's categories do not relate directly to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher questionnaire, he did seem to find what might be termed a preference for experiential learning. For example, his subjects rated most highly "practical, hands-on" teacher training activities such as observing experienced teachers (79.8%), workshops (70%), practice teaching (70%), reflecting on teaching experience (67%), and demonstrations (63%). By contrast, what may be termed more academically/theoretically oriented tasks were rated less highly: for example, individual work (56%), reflecting on a personal L2 learning experience (54.9%), curriculum development (52%), group discussions (50%), problem solving (47%), Q&A sessions (41.9%), observing peers (41%), simulations (38%), pair work (37%), observing videos (28%), microteaching peers (27%), action research (24%), lectures (20%), journals (13%), plenaries (9%), panel discussions (9%), and team teaching (0%).

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers either agreed or strongly agreed that they learnt language(s) best by using the following strategies: listening to lectures, tapes, etc. (23.1%, n=3), reading (23.1%, n=3), writing out notes to organize information (61.6%, n=8), memorizing words or lists (46.2%, n=6), and practicing by themselves (or repeating words) (28.6%, n=4).

More consensus was found with respect to learning by writing notes. This finding also appears consistent with McCarthy's (1987) observation that teachers tend to be literacy-oriented learners, and therefore, they may arguably be considered literacy-oriented in the classroom. However, perhaps the greatest diversity in results was found with respect to the use of memorization. Approximately half the teachers agreed (42.9%, n=6) that memorization was a strategy they use, but there were 5 "No answers" (35.7%, n=5).

These results may reflect the problematic place in contemporary second language acquisition theory of memorization, due to rejection of Grammar-Translation or

Audiolingual-style values), although this is speculation. In fact, the North American educational system as a whole as has tended to place less and less emphasis on memorization (except in the sciences) over the last twenty or so years (Ellis, 1989), so these results may also represent educational practices the teachers themselves had experienced. Practicing (or practicing by oneself) also showed differences between teachers, with 28.6% (n=4) considering it (personally) helpful, and 21.7% (n=3) not considering it (personally) helpful. The implications of these findings to achievement are not clear.

The apparent divergence with respect to preferences for specific strategies (such as listening and reading) is also interesting. These results seem to support the idiosyncratic nature of language strategy preference reported generally in the literature (Oxford, 1990). The findings of an approximately 50/50 split on auditory versus visual learners are also consistent with previous research (Ellis, 1989). In fact, one teacher, in response to the question "how do people learn," commented that she used an eclectic approach because "everybody learns different ways, so you need a wide scope, visual, etc. - the greater variety, the better." This quote also provides support for the influence of personal theories of learning (TBAK+) discussed previously on classroom practice, and arguably teacher attributions. This diversity perspective did not appear to be true, however, of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students [see discussion Section 3.1.1.3], who were found to show very similar oral/aural orientations as a group.

While these results could be interpreted as suggesting one group (teachers) was more representative of the general population than the other (students), or that the SILL (Oxford, 1990) is culturally biased, a simpler explanation appears to be a difference in interpretation of the relevant questionnaire items. As noted in Section 3.1.1.3, the cognitive/learning style items appeared on both pre-course and post-course student questionnaires. The responses and change observed appeared consistent with interpretations of the items as specific to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program itself, rather than strategies that the students used in general.

By comparison, the learning style/strategies items appeared on the teacher

questionnaire only on the pre-course questionnaire as part of TBAK+ ("teacher style"). As such, it appears that the teachers, many of whom had indicated in interviews that they were aware of the learner style research, interpreted the items as pertaining to learning in general (as the researcher had intended). This position is supported by the earlier quote ("everybody learns different ways, so you need a wide scope, visual, etc. - the greater variety, the better") as well. In addition, the fact that the teachers were not generally involved in language learning themselves at that time perhaps predisposed them to answer generally, although no evidence exists to support this position. Therefore, one methodological implication of this study appears to be the fact that the interpretation of learning style items may be situationally dependent. Another implication is that these results must be viewed with some scepticism until further research is done.

Thus, in general, while divergence was seen on some strategy choices, literacy-based strategies seemed to be more favored by the majority of teachers. However, unlike the apparent homogeneity among students, no clear teacher "type" was evident. This difference may arise from different interpretations of the questions between students and teachers. Importantly, a large majority of teachers saw themselves as successful or good language learners. This finding raises the question of how these perspectives may influence teacher compatibility with student styles and strategies. Unfortunately, due to the relatively small number of teachers, it was not possible to investigate these findings further. Further research is therefore required before cognitive/learning style is incorporated into the BAK+ and/or the LPPC model. Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

4.1.1.3 Theories of language acquisition - Teacher BAK

The theoretical perspectives concerning second language acquisition and pedagogy held by teachers are considered important influences in their teaching styles and choice of methods (Woods, 1996). In fact, these issues are central to Woods' (1996) original development of the term "BAK" [see discussion, Section 1.4.6]. In this section, the role of theoretical perspectives in the development of "teacher style" (one component of TBAK+) will be discussed.

Results

Theoretical perspectives were assessed by responses to open-ended interview and/or questionnaire items concerning the teachers' favourite levels and ages of students to teach, and the "most important influences on language acquisition."

Table #41   **Important influences on language acquisition**

Influences on language acquisition	# of teachers	Valid %
Social interaction	4	28.6
Environment	6	42.9
Techniques	5	35.7
Student motivation	4	28.6
Student attitude	4	28.6
Teacher ability/attitude	2	14.3
Programme	1	7.1
Host family or residential situation	1	7.1
Real life situations	1	7.1
Being surrounded by native speakers	1	7.1

The most frequently cited influences on language acquisition seem to suggest a consensus concerning the importance of extracurricular and intra-student factors in language acquisition. These findings are relevant to the influence of temporal and participant factors proposed in the LPPC model [see discussion, Section 1.7]. Environment, which could refer to the classroom and/or outside as a situational factor, was the most frequently cited factor (42.9%, n=6), with social interaction (28.6%, n=4), student motivation (28.6%, n=4), and student attitude (28.6%, n=4) also chosen. The latter two factors, motivation and attitude, may be considered student internal factors (and/or participant factors). Extracurricular factors (or situational factors) suggested included host families or residential situations (7.1%, n=1), "real life situations" (although this could also refer to classroom activities) (7.1%, n=1), and "being surrounded by native speakers" (7.1%, n=1). Teacher-controlled or influenced factors cited included techniques (42.9%, n=6) (situational factors) and teacher ability/attitude (14.3%, n=2) (participant factor).

Discussion

These findings appear consistent with Oxford's (1998) and Dörnyei's (1998) work on demotivation [see discussion, Section 1.4.2.1]. Oxford (1998) suggests that student motivation (and demotivation) was related to four themes: (i) teacher relationships to students, (ii) teacher attitudes, (iii) teacher style and style conflicts, and (iv) classroom

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activities. From this perspective, for example, "teacher ability/attitude" which was mentioned by two teachers appears to relate to Theme (ii), and arguably Theme (iii). Classroom activities, or Theme (iv), are implicitly identified in "social interaction" (which the teacher could arrange or facilitate), and "environment" (which could refer to the classroom). The influences of "programme" and "techniques" appear to be directly related to Theme (iv) "classroom activities."

In their responses to interview questions concerning their theoretical perspectives on language learning ("Describe your ideal class," "What do you think is most important for successful language learning"), Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers' comments tended to emphasize the points noted above. For example, a number of teachers identified the need for language use or communicative situations (or situational factors):

> Example 1: [Learning occurs] when students are put in a situation where they acquire it, where they functionally have to use it

> Example 2: [Students] have to be able to use it...practice and interaction in everyday life

> Example 3: The point of language is communication

> Example 4: [The ideal classroom] is an environment where students can relax, are comfortable to speak, interactive

> Example 5: Learning by doing, interacting with native speakers.

> Example 6: The immersion approach [is better], not the scholarly [one]

Another commonly cited factor in interviews was motivation (or participant factors) which research by Gardner (1985) and others have also shown to influence language learning [see discussion, Section 1.2]. Some comments include:

> Example 7: [The key is] student motivation - if you want to learn, you will.

> Example 8: [Learning] is a mix of in-classroom and mixing with native speakers. [It's] motivation, all connected to motivation.

Thus, a belief (or TBAK+) in the benefits of high degrees of student motivation, the relative superiority of the second language or immersion environment, and the need to emphasize language use for communication appeared to be central to the theoretical

perspectives of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers, and it therefore would be considered part of their "TBAK+s". As noted earlier, these concepts are also consistent with current research in the field and with the goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute program itself. Therefore, it is difficult to clarify whether these comments represent what the teachers' actually believed, or whether they represent what they believed they should say (or do).

Based on these theoretical perspectives, it would be expect that, to the extent that individual teachers actualize their TBAK+s, the teachers would attempt to create environments conducive to learning (in their opinions) by motivating students (participant factors) and creating opportunities for students to use language and/or practice with native speakers (i.e., situational factors).

4.1.1.4 Preferences in ESL teaching level and age group

The theoretical perspectives concerning second language acquisition and pedagogy held by teachers are considered important influences in their teaching styles and choice of methods (Woods, 1996). In fact, these issues are central to Woods' (1996) original development of the term "BAK" [see discussion, Section 1.4.6]. In this section, the role of personal pedagogical preferences in the development of "teacher style" (one component of TBAK+) will be discussed.

Results

Personal preferences among Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers with respect to favourite ESL level and age group to teach included Beginner (42.9%, n=6), Intermediate (64.3%, n=9), Advanced (14.3%, n=2), English for Specific Purposes (7.1%, n=1) and All age groups (7.1%, n=1).[57] In addition, the majority of teachers indicated a preference for teaching adults in university and/or adult education (71.4%, n=10) or young adult ESL learners in high school (21.4%, n=3).

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[57] Some individuals chose more than one category.

Discussion

By comparison, with Voth's (1993) findings, a number of similarities and differences were found. For example, with respect to ages taught and preferred levels, Voth (1993) found that the majority of ESL teachers worked with adults (61%), at College/University (33%), or Grades 9-12 (18%), while 16% worked with Grades 7-8, and 18% in K-6. The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers indicated preferences for teaching adults and young adults as well. Preferred age groups included high school (23.1%, n=3), university (38.5%, n=5) and adult education (38.5%, n=5). No teachers indicated a preference for teaching elementary school-aged students, although one teacher (7.7%) chose "no preference." Proficiency levels taught by teachers in Voth's survey included Beginner (62%), Low intermediate (63%), Intermediate (55%), High Intermediate (58%), and Advanced (48%). By preference, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher population favoured Beginner (46.2%, n=6) and Intermediate (69.2%, n=9) levels over Advanced (15.4%, n=2), English for specific purposes (7.7%, n=1) or All levels (7.7%, n=1).

On average, therefore, Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers appeared to show preferences for teaching student populations and levels such as those in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. In other words, they preferred to teach college students at the high beginner or low intermediate levels of ESL proficiency. These findings would, thus, seem to suggest that a good "class fit" with respect to level and age of students would be found.

However, it should also be noted that a preferred level or age does not imply that the individual teacher would not or could not be successful with other groups, nor do these results clarify whether the teachers were providing answers uninfluenced by their perceptions of the researcher's opinion concerning their qualifications for the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (Woods, 1996). Given the diversity of responses on other items, however, the latter possibility appears remote.

4.1.1.5 Teacher self-assessment of personal teaching style

The theoretical perspectives concerning second language acquisition and pedagogy

held by teachers are considered important influences in their teaching styles and choice of methods (Woods, 1996). In fact, these issues are central to Woods' (1996) original development of the term "BAK" [see discussion, Section 1.4.6]. In this section, the role of teacher self-assessment of personal teaching style in the development of "teacher style" (one component of TBAK+) will be discussed.

Results

The teachers were instructed to choose one adjective that they felt best described their personality in the classroom. A number of teachers gave multiple replies. The most popular choice (53.8%, n=7) of adjective describing "my personality in the ESL classroom" was "eclectic." "Fun" was also chosen by 30.8% (n=4) of the teachers. Other adjectives chosen included "organized" (15.4%, n=2), "imaginative" (7.7%, n=1), "spontaneous" (7.7%, n=1), and "relaxed" (7.7%, n=1).

Discussion

That "fun" was chosen by 30.8% (n=4) of teachers was interpreted to reflect teachers' perceptions of course goals. While the choice of "eclectic" may reflect the teachers' personal perspectives, it should also be noted that this "theoretical perspective" had been frequently emphasized in the University of Victoria TESL diploma and degree programs (prior to the time of the study), and many of the teachers had been participants in these programs. Therefore, these results may be misleading with respect to actual classroom conduct. According to Woods (1996), asking teachers directly about their "theories of language" may result in an answer the subject thinks the researcher wishes to see (or hear), and/or reflect what the subject thinks s/he believes (current theory) rather than what s/he actually does. However, while these findings suggest self-report data may reflect current trends in theory, rather than actual use, as noted above, triangulation of teacher questionnaire and teacher interview data supports the questionnaire responses [see discussion, 4.2.3]. In other words, many teachers did appear to be rather "eclectic" in their approach. In their interviews, some teachers elaborated their "eclectic perspectives":

Example 1: [My teaching style] is eclectic - I always change a bit [due to factors like] the influence of class size.

Example 2: [My teaching style] is eclectic/humour/personal. [I have] academic objectives

to meet, [so I use] a real life focus and humour to make it applicable...I encourage students to go to look it up [in order to light a fire under them].

Example 3: [My teaching style] is eclectic - sometimes I'm a complete idiot, others, serious.

Other descriptors used in interviews included "spontaneous and energetic," "student-centered and relaxed," "varied," "organized, well-prepared," "fun," "prudent eclectism," "erratic/eclectic," and "lively."

It is interesting, and arguably beneficial to the success of the program, that the most popular responses had to do with "personality" variables and "fun" because the focus of short term programs tends to be on sociocultural development. Therefore, any construction of TBAK+ of this teacher population would include characteristics of "eclectic," and/or "fun."

4.1.1.6 Self-perception of teaching skill

Teachers' self-perceptions as ESL teachers were considered key aspects of their TBAK(+) as part of "teacher style" (self-confidence), and especially important with respect to the construction of "teacher achievement." In other words, it was hypothesized that if teachers considered themselves good ESL teachers in general on the pre-course questionnaire, they would consider themselves good ESL teachers with Japanese students on the post-course questionnaire if they felt they had been successful. In fact, the majority of teachers agreed with the statement "I consider myself a good ESL teacher" (78.6%, n=11), one teacher strongly agreed, and one teacher was neutral.

Discussion

These results suggest the majority of teachers felt confident in their teaching abilities at the beginning of the program, suggesting that if they encountered few problems during the course, they should show higher levels of teacher achievement.

4.1.1.7 Education and teacher training

Analysis of data on teacher education and training serves to develop a profile of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute based on level of education and number and type of teaching qualifications. These profiles also help to define "teacher style" when combined with gender, age, and cognitive/learning

style.

Results

Teacher questionnaire responses indicated that almost all of the teachers had at least a post-secondary education, and/or advanced teacher training. With respect to education, the majority of teachers had at least a Bachelors degree (71.4%, n=10), a Masters degree (14.3%, n=2), or an ESL diploma. One teacher also noted she was a member of the College of Radiographers. Teacher training qualifications included Bachelors of Education (14.3%, n=2), Bachelors of Arts (42.9%, n=6) , Master of Education (7.1%, n=1), Diploma (21.4%, n=3), and B.C. Teacher's Certificate (7.1%, n=1). Considerable variation was seen with respect to teacher training. It should also be noted that in some cases qualifications noted above belonged to single individuals, and there was some overlap between responses on education and teacher training.

Discussion

Responses concerning education and teacher training revealed a diversity of educational backgrounds, similar to those found by Voth (1993) and Hafernik et al. (1993), suggesting that this teacher population was similar to the larger population of language teachers (especially those in the BCTEAL organization). By levels of post-secondary training, Voth found that teachers' qualifications included: Bachelor of Arts (68.8%), Bachelor of Education (20%), Master of Arts (17%), Diplomas (11.9%), Certificates (21.5%), Master of Education (6.6%), and doctorate (6%). By comparison, within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher population was found to possess the following qualifications: Bachelor of Arts (76.9%, n=10), Bachelor of Education (15.4%, n=2), Master of Arts (15.4%, n=2), Master of Education (7.7%, n=1), ESL diploma (15.4%, n=2), and B.C. Teaching Certificate (7.1%, n=1).

Therefore, with respect to TBAK+, the teaching staff of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute appeared to be well-educated, with strong academic backgrounds appropriate for TESL instruction, with a generally similar distribution of qualifications as are found in the greater ESL teaching population. Although it is difficult to ascertain to what discipline the Bachelor of Arts cited above refer, interview data

suggests that many Bachelor degrees were in Linguistics, with a focus on TESL, from the University of Victoria. Similarly, in some cases such as "diploma" it was not possible to ascertain specifically to what these qualifications referred. For example, an individual may possess a Bachelors degree in a non-TESL subject, then later complete a post-baccalaureate ESL diploma. At least one individual also had a B.C. Teaching Certificate. As B.C. Teaching Certificates are not required for most TESL jobs, this general lack of B.C. Teaching Certificates is not unusual.

4.1.1.8 Teacher style: Summary

To summarize, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers were diverse with respect to age, income, educational background, teacher training, gender, and teacher training. As a group, the teachers were well-educated. They considered themselves to be good ESL teachers and good language learners. In terms of cognitive/learning style, the teachers appeared to show a slight bias towards "literacy-based" strategies, although there appeared to be an approximately 50/50 split with respect to auditory versus visual learners (these differences were not significant). In general, the teachers felt that learning languages was difficult, and that learning languages was different from learning other subjects.

The teachers also appeared to believe that environmental (or situational) factors had the strongest influence on language acquisition, which I would interpret to suggest they would tend to attribute success to classroom factors, as well as extracurricular influences. They also believed student motivation (a participant factor) was important, and many cited class activities they would use to motivate students. In their preferences for teaching levels and age, the majority of teachers appeared to prefer the age and level of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students, which would suggest an overall good "class fit" on these criteria. On average, the teachers described their own teaching styles as "eclectic" or "fun."

Although a rather heterogeneous or diverse group TBAK+ with respect to demographic background is described above, the teachers also appear to have similar situational perspectives, or "realistic" ideas, about student expectations and anticipated

student behaviour. However, areas of variation such as experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program, age, income, educational background, gender, and/or teacher training could influence student outcomes.

4.1.2 Teacher experience: Results and discussion

Analysis of data on teacher experience further elaborates the profile of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and it develops the variable of *Texperience* within the LPPC model. Teaching experience included experience in the ESL/EFL classroom and/or in the public school system, years of previous teaching experience, experience in teaching English to Japanese students, and previous experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute programs.

4.1.2.1 General experience

Analysis of data on teacher experience further elaborates the profile of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and it develops the variable of *Texperience* within the LPPC model. In this section, the role of general teaching experience in the development of "texperience" (one component of TBAK+) will be discussed.

Results

All teachers (100%, n=14) indicated previous ESL/EFL teaching experience. Other teaching experience cited included teaching French as a Second Language (FSL) (21.4%, n=3), Middle School (14.3%, n=2), and High School (7.1%, n=1).[58] The amount of teaching experience also varied considerably, ranging from one year or less (14.3%, n=2) to more than ten years (7.1%, n=1). The majority of teachers had from 2-5 years (35.7%, n=5) to 6-10 years (28.6%, n=4).

In addition, considerable variation was seen with respect to previous places of EFL or ESL employment, with some individuals citing a number of countries and/or institutions (as shown in Table #42 below). The institutions cited ranged from immigrant programs run by church groups to university or college programs, and the amount of information

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[58]Teachers did not indicate which courses they had taught at these levels.

provided varied by teacher (such as name of school, etc.).

Table #42 — Diversity of teaching experience

Institution	Location	# Teachers	Valid %
Camosun College	Victoria, Canada	5	35.7
University of Victoria	Victoria, Canada	1	7.1
Canada Pacific College	Victoria, Canada	3	21.4
Intercultural Association	Victoria, Canada	1	7.1
Saanich School District	Victoria, Canada	1	7.1
Glad Tidings Church	Victoria, Canada	1	7.1
GEOS	Vancouver, Canada	1	7.1
Morpho Club	Unspecified, Canada	1	7.1
ECNU	Shanghai, China	1	7.1
AMVIC English school	Japan	1	7.1
Secondary school	Zimbabwe	1	7.1
Secondary school	Hong Kong	1	7.1
Unspecified	Canada	4	28.6
Unspecified	Victoria, Canada	1	7.1
Unspecified	Japan	3	21.4
University	New Zealand	1	7.1
Unspecified	Finland	1	7.1
Unspecified	Sweden	1	7.1
Unspecified	Norway	1	7.1

In total, teachers in the program indicated ESL/EFL experience in approximately nineteen different centres and nine countries, including Canada, Japan, China, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Finland, Sweden, and Zimbabwe. Fewer than half of the teachers (35.7%, n=5) had taught for Camosun College before.

Discussion

The teachers as a group had considerable ESL and EFL experience with diverse populations, suggesting that inexperience should not be a factor which would differentiate student outcomes at the end of the program. However, differences in types of experience and/or amount of experience could influence TBAK+. According to Woods (1996), teachers' BAKs may change if they encounter "hotspots," or events which do not fit with their current BAK. It might, therefore, be predicted that teachers with less experience would be more likely to encounter "hotspots" than teachers with more experience.

In addition, at least two teachers had taught Japanese students in Japan[59], suggesting that they would have considerable familiarity with both the cultural and pedagogical expectations of the students, which might influence positive "class fit."

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[59] According to information provided in other settings, at least four or five of the teachers had worked in Japan.

4.1.2.2 Teaching experience: JESL and the COAELI

Analysis of data on teacher experience further elaborates the profile of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and it develops the variable of *Texperience* within the LPPC model. In this section, the role of JESL teaching experience and experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute in the development of "texperience" (one component of TBAK+) will be discussed.

Results

All teachers in the program had some previous experience teaching ESL to female Japanese students (although not necessarily college-age students). However, considerable variation was found with respect to the amount of previous experience in teaching ESL to Japanese students (JESL). Previous experience with teaching Japanese ESL students ranged from 2-5 programs or courses for 71.4% (n=10) of the teachers, to more than 10 programs or courses in the case of one teacher (7.1%).

By contrast, experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute (COAELI) showed considerable variation. For example, half of the teachers (50%, n=7) had never taught in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute program before, 14.3% (n=2) had taught in Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute program once, and 21.4% (n=3) had taught in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute in 6-10 programs.

Discussion

The implications of these findings to the construction of TBAK+ include previous JESL experience providing the teachers with some familiarity with the cultural and/or pedagogical expectations of the students (and therefore predicting better "class fit"). Previous experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute program was hypothesized to influence realistic situational and/or temporal expectations (e.g., what was possible, what was not), as well as providing familiarity with the specific gender, language and cultural expectations of the students (on average), and pedagogical issues such as materials, etc. Therefore, the fact that only half the teachers had previous experience with the program itself suggested that COAELI experience could be a significant inter-group

(or teacher) factor, because they would be unfamiliar with (and thus arguably more influenced by) situational constraints.

4.1.2.3 Teacher experience: Summary

To summarize, all of the teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute had previous ESL/EFL teaching experience, some with considerable additional experience in the school system. Teachers within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study ranged in experience from one year or less (15.4%, n=2) to more than ten years (7.7%, n=1), with an average of approximately 6.15 years of teaching experience. These findings suggest that the teachers would have generally realistic expectations of the students which could result in positive "class fit." These findings are also consistent with the results concerning teaching experience in Voth's (1993) study, which ranged from less than 1 month to 30 years, with a mean length of 8.625 years.

4.1.3 Teacher expectations: Results and discussion

Analysis of data on teacher expectations further develops the profile of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and it elaborates the variable of *Texpectations* within the LPPC model. *Teacher expectations (Texpectations)* were defined as an aggregate of teacher expectations concerning program goals (Tprog), classroom activities and techniques(Tclac), and class roles (Tclro). In this section, I will examine findings of attributes of teacher expectations.

4.1.3.1 Program goals

Analysis of data on teacher expectations further elaborates the profile of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and it develops the variable of *Texpectations* within the LPPC model. In this section, the role of teacher expectations concerning the program goals in the development of "texpectations" (one component of TBAK+) will be discussed.

Results and discussion

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers agreed or strongly agreed on pre-course questionnaires that the goals of the program were language development in general, and development in speaking and listening specifically. They also

believed that the goals included language practice, language practice in speaking, language practice in listening, developing awareness of Canada and Canadian culture, and students having fun. Most initial responses were quite positive (Agree or Strongly Agree).

It is clear that the majority of teachers considered the goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute to be language development in a general or generic sense, rather than development or practice of reading or writing. They agreed or strongly agreed that the goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute were language development in speaking skills (100%, n=13), listening skills (77%, n=10), reading skills (23.1%, n=3) and writing skills (15.4%, n=2). They also saw the goals as language practice in speaking skills (100%, n=13), listening skills (92.3%, n=12), reading skills (15.4%, n=2) and writing skills (15.4%, n=2). The teachers also believed that goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute included developing cultural awareness of Canada (100%, n=13) and Canadians (100%, n=13), and students having fun (100%, n=13).

Table #43   **General program goals**

Question/category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
I think the goals of this program are language development	3.20	0.76	Neutral
I think the goals of this program are language development in speaking	4.67	0.48	Agree
I think the goals of this program are language development in listening	3.92	0.65	Neutral
I think the goals of this program are language development in reading	2.58	0.74	Disagree
I think the goals of this program are language development in writing	2.36	0.88	Disagree
I think the goals of this program are language practice	4.33	0.33	Agree
I think the goals of this program are language practice in speaking	4.92	0.28	Agree
I think the goals of this program are language practice in listening	4.23	0.52	Agree
I think the goals of this program are language practice in reading	2.67	0.42	Disagree
I think the goals of this program are language practice in writing	2.55	0.57	Disagree
I think the goals of this program are developing awareness of Canada	4.31	0.48	Agree
I think the goals of this program are developing awareness of Canadian culture	4.46	0.52	Agree
I think the goals of this program are students having fun	4.62	0.51	Agree

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1

Based on these findings, it was anticipated that the teachers would choose to use techniques that would be consistent with these goals (and values), and they would feel some achievement or success if their goals were met. For example, it might be anticipated that the teachers would focus on oral skill development and/or development of interest in Canada and Canadian culture, not literacy skills development.

In their interviews, a number of teachers also clearly identified these goals,

providing triangulation with the questionnaire data. For example, the goal of "getting students talking" or using language (i.e., minimizing language use anxiety or increasing language comfort) is illustrated in Examples #1 and 2:

Example 1:
[This summer's focus is] just to get them speaking more, like the student who says nothing, if we can get anything out of them, that's super, and hopefully, the students that are willing to say something in the first place, we can get them to expand on what they're willing to say now - whatever level they're at -[take them] one step further.

Example 2:
To most Japanese, English is like Latin to us. You study it - and yeah, it comes in handy the odd time... a knowledge of Latin is great - but you'll never, ever, ever have to use it in a conversation. For most Japanese - that's the case for English [as] they study it in school.

The issue of language activation (or language practice) versus language acquisition discussed in Chapter 3 [Section 3.3.1.2] was also highlighted as a goal by a number of teachers. The specific references to activation (or practice) are identified in italics.

Example 3:
[The goals of the program are] getting the students feeling comfortable with speaking English, *activating the reservoir of English*, and discovering and demystifying Canada

Example 4:
I certainly know that students aren't going to learn English in three weeks. The best thing we can do is *give them an opportunity to practice the skills they've already spent 6 1/2 years studying in Japan in a practical situation...we're refreshing them. We've got three weeks to recap all the highlights of the last 6 years.* To hopefully push those buttons that they'll go "yeah, that's right", and then turn them loose with the CAs [cultural assistants], let them go downtown shopping and its a kind of dual purpose - they get their shopping thing done, but they have to do it in English. Its a cultural awareness thing - life in Canada. [We've got] 3 weeks to give them a taste of an English speaking environment and hopefully some practice - shopping, eating in restaurants, cashing travellers cheques - go out and try it for real.

In general, teachers also appear to have agreed or strongly agreed that the goals of the program were primarily sociocultural. Pre-course responses fell between agree (4) and strongly agree (5) with respect to the goals of the program being to help students learn about Canada and to meet Canadians, to challenge their beliefs, and to practice English. Teachers also agreed, albeit to a lesser extent, that the goals of the program were learning more English and learning about Canadian youth culture (e.g., acquisition).

Table #44   **Sociocultural Program Goals**

Question/category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
I believe the goals of this program are to help students to learn about Canada	4.15	0.38	Agree
I believe the goals of this program are to help students to learn about Canadians	4.23	0.44	Agree
I believe the goals of this program are to help students to learn more English	3.85	0.90	Neutral
I believe the goals of this program are to help students to practice their English	4.77	0.44	Agree
I believe the goals of this program are to help students to learn about Canadian youth culture	3.31	0.52	Neutral
I believe the goals of this program are to help students to meet Canadians	4.54	0.52	Agree
I believe the goals of this program are to help students to challenge their beliefs by new experiences	4.08	1.04	Agree

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1

Helping students to learn about Canada was clearly an anticipated goal. However, more diversity was found with respect to the goal of helping students learn more English. Responses ranged from one person disagreeing to the majority of teachers either agreeing or strongly agreeing (69.3%, n=9). These positive, but not strongly positive, results from the item concerning the goal of language learning can be contrasted with the responses regarding the goal of language practice. The latter was apparently more clearly seen as the goal of the program. Helping students meet Canadians was strongly seen as a goal of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program, with 50% (n=7) of teachers strongly agreeing with the statement. Similar results were seen with respect to the goals of challenging students beliefs, with the majority of teachers agreeing (69.3%, n=9).

Teacher interview comments further support this belief in the sociocultural goals of the program. For example, in Example #1, the teacher identifies improving attitudes towards travel, and arguably, target language populations. In Example #2, he refers to developing an insight into the target population - or at least the segment of the Canadian population of which he is a member.

> Example 1:
> I want to light some little fires...[so that maybe when someone talks about a holiday they've had the student will say] "I had that great holiday in Canada"...and maybe they tell their kids about it - or maybe they travel when they get older, or maybe there's some connection.
>
> Example 2:
> I view my job as "Here's a window". I represent a window into a particular stratum of society that I belong to. I'm a white married middle class individual, and a lot of Canada is made up of those sorts of people What do they like? How do I behave? What am I open to?... and my experience base - I came through the hippy thing and that...

These quotes also show how a belief in the sociocultural goals of the program (as part of TBAK+) may influence what a teacher does (such as class activities, roles, etc.).

The influence of the short-term study-abroad program format and the goals of the program with respect to attitudes towards language learning are illustrated in Example #3.

Example 3:
[It] gives the students an idea of what its like to go abroad. *They get a chance to see they can speak and understand English.* They have a really good group experience, they've done it learning English, so *they'll look favourably at English.*

In addition, the sociocultural goal of increasing motivation, especially with respect to future travel and/or continued in interest in studying English (or interest in foreign languages), is elaborated in Examples #4 and 5. Example #5 also includes some insight into techniques or specific class activities a teacher might use to obtain these goals (in italics).

Example 4:
I have had letters from students [who took part in the COAELI program], and they are in Japan... still taking English [three years later]. [For example], one student is now tutoring English to Junior High students and says "I want to be a high school English teacher and want to travel abroad". A couple of students also said "I'll be leaving for Australia soon" [for six months to a year]...[so] the three weeks in Victoria helped them to make the decision to move to Australia for a year. Great. *If [they] had never come here, [they] would never have had that taste [of travel].*

Example 5:
If they only travelled [e.g., not on an educational trip], they would travel with Japanese, get a Japanese perspective on Canada...but here - [they] get a window into real life [and it makes sure language is a focus]. They have a Canadian experience, and have incremental experiences - *and if they have to talk to Canadian kids and ask five questions... they have to do it.*

In all of these quotes, the teachers emphasize their focus on the sociocultural benefits of the short-term or study-abroad program. In addition, due to the temporal restrictions of a three-week program, most teachers appeared to anticipate more sociocultural development ("largely attitudinal") than linguistic change ("certain things I've said or taught come back") as illustrated in Example #6.

Example 6:
[Student achievement in a short term program] is *largely attitudinal*, and certain things I've said or taught come back.

Concerning the influence of the temporal factor on the expectations and format of

a short-term study-abroad program, in Example #7, one teacher identified a "teaching cycle" based on the events and activities which would occur at the beginning, middle, and end of a program. He also notes that these events are "compacted" in a short term program:

Example 7: In a three week program, somewhere between beginning and end of Week Two [is when you begin to see significant progress]. *In the first week, even the best students aren't going to get what I say all the time. By Week Three, 80-90% better be grasping most of what I say.* So somewhere in Week Two...[because] *in the first week, you have to give them the initial culture shock thing, the jet lag thing, just getting accustomed to their surroundings. By the third week, they've got an idea of what's going on, things are coming a little more naturally.* In a three week program, somewhere *in that second week people start clicking.* I'm sure that in a six month program... teachers would say, somewhere in the second or third month. I mean still in the second week [the students] would obviously know more than they did in the first week and be a little more accustomed to their surroundings, the classroom and be picking up more than they did the previous week, by the third week, should have more...But in a three week program, *the second week is where things start to click.* By the *third week,* everyone is getting quite comfortable with each other, and then *you start winding down towards Friday. In the second week, you're actually doing things in class. You've done the introductions and greetings. The second week is where you get the meat,* then in the third week, its time for games. We're doing all these games in Week One, and all these games in Week Three.

The expected influence of the program format on specific pedagogical concerns from the perspectives of all of the teachers will be further discussed below [Section 4.1.3.3], however, Examples #3, 5, and 7 all identify the influence of the temporal constraints of a short-term program (by teachers with previous experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute), suggesting that this "teaching cycle" may be critical knowledge which could influence teacher attributions concerning personal and/or program achievement. In other words, teachers who were aware of the constraints under which teachers in short term programs operate would be more likely to attribute limitations on pedagogical goals to external factors (such as jet lag, culture shock, etc., limiting what can be accomplished in the first week, and "winding down" influencing what can be done in the third week), than internal factors (e.g., "I wasn't able to get the students to stay awake in the first week"). This cycle could also be of importance in investigating linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change in the student population as a function of changes in teacher class room practices within this "three-week teaching cycle." Both of

these issues are beyond the scope of this study.

4.1.3.2 Teacher perceptions of student expectations

Analysis of data on teacher expectations further elaborates the profile of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and it develops the variable of *Texpectations* within the LPPC model. In this section, the role of teacher perceptions of student expectations concerning the program goals will be discussed.

Results and discussion

The majority of teachers appeared to have expected that the students would be "integratively" motivated (e.g., interested in meeting people, making friends, having fun, etc.). For example, teacher responses to pre-course interview questions concerning students' expectations in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute emphasized such student motivations or expectations as "fun" or "have a good time" (53.9%, n=7), "vacation" or "holiday" (23.1%, n=3), "meet/talk to native speakers" (28.6%, n=4), "see new culture" (7.1%, n=1), "no homework" (7.1%, n=1), "shopping" (7.1%, n=1), "exploring" (7.1%, n=1), and "a fun 3-week camp" (7.1%, n=1). In addition, the more 'pedagogically'-oriented teacher suggestions often overlapped with the "communicative" or "fun" perspectives (above). Communicative perspectives included "improve speaking and/or English" (35.2%, n=5), and "get an idea of what it's like to study in Canada (freer, less pressure)" (7.1%, n=1).

In fact, one teacher (BH) commented that the goals of the program were "principally...cultural [in other words to] visit Victoria...[So having the language] school...[provides the]...justification for coming and having fun."

Other teacher pre-course comments concerning student expectations included:

Example 1: [Their expectations include a] trip to Canada, Cowichan sweaters, Tom Cruise, Jon BonJovi...[having] fun. It's a trip, check it out...[and] go further than [what they have seen on] T.V. [Also to] improve their English, [and for some to]...to converse with native speakers.

Example 2: [They expect a] fun three-week camp.

Example 3: [They expect] grades, fun, holiday, recreation.

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Example 4: [They expect] comfort, [a] nice holiday.

It therefore appears that there was a clear difference in expectations between students and teachers with respect to the students' motivations for taking part in the program. In other words, while the students thought they were coming to Canada to go to school, the teachers believed the students primarily expected a fun vacation. Although one teacher also noted "(They expect that their) English will improve dramatically," suggesting that this teacher (at least) anticipated students being unhappy about their linguistic achievement at the end of the course.

These differences in expectations may be expected to influence possible linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change with respect to direction of change. In other words, when comparing student and teacher pre-course and post-course results, students' and teachers' expectations could converge (or become more similar) or diverge (become more different). "No influence" would probably result in little or no change. Unidirectional change (students-> teachers, or teachers-> students) could occur if one group were to accommodate to the other.

Theoretically, areas in which clear differences existed initially should show some degree of convergence on the post-course if accommodation occurred, unless due to different BAK+ (TBAK+ versus CBAK+) the two groups perceived very different experiences (i.e., different attributions) (based on Hypothesis #6).

4.1.3.3 Pedagogical emphasis, activities, and techniques

Analysis of data on teacher expectations further elaborates the profile of the teaching staff of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and it develops the variable of *Texpectations* within the LPPC model. In this section, the role of teacher expectations concerning the pedagogical emphasis, activities and techniques in the development of "texpectations" (one component of TBAK+) will be discussed.

Results and discussion

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers either agreed or strongly agreed that they would emphasize fluency (69.2%, n=9), accuracy (53.9%, n=7), student participation (100%, n=13), pronunciation (77%, n=10), spelling (15.4%, n=2),

grammar (28.6%, n=4), reading (15.4%, n=2), writing (23.1%, n=3), communicative

competence (100%, n=13) and survival skills (100%, n=13). In general, teachers in the

Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute expected to emphasize "communicative

skills" such as fluency, accuracy, student participation, pronunciation, and survival skills.

They did not appear to expect to emphasize "literacy skills" such as spelling, grammar,

reading, or writing.

Table #45   **Pedagogical emphasis**

Question/category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
In this program, I will emphasize fluency	3.85	0.69	Neutral
In this program, I will emphasize accuracy	3.23	0.91	Neutral
In this program, I will emphasize student participation	4.77	0.44	Agree
In this program, I will emphasize pronunciation	4.08	0.76	Agree
In this program, I will emphasize spelling	2.46	0.89	Disagree
In this program, I will emphasize grammar	2.85	0.79	Disagree
In this program, I will emphasize reading	2.54	0.75	Disagree
In this program, I will emphasize writing	2.62	0.84	Disagree
In this program, I will emphasize communicative competence	4.07	0.44	Agree
In this program, I will emphasize survival skills	4.69	0.48	Agree

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1

Emphasis on communicative competence (an ESL buzz-word of the 80's and 90's)

was only featured on the pre-course questionnaire. It was anticipated that most teachers

would agree with this emphasis based on their training and familiarity with discipline

specific buzzwords (Woods, 1996). These emphases were also consistent with the

program goals. The overall responses clearly show a strong belief in the intention to

emphasize these communicative skills, with 64.3% (n=9) strongly agreeing with the focus.

The extent to which the use of the term "communicative skills" can be attributable to

"buzz words" or personal belief is not clear (and it is not possible to clarify this issue

within this study).

How the goals and emphases relate to class activities, and the possible contrast

between anticipated, or typical teaching activities used, ("in general, I use...") is illustrated

in Table #46.

Table #46   **Teaching activities**

Question/category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
I use group work	3.69	0.48	Neutral
I use individual production	3.39	0.78	Neutral
I use teacher controlled activities	3.46	0.52	Neutral
I use student centered activities	3.78	0.44	Neutral
I use co-operative activities	3.31	0.52	Neutral
I use competitive activities	3.08	0.64	Neutral

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1

With respect to anticipated class activities, all means fell between neutral (3) and

agreed (4) on pre-course questionnaires suggesting that if the responses had been worded

in terms of frequency (Always to never), the favourite answer would be "sometimes"

(however, this interpretation can not be confirmed). Based on individual response data,

however, some diversity was seen. For example, two individuals strongly agreed that they

generally used "Individual Production." The majority of teachers also agreed that they

used both teacher-controlled activities and student-centered activities.

Use of specific teaching techniques was examined with respect to expected

frequency of use, rather than degree of agreement. This difference provides data which is a

little less ambiguous to interpretation. On average, teachers expected to use music, games,

pair work, group work and interviews sometimes, often or always. These techniques

appear to be consistent with both their expectations of the program goals, their theoretical

perspectives (of "eclecticism"), and their anticipated pedagogical emphases.

Table #47   **Teaching Techniques**

Question/category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
In this program, I expect to use music	3.00	0.62	Sometimes
In this program, I expect to use games	3.69	0.48	Sometimes
In this program, I expect to use drills	2.69	0.95	Rarely
In this program, I expect to use dictation	2.23	0.83	Rarely
In this program, I expect to use pair work	4.00	0.58	Often
In this program, I expect to use group work	3.54	0.72	Sometimes
In this program, I expect to use writing activities	2.54	0.87	Rarely
In this program, I expect to use reading activities	2.46	0.89	Rarely
In this program, I expect to use tests	1.62	0.77	Never
In this program, I expect to use homework	1.92	0.79	Never

Always=5, Often=4, Sometimes=3, Rarely=2, Never=1

Therefore, pedagogical emphases, activities and techniques all demonstrate a

communicative or oral skills focus, suggesting that the attributes of TBAK+ discussed

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previously may be considered belief, not simply "buzz word." In other words, the teachers not only believed in the communicative goals of the program, but they also intended to use technique and/or activities consistent with this perspective.

4.1.3.4 Successful COAELI student characteristics

Questions concerning perceptions and/or expectations of "good student" characteristics were designed to elicit teacher expectations of positive classroom behaviour and also underlying theories of learning styles and strategies appropriate to a short-term intensive language program or the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. These traits were also investigated on the student questionnaire to examine whether differences (culturally influenced or otherwise - Hypothesis #10) between student and teacher expectations existed, and whether any such change occurred in the form of convergence where teachers and students changed to meet the other (and if so which group shifted to meet whom in the balancing of the learning equation) [also see discussion, Section 5.1.7].

Results

In general, teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute believed a successful student was one who volunteers answers, speaks frequently, is enthusiastic, and who co-operates with other students.

Table #48   **Successful COAELI student characteristics**

Question/category	Mean	Standard Deviation	Results
I believe a successful student will be one who volunteers answers	4.33	0.78	Agree
I believe a successful student will be one who speaks frequently	4.09	0.70	Neutral
I believe a successful student will be one who is enthusiastic	4.46	0.67	Agree
I believe a successful student will be one who is polite	2.91	0.90	Disagree
I believe a successful student will be one who sits quietly	2.50	0.67	Disagree
I believe a successful student will be one who co-operates with other students	4.15	0.56	Agree
I believe a successful student will be one who consults with other students before answering	2.69	0.48	Disagree
I believe a successful student will be one who competes with other students	2.92	0.64	Disagree

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1

Characteristics considered less important included politeness, sitting quietly, and consulting with other students before answering.

Discussion

In keeping with the Western educational tradition of the brightest students shining their own light (standing out), volunteering answers and enthusiasm were seen as positive traits. Speaking frequently was also a trait with which the majority of teachers either agreed (46.2%, n=6) or strongly agreed (23.1%, n=3). Students who co-operate with other students were also considered to be successful students. Teachers agreed or strongly agreed with the importance of cooperation. Politeness appears to have been a somewhat divisive trait, with 21.4% (n=3) of teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing with its importance and an equal number disagreeing. However, the majority of teachers were neutral with respect to this trait. Finally, with respect to the characteristic "competes with other students," only 14.3% (n=2) agreed.

Therefore, some culturally-based expectations concerning student behaviour appear to have been identified. These expectations include the lesser importance placed on politeness and cooperation by the teachers than by the students [Section 3.1.4], and the greater emphasis on oral production. The teachers' expectations appear consistent with their TBAK+s of language practice and use.

4.1.3.5 Teacher expectations: Summary

To summarize, Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers believed the program goals to be primarily language practice and sociocultural development such as learning about Canada and Canadians, not development of reading and writing skills. In keeping with these perceived goals, and their earlier self-description(s) as "eclectic," the also teachers expected to use a mix of communicative language activities such as pair work, group work, games, music, and student-centred activities. In addition, they expected to emphasize communicative competence, survival skills, and student participation. Perhaps as part of the emphasis on communicative competence, survival skills and/or language practice, the teachers also intended to emphasize pronunciation (to facilitate communication).

Finally, the characteristics they believed a successful student should have appeared to develop the oral focus described previously. They included volunteering answers, being

enthusiastic, and cooperating with others.

4.1.4 Constructing TBAK+: Summary
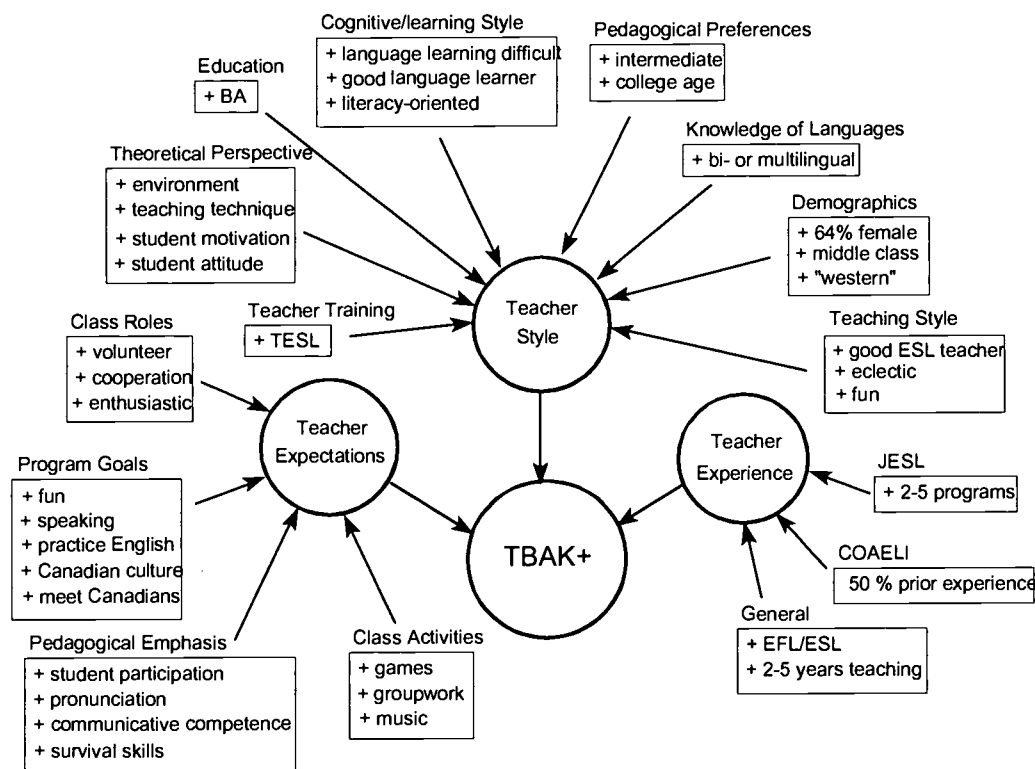
Figure 6   COAELI Teacher Pre-course TBAK+

As summarized in Figure 6, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers were diverse with respect to demographic features such as age, income, educational background, gender, and teacher training, suggesting that it would difficult to construct a single "TBAK+" for the group. However, this diversity also presented the possibility that such differences might be found to influence post-course class differences.

While all teachers had previous teaching experience with female Japanese ESL students, considerable variation was seen with respect to overall teaching experience, as well as experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute program specifically. Therefore, it appeared that while many of these teachers would have some

"realistic" idea of student expectations and anticipated student behaviour, familiarity with the program itself could be significant. In other words, post-course differences in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change might be attributed, in part, to factors not common to the overall population, such as experience with this program particularly, or age, income, educational background, gender, teacher training, and teacher experience.

Less diversity was found with respect to course specific factors. Teacher pedagogical expectations included the belief that the program goals were primarily language practice and sociocultural development such as learning about Canada and Canadians. The teachers therefore expected to use a mix of communicative language activities such as pair work, group work, games, music, and student-centred activities, and they expected to emphasize communicative competence, survival skills, student participation, and pronunciation. Finally, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers believed a successful student would be one who volunteered answers, was enthusiastic, and cooperated with others. Some of these values appeared to be culturally-based, suggesting the potential for "cultural mismatches," or problems with "class fit."

4.2 Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change

In this section, I will examine evidence of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute with respect to the teacher population. This evidence will linked to concepts within the LPPC model. First, I will discuss evidence of perceived linguistic change. I will then examine evidence of perceptual and pedagogical change. Due to the fact that little statistically significant change was found, although certain patterns appeared to be identifiable in the data, change will generally be discussed in terms of (non-significant) trends and tendencies which appear to have been identified.

4.2.1 Perceived linguistic change: Results and discussion

The term *perceived linguistic change* in this analysis refers to post-course questionnaire and interview responses by teachers concerning perceptions of linguistic change. In the context of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, perceived (positive) change was hypothesized to be one of the most salient factors in the

construction of both student and teacher achievement, due to the lack of language tests, etc. The importance of perceptions (or attributions) to an individual's perception of achievement was discussed in Section 1.4.8. as part of teacher achievement.

Results

When asked to name areas in which students had shown the most progress, a wide range of language areas was elicited. The main areas of progress included listening comprehension by four teachers (28.6%), self-confidence by three teachers (21.4%), and confidence in speaking by six teachers (42.9%). Other areas of progress cited by individual teachers included broadened horizons, improved writing skills, willingness to participate in or try new activities, risk-taking, relaxation, understanding new culture, loss of inhibitions when speaking to strangers, communication skills, better structure and vocabulary, enjoyment in learning new language, and initiating conversations.

Table #49 — Areas of Student progress

Students progressed the most in these areas	# of teachers	%
Listening comprehension	4	28.6
Self-confidence	3	21.4
Confidence in speaking English	6	42.9
Broadened horizons	1	7.1
Writing skills improved	1	7.1
Willingness to participate in or try new activities	1	7.1
Risk-taking	1	7.1
Relaxation	1	7.1
Understanding new culture	1	7.1
Loss of inhibitions when speaking to strangers	1	7.1
Communication skills	1	7.1
Better structure and vocabulary	1	7.1
Enjoyment in learning new language	1	7.1
Initiating conversations	1	7.1

Listening comprehension, self-confidence, and confidence in speaking were the areas of student progress most often cited by teachers.

Discussion

These findings are important as at least six of the areas cited relate directly to positive linguistic change from the perspective of both comprehension and production, and therefore they provide triangulation with the findings supporting linguistic change discussed in Chapter 3 [Section 3.2.1.2], which include the students' perceptions of positive linguistic change and the areas of positive fluency increases measured in the student interview data. In addition, listening comprehension, self-confidence, and confidence in speaking have been cited as showing improvement in study-abroad programs

with respect to "global fluency" (Freed, 1995b & 1995c; Lennon, 1990). Therefore, these results provide support for Hypotheses #1, 2, 3 and 8. They also indicate areas in which short-term study-abroad programs can be beneficial to student participants.

Confidence in speaking was the most frequently cited area of improvement (42.9% of teachers, n=9). This finding is important because the stated program goals and the teacher-perceived goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute were practice of spoken language and/or developing language comfort, based on both student and teacher questionnaire responses. These findings therefore suggest that teachers, on average, should have felt achievement in reaching their program goals with respect to individual and/or group perspectives. In other words, the program was a success and positive linguistic change was perceived to have occurred.

4.2.2 Perceptual Change: Results and discussion

Change in the teachers' self-perceptions as ESL teachers as a function of perceived degree of success in the program was analyzed based on the following questionnaire items: "I consider myself a good ESL teacher," which appeared on the pre-course questionnaire, and "I consider myself a good ESL teacher with Japanese students," which appeared on the post-course questionnaire. Although these items referred to slightly different, but related issues, results suggest that these differences did not influence teachers' responses because the majority of teachers considered themselves both good ESL teachers (85.7%, n=12) and good ESL teachers with Japanese ESL students (100%, n=14).

A slight, non-significant, positive change (stronger agreement) was observed. More teachers appeared to more strongly agree with the JESL post-course statement (71.4%, n=10) than on the general ESL statement. This result suggests that (on average) the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute was a positive experience for teachers, and that the teachers felt a relatively high level of achievement. In addition, these results suggest that the combination of the "good JESL" item, together with program success [Section 4.3], appear to provide a testable measure of teacher achievement. The findings also indicate that the program was a success from the teachers' perspective, and that

perceptual change occurred with the teacher population as well as the student population.

4.2.3 Pedagogical Change: Results and discussion

Pedagogical change refers to changes in teaching perspectives or practices over the course of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute as measured on pre-course and post-course questionnaires. In this section, the areas of pedagogical change analyzed included linguistic program goals, linguistic development goals, teaching activities, teaching techniques, sociocultural program goals, and pedagogical emphasis. Results are reported as average or mean responses on questionnaire items, with pre-course means and post-course means reported together with direction of change, and statistical significance[60] (*p*) . Changes which were not statistically significant are indicated (n/s).

In this analysis, positive change will usually refer to changes in mean responses towards the most positively worded choice on positively worded items ("Strongly agree," "Very easy," "Always"), and negative change will refer to changes in mean responses towards the most negatively worded choice on positively worded items ("Strongly disagree," "Very difficult," "Never"). For items described with reference to perceived frequency of occurrence, not personal preference (Always, often, sometimes...etc.), I will discuss any differences in terms of expected frequency.

4.2.3.1 Linguistic and sociocultural program goals

As noted previously (Section 4.2), it was a general finding that by contrast with the robust results of the student pre- and post-course questionnaires responses, little statistically significant change was detected in teacher pre- and post-course questionnaire responses. Discussion of results in this section will therefore be primarily limited to non-significant trends and tendencies. The small amount of statistically significant change may be due to a relatively small teacher subject population (by comparison with 384 students), or the results may be interpreted as providing evidence which affirms that the teachers' initial expectations or perceptions did not change over the course of the program. As will

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[60]Teacher questionnaire responses were analyzed using both parametric tests (t-tests) and non-parametric tests (Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test). With the exception of three items noted in the text, no differences were found.

be discussed later, the latter interpretation appears to be most strongly supported.

While little statistically significant change appeared with respect to expectations concerning linguistic development goals, a number of trends may have been identified.

Results and discussion

Non-significant positive change was seen with respect to language development in general, language development in listening, speaking, reading and writing, language practice in listening, reading and writing, and developing awareness of Canadian culture.

Table #50   **General program goals**

Question/category	Mean 1	Mean 2	Change	T-score	p
I think the goals of this program were language development	3.20	4.10	+	-1.37	n/s
I think the goals of this program were language development in speaking	4.67	4.42	-	1.39	n/s
I think the goals of this program were language development in listening	3.92	4.08	+	-.56	n/s
I think the goals of this program were language development in reading	2.58	2.92	+	-.84	n/s
I think the goals of this program were language development in writing	2.36	2.91	+	-1.24	n/s
I think the goals of this program were language practice	4.33	4.67	+	-.67	n/s
I think the goals of this program were language practice in speaking	4.92	4.54	-	2.74	.018
I think the goals of this program were language practice in listening	4.23	4.31	+	-.29	n/s
I think the goals of this program were language practice in reading	2.67	3.08	+	-.96	n/s
I think the goals of this program were language practice in writing	2.55	3.00	+	-1.10	n/s
I think the goals of this program were developing awareness of Canada	4.31	4.23	-	.43	n/s
I think the goals of this program were developing awareness of Canadian culture	4.46	4.54	+	-.56	n/s
I think the goals of this program were students having fun	4.62	4.54	-	.56	n/s

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1; (n/s) Non-significant
(+) positive change; (-) negative change; Note: Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire.

Non-significant negative change was seen with respect to language development in speaking, developing awareness of Canada, and students having fun. The only item which showed statistically significant (p<.05) negative change was language practice in speaking.

Based on these results, it is clear that the goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute were considered to be language development in a general or generic sense, with little change in this opinion being evident over the program. In other words, the lack of change was due to teachers' expectations being met, rather than subject population size.

Interestingly, fewer teachers strongly agreed that a goal of the program was "Language Development in Speaking" (46.2%, n=6) after the end of the program, than at the beginning (69.2%, n=9) A similar slight decrease was seen with respect to the goal of "Language Development in Listening." By contrast, virtually no change is evident

concerning the goal of "Language Development in Reading." This goal was not highly rated in the beginning, and it was not seen as a course priority at the end (which was consistent with the stated goals of the program).

A slightly different trend was detected with respect to the goal of "Language Development in Writing." While four teachers disagreed with this goal on the post-course questionnaire versus only one on the pre-course questionnaire, two strongly agreed on the post-course questionnaire, by contrast with none strongly agreeing on the pre-course questionnaire. These results would seem to suggest some diversity in classroom emphasis on writing activities or development of writing skills. This finding was supported by inter-class comparisons discussed in Section 4.6 concerning the influence of "Teacher factors" on linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change, and comments by individual teachers (e.g., one teacher had her students write daily dialogue journals). Of those responding to the question concerning "Language practice (general)," all teachers agreed or strongly agreed with the importance of this goal.

One of the few questions with a statistically significant change (p<.05) was a negative change on the question of whether the goals of the program were "Language Practice in Speaking." Responses changed from strongly agree (92.3%, n=12) on the pre-course questionnaire to agree (53.8%, n=6) on the post-course questionnaire. While it is difficult determine the exact cause of this change, interview data suggested that because of the course structure and class size, less oral communication was forthcoming or feasible than was originally assumed. There appears to be a similar, but non-significant, negative change with respect to "Language Practice in Listening." Although on both pre- and post-course questionnaires, teachers either agreed or strongly agreed with listening as a goal, the post-course questionnaire responses favored the weaker response.

Consistent with the course outline and syllabus, "Developing Awareness of Canada" was seen as a goal of the program with the majority of teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement. Little or no change was seen over the course of the program. However, a slight positive shift appeared to occur on a related question. Slightly more teachers strongly agreed (61.5%, n=8) with the statement concerning developing

cultural awareness on the post-course questionnaire than on the pre-course questionnaire (42.6%, n= 6). This shift is not particularly surprising given the strong focus on cultural issues in the student workbooks and teachers' guide, as well as events such as Folkfest, at which students were exposed to food and dance by the many cultures represented at the event. Most of the teachers would not have known about this event at the beginning of the course. Similarly, at the time that teachers completed their pre-course questionnaires, not all of them may have had time to review this material. "Fun" was highly rated in both pre- and post-course questionnaire responses.

Therefore, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers agreed or strongly agreed on both pre- and post-course questionnaires that the goals of the program were language development, development in speaking and listening, language practice, language practice in speaking and listening, developing awareness of Canada and Canadian culture, and students having fun. In addition, as most initial responses were quite positive initially (Agree or Strongly Agree), there was little room for change (a ceiling effect) unless change was negative.

Finally, the teachers did not appear to consider the goals of the program to involve development or practice of reading or writing initially, although they became slightly more positive with respect to these goals by the post-course questionnaire. These findings, however, may be the result of a couple of teachers having used reading or writing activities a lot. With a small subject population, such differences may have a disproportionate influence. One teacher, as noted previously, had her students write dialogue journals every day.[61]

Thus, the results of this section indicate that in general the teachers' expectations were met in the program, and therefore, there was little pedagogical change found. In addition, most teachers would not have encountered "hotspots" which could cause a reconfiguration of their TBAK+.

In general, these findings also appear consistent with Voth (1993), and as such

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[61] Personal communication (P. Rubidge)

they appear to be comparable to the greater ESL teacher population (suggesting generalizability). Rating high priority language skills (as the focus of classroom teaching), Voth's subjects chose the following skills: teaching speaking (87%), teaching listening (82%), teaching reading (77%), teaching writing (76%), Communicative language teaching (67%), teaching grammar (57%), grouping students (56%), language and content (55%), cultural awareness (52%), evaluation (42%), establishing routines (39%), testing (32%), and curriculum design (42%). The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers showed similar results insofar as they agreed or strongly agreed that of the goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute were language development in speaking skills (100%, n=13), listening skills (77%, n=10), reading skills (23.1%, n=3) and writing skills (15.4%, n=2); as well as language practice in speaking skills (100%, n=13), listening skills (92.3%, n=12), reading skills (15.4%, n=2) and writing skills (15.4%, n=2). They also believed that goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute also included developing cultural awareness of Canada (100%, n=13) and Canadians (100%, n=13), and students having fun (100%, n=13).

With respect to sociocultural goals, in general, teachers appear to agree or strongly agree with the goals of the program as primarily sociocultural. Both pre-course and post-course questionnaire responses fell between agree (4) and strongly agree (5) with respect to the goals of the program being to help students learn about Canada and to meet Canadians, to challenge their beliefs, and to practice English. Teachers also agreed, albeit to a lesser extent on the post-course questionnaire, that the goals of the program were learning more English and learning about Canadian youth culture.

Table #51   **Sociocultural Program Goals**

Question/category	Mean 1	Mean 2	Change	T-score	p
I believe the goals of this program were to help students to learn about Canada	4.15	4.23	+	-.56	n/s
I believe the goals of this program were to help students to learn about Canadians	4.23	4.54	+	-2.31	.04
I believe the goals of this program were to help students to learn more English	3.85	3.85	n/c	.00	n/s
I believe the goals of this program were to help students to practice their English	4.77	4.62	-	1.00	n/s
I believe the goals of this program were to help students to learn about Canadian youth culture	3.31	3.54	+	-.76	n/s
I believe the goals of this program were to help students to meet Canadians	4.54	4.31	-	1.39	n/s
I believe the goals of this program were to help students to challenge their beliefs by new experiences	4.08	4.15	+	-.37	n/s

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1; (n/s) Non-significant
(+) positive change; (-) negative change; Note: Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire.

Statistically significant positive change (p<.05) was found with respect to one sociocultural goal only, that of helping students learn about Canadians. However, positive trends were seen with respect to the goals of the program being to help students learn about Canada, to learn about Canadian youth culture, and to challenge their beliefs. Slightly negative change was seen with respect to the goals of practicing English and meeting Canadians.

The item concerning learning about Canadian youth culture (which was found to change on the student questionnaires) showed a slight positive change from pre-course and post-course questionnaires, with one individual strongly agreeing on the post-course questionnaire, and slightly more choosing "Neutral" 53.8% (n=7). Helping students meet Canadians was strongly and consistently seen as a goal of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program, with 50% (n=7) of teachers strongly agreeing with the statement on both pre-course and post-course questionnaires. Similar results were seen with respect to the goals of challenging students beliefs, with slightly more agreeing or strongly agreeing on the post-course questionnaire (71.5%, n=10) than on the pre-course questionnaire (69.3%, n=9).

Therefore, helping students to learn about Canada was clearly both an anticipated goal and a realized one, although helping students learn about Canadians appeared to be more of a focus than had been expected. All teachers either agreed or strongly agreed initially that helping students learn about Canada was a goal of the program. The goal of helping students learn more English also showed little change, with approximately the

same distribution of answers, ranging from one person disagreeing on both pre-course and post-course questionnaires, to the majority of teachers either agreeing or strongly agreeing (69.3%, n=9) on the pre-course questionnaire, and 76.9% (n= 10) on the post-course questionnaire. These results can be contrasted with results from the item concerning the goal of language practice which show all teachers (100%, n=14) either agreeing or strongly agreeing with this goal. The latter was clearly seen as the goal of the program.

As noted previously, the extent to which teachers' expectations were met in the program was hypothesized to influence their perceptions of achievement. Given the apparent fulfilment of these expectations, it would appear that teachers' overall feelings of achievement would be high.

4.2.3.1.1 Linguistic and sociocultural program goals: Summary

In summary, it appears that teachers' expectations concerning both general and sociocultural course goals were in fact realized, with a few exceptions. These goals were language practice, oral and sociocultural focusses. These findings are relevant to the LPPC model, as they suggest that unlike the student expectations of the program, which appear to have been inaccurate initially in a number of cases, and hence they showed change [see Sections 3.2.2 and 3.2.3], the teachers' expectations were either appropriate and/or they were not influenced as much by student expectations, resulting in less pedagogical change than in the latter case.

These results suggest that change or accommodation occurred more from the student side of the learning equation (in response to Hypothesis #6). In addition, the fact that the teachers' expectations appeared to have been for the most part accurate suggests from a macro-level (whole group) and external (meeting program goals) perspective, the teachers should have felt success or achievement.

4.2.3.2 Pedagogical emphasis

It should be noted that it was a general finding that by contrast with the robust results of the student pre- and post-course questionnaires responses, little statistically significant change was detected in teacher pre- and post-course questionnaire responses, primarily due to the size of the subject population. Discussion of results in this section will

therefore be primarily limited to trends and tendencies. The small amount of statistically significant change may be due to a relatively small teacher subject population (by comparison with 384 students), or the results may be interpreted as providing evidence which affirms that the teachers' initial expectations or perceptions did not change over the course of the program. As will be discussed later, the latter interpretation appears to be most strongly supported.

Results

In general, teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute appear to have fulfilled their expectations concerning the emphasis on "communicative skills" such as fluency, accuracy, student participation, pronunciation, and survival skills. As anticipated, they also did not appear to emphasize "literacy skills" such as spelling, grammar, reading, or writing.

A negative trend was also seen with respect to emphasis on accuracy[62] with only 35.7 % (n=5) agreeing on the post-course questionnaire versus 50% (n=7) either agreeing (n=6) or strongly agreeing (n=1) on the pre-course questionnaire.

Table #52   **Pedagogical emphasis**

Question/category	Mean 1	Mean 2	Change	T-score	p
In this program, I emphasized fluency	3.85	3.31	-	2.5	0.03
In this program, I emphasized accuracy	3.23	3.15	-	.21	n/s
In this program, I emphasized student participation	4.77	4.54	-	1.15	n/s
In this program, I emphasized pronunciation	4.08	3.69	-	1.44	n/s
In this program, I emphasized spelling	2.46	2.54	+	-.22	n/s
In this program, I emphasized grammar	2.85	2.92	+	-.23	n/s
In this program, I emphasized reading	2.54	2.54	n/c	.00	n/s
In this program, I emphasized writing	2.62	2.77	+	-.49	n/s
In this program, I emphasized communicative competence	4.07	-	n/c	-	n/s
In this program, I emphasized survival skills	4.69	4.23	-	3.21	.008

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1; (n/s) Non-significant
(+) positive change; (-) negative change; Note: Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire.

As with the previously mentioned items, less emphasis appears to have been placed on student participation than had been originally expected (with fewer teachers strongly agreeing on the post-course questionnaire), although overall, the majority of teachers either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. By contrast, reading was an area

[62]This item was significant (z=-2.236, p<.05) using Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test.

which was neither an anticipated focus nor an actual one, with a majority of teachers being more clearly neutral (57%, n=8) or disagreeing (42.9%, n=6) on the post-course questionnaire than on the pre-course questionnaire. Emphasis on writing also showed a convergence to the neutral answer on the post-course questionnaire (less extreme responses).

Emphasis on communicative competence was only featured on the pre-course questionnaire. Although, this data would be less problematic if the item had appeared on both pre- and post-course questionnaires, the overall responses clearly demonstrated a strong belief in the intention to emphasize these communicative skills (however defined). It is also unfortunate that the above question was not included on the post-course questionnaire, as a somewhat similar question (emphasis on Survival Skills) showed a significant negative change (p<.01). Thus, the majority of teachers were positive on both pre- and post-course questionnaires. However, 64.3% (n=9) strongly agreed with the focus on the pre-course questionnaire, only 21.4% (n=3) chose that answer on the post-course questionnaire. As noted previously, statistically significant negative change (p>.01) was found with respect to emphasis on survival skills, indicating that the teachers emphasized these skills less than expected, although they still agreed with this emphasis (post-course mean=4.23).

Discussion

Interestingly, trends in the data appear to suggest that the emphasis on "communicative skills" such as fluency, accuracy, student participation, pronunciation, and survival skills was found to be less than expected, resulting in weaker agreement, or negative change, by the post-course questionnaire; whereas "literacy skills" such as spelling, grammar, reading, and writing were more strongly emphasized than expected, resulting in stronger agreement, or positive change, by the post-course questionnaire. A partial explanation for these findings may come from situational constraints identified by teachers in their interviews. The large class sizes (average: 26 students) appear to have limited the amount of talking or interacting which was considered manageable, and refocussed class activities on desk work.

The responses pertaining to pedagogical emphasis (anticipated and realized) are also of interest as they include a few of the statistically significant shifts on the teacher questionnaire, with an overall tendency towards less positive (not strongly agree) on the post-course questionnaire responses. For example, a significant ($p<.05$) negative change was seen with respect to emphasis on fluency. While 64.3% (n=9) of teachers believed they would emphasize fluency in the Language Institute, only 28.6% (n=4) agreed that they did in fact emphasize this skill. This result appears to correspond with the earlier results concerning use of individual production, which was less used than anticipated.

Therefore, while the teachers in general appeared to emphasize the areas and skills that they had anticipated, providing additional support for their success in the program, some pedagogical change was found to occur. Most changes that occurred appeared to be attributable to situational constraints or factors such as class size. According to the LPPC model, such external attributions should not have as negative impact as internal attributions would, nor should they influence TBAK+ via "hotspots." Changes caused by situational constraints would be "beyond (their) control" (or not their fault).

4.2.3.3 Teaching activities and teaching techniques

Contrasts between anticipated, or typical teaching activities and techniques ("in general, I use..."), and actual teaching activities and techniques used during the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute ("in this program, I used...") are discussed below. As expected, "eclecticism" appeared to be most evident in this area.

Results and discussion

Little change was seen in response to questions concerning typical language teaching activities and groupings. All means fell between neutral (3) and agreed (4) on both pre- and post-course questionnaires. Slightly positive change occurred with respect to use of group work, co-operative activities, and competitive activities, and slightly negative change occurred with respect to use of individual production, teacher controlled activities, and student-centered activities.

An area of apparent difference between activities generally used versus those used in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was found in the use of

individual production. While two individuals strongly agreed that they generally used "Individual Production," none of the teachers strongly agree that they used this technique in the program. In both cases, the majority of teachers choose "Neutral," which I have interpreted to indicate that they used this technique "sometimes."[63] As noted previously, a possible explanation for this difference may be the class sizes in the program (ave: n=26), a point noted by a number of the teachers (and students) in their interviews.

Table #53   **Teaching activities**

Question/Category	Mean 1	Mean 1	Change	T-score	p
I used group work	3.69	3.85	+	-1.00	n/s
I used individual production	3.39	3.23	-	0.49	n/s
I used teacher controlled activities	3.46	3.39	-	0.37	n/s
I used student centered activities	3.78	3.69	-	0.43	n/s
I used co-operative activities	3.31	3.62	+	-0.89	n/s
I used competitive activities	3.08	3.39	+	-1.48	n/s

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1; (n/s) Non-significant
(+) positive change; (-) negative change; Note: Pre- course (general use) and post-course (COAELI use) results - Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire.

As discussed previously concerning teacher experience in TBAK+ [Section 4.1.1.7], while all Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers had some experience with Japanese students, fewer than half had experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, in which class sizes were large, resources were few, and classrooms changed hourly. Many teachers may also not have had much experience teaching large classes in general.[64] In other words, using individual production would have taken too long. Such influences may have played a role in pedagogical change, although as situational factors, it is difficult to say whether they would influence perceptions of achievement.

A slight divergence appears with respect to manner of classroom management, with the majority of teachers agreeing less strongly that they used teacher controlled activities in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program than in general. One teacher strongly agreed that she used this focus in the Camosun Osaka

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[63]As noted previously, results on this section would have been less ambiguous if the scale had been one of frequency (Always - Never) rather than degree of agreement.

[64]Some anecdotal evidence supports this position.

Aoyama English Language Institute. These results may also reflect the situational factors identified earlier such as the influence of class size and/or experience with large classes.

By contrast with teacher-centered activities which many communicatively-oriented teachers have been taught to avoid or dislike (i.e., part of their BAK - focus on meeting needs), the majority of teachers strongly agreed that they used student-centered activities both generally, and specifically within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute.

Finally, it was interesting to discover that teachers more strongly agreed that they used co-operative activities in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program than they would generally. This change may also reflect class size and/or student cultural background (or situational or participant factors) although it was not possible to clarify these explanations with the data available. Teachers also reported using competitive activities more in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute than they would generally. With large classes, presumably all group activities (either competitive or co-operative) could figure prominently.

Table #54   **Teaching Techniques**

Question/Category	Mean 1	Mean 2	Change	T-score	p
In this program, I used music	3.00	3.31	+	-1.00	n/s
In this program, I used games	3.69	3.46	-	1.00	n/s
In this program, I used drills	2.69	2.15	-	1.62	n/s
In this program, I used dictation	2.23	1.92	-	.89	n/s
In this program, I used pair work	4.00	3.85	-	.69	n/s
In this program, I used group work	3.54	3.69	+	-.46	n/s
In this program, I used writing activities	2.54	2.77	+	-.71	n/s
In this program, I used reading activities	2.46	2.54	+	-.23	n/s
In this program, I used tests	1.62	1.31	-	1.30	n/s
In this program, I used homework	1.92	2.00	+	-.32	n/s
In this program, I used interviews	-	3.15	-	-	-

Always=5, Often=4, Sometimes=3, Rarely=2, Never=1; (n/s) Non-significant; (+) positive change; (-) negative change;
Note: Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire

Thus, in general, it appears that external or situational- administrative constraints may have influenced classroom activities. Similar influences may have influenced the use of teaching techniques. Although no statistically significant change occurred with respect to use of teaching techniques, teachers' expectations concerning use of specific teaching techniques appeared to have been generally fulfilled, which would again provide external measures (or evidence) of teacher achievement. For example, teachers used more

"communicative techniques" such as music, games, pair work, group work and interviews sometimes, often or always. They used drills, dictation, writing and reading activities, tests or homework less frequently. Positive change was seen with respect to use of music, group work and writing and reading activities and homework.

With respect to specific types of techniques, a slight divergence appears to have occurred with respect to the use of music. For example, two teachers indicated always using music on the post-course questionnaire, however, no teachers chose "always" on the pre-course questionnaire. In addition, on the post-course questionnaire, fewer teachers indicated that they used music "sometimes" (35.7%, n=5) by comparison to 53.8% of teachers (n= 7) on pre-course questionnaire. Only three teachers chose "rarely" on the post-course questionnaire.

Given the general lack of facilities and equipment available to instructors (tape recorders, etc. had to be provided by the individual instructor), this change could identify the musicians in the group.[65] However, as indicated by many teachers and student interviewees, all groups were exposed to use of music (i.e., more than expected by most teachers), as each class had to sing a song at the closing ceremonies. In fact, this particular event (a situational factor) was clearly a strong influence on the change observed in "music use" on the post-course questionnaires. Situational factors which were not identified to the researcher may also have had an influence, although such influences could obviously not be addressed here. As noted previously, a large part of their last week of classes was dedicated to preparing for the performance.[66] It might also therefore be expected that this issue would be one on which some COAELI experience effect might be found as teachers' with more "COAELI experience" may have anticipated this focus [see discussion, Section 4.6]. Differences can also be seen with respect to the use of games [Table #54]. Games appeared to have been used slightly less than anticipated (non-significant change).

A negative trend appears with respect to the use of drills. It is difficult to say why

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[65]However, "musician" was not among the "teacher factors" studied.

[66]The interviewer got a preview of a couple of the songs from student interviewees.

this occurred, as drills would seem a logical technique to use with large groups. A possible explanation lies in the "fun" aspect of the program, and perhaps the lack of "drillable" material in the curriculum. In addition, the teachers may not have considered drills to be "communicative language practice" for activation (e.g., they may consider drills for reinforcing acquisition of new information or skills). A negative trend was also seen with respect to another "traditional technique." Most teachers reported using dictations "rarely." These results could also reflect the (perceived) level of student language ability (e.g., students may not have been able to do dictations well), although there is no independent evidence to support this hypothesis. Interestingly, these results are similar to the student results [discussed in Section 5.1.7].

Virtually no change in the use of pair work was found. Pair work would arguably be a good, large group, communicative technique (Harmer, 1987). A large number of activities making use of pair work were also included in the program curriculum. Most teachers expected to use pair work often (64.3%, n=9), and they did (64.7%, n=9). They also used group work often, but not always, possibly because the groups were too big, or in keeping with their teaching style(s) of "eclectic."

As discussed previously, it appears that some teachers used writing activities more than expected ("sometimes" rather than "rarely"), but writing activities were not used much by the majority of teachers. Although, as noted previously, at least one teacher [P] used dialogue journals in her class. Reading activity use followed a similar pattern to that of writing. While tests were not expected to be used frequently, actual usage appears to have been even less than anticipated (perhaps because the material was not "testable" or marks were not required?). These findings also agree with student results concerning use of traditional techniques [see discussion, Section 3.2.3.2].

Finally, homework (in a traditional reading and writing sense) was used less often than anticipated, although initial expectations had been for limited usage. It should be noted that activities such as students interviewing native speakers outside of school, which could be construed as homework, did not generally appear to have been perceived in this light by teachers (although students may have felt otherwise).

Therefore, in this section, some non-significant pedagogical change with respect to some activities was identified. This change appeared to be indirectly attributable to situational factors such as class size and an end-of-program singing demonstration. The possible influence of this change on teacher achievement was not clear, although it is suggested that for some teachers class size may have been a "hotspot," causing a reconfiguration of their TBAK+ with respect to appropriate techniques and activities for larger groups.

4.2.3.3.1 Teaching activities and teaching techniques: Summary

In summary, teachers' expectations concerning activities and frequency of use of various techniques appear to have been generally close to the reality of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute, explaining in part the overall lack of significant change seen in this category. The change that did occur appears to have been attributable to external or situational/administrative constraints, and therefore it would probably not adversely effect teacher achievement (or be attributed to personal control). However, more change appeared to occur with respect to teaching techniques and/or activities (which are perhaps more testable concepts) than did with program goals, providing evidence that a central concept in "teacher factors" or "teacher style" may not be what a teacher thinks, but rather what s/he *does* (i.e., differences in behaviour rather than differences in theory).

4.2.3.4 Successful COAELI student characteristics (expectations of class roles)

Questions concerning perceptions and/or expectations of "good student" characteristics, or expectations of class roles, were designed to elicit teacher expectations of positive classroom behaviour as well as underlying theories of learning styles and strategies appropriate to a short-term intensive language program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. These traits were also investigated on the student questionnaire to examine whether differences (culturally influenced or otherwise) between student and teacher expectations existed, and whether any such change occurred in the form of convergence where each group changed to meet the other (and if so which group shifted to meet whom in the balancing of the learning equation) [see discussion in

Section 5.1].

Results

In general, teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute considered a successful student to be one who volunteered answers, spoke frequently, was enthusiastic, and who co-operated with other students. Less favoured characteristics included politeness, sitting quietly, consulting with other students before answering, and sleeping in class. However, an overall positive trend for change on virtually all characteristics suggests that appreciation for a diversity of characteristics and behaviours increased over the program, suggesting a change in BAK, perhaps triggered by a "hotspot" (Woods, 1996).

Table #55   **Successful COAELI student characteristics**

Question/Category	Mean #1	Mean #2	Change	T-score	p
I believe a successful JESL student was one who volunteers answers	4.00	4.00	n/c	.00	n/s
I believe a successful JESL student was one who speaks frequently	3.46	4.23	+	-1.96	n/s
I believe a successful JESL student was one who is enthusiastic	4.46	4.54	+	-.56	n/s
I believe a successful JESL student was one who is polite	2.69	2.92	+	-.82	n/s
I believe a successful JESL student was one who sits quietly	2.31	2.39	+	-.29	n/s
I believe a successful JESL student was one who co-operates with other students	4.15	4.00	-	1.00	n/s
I believe a successful JESL student was one who consults with other students before answering	2.69	2.84	+	-.69	.02
I believe a successful JESL student was one who competes with other students	2.92	3.42	+	-2.57	n/s
I believe a successful JESL student was one who sleeps in class	-	1.35	-	-	n/s

Strongly agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, Strongly disagree=1; (n/s) Non-significant
(+) positive change; (-) negative change; JESL = Japanese ESL student; Note: Items are worded as they appeared on the post-course questionnaire.

Statistically significant positive change (p<.05) was seen with respect to consulting with other students before answering, although even post-course responses were still slightly negative. A strong non-significant positive change was also seen with respect to speaking frequently, and students competing with other students (from disagree, mean=2.92 to neutral/agree, mean=3.42). Slight negative change was found with respect to students co-operating (from mean=4.15 to 4.00).

Discussion

In keeping with the Western educational tradition of the brightest students shining their own light (standing out), volunteering answers was seen as a generally positive trait, although it appears that slightly more teachers were neutral on the post-course

questionnaires than on the pre-course questionnaire. These results are perhaps explained by the findings in interviews which demonstrated that often the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute student class leaders were often the least likely suspects in their teachers' Western eyes because the values of leadership from the Japanese perspective emphasized working within the group, not standing out. In other words, "good students" were not necessarily the students who were the most vocal in the class (Wadden, 1993).

In keeping with this emphasis and assumption of the importance of oral participation, it is not perhaps surprising to see "sitting quietly" was not considered a successful student trait by the teachers (although this assumption was not shared by the students as noted in Section 3.2.3.3). Slightly more teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed on the post-course questionnaire. Co-operation with other students was also considered to be a successful student characteristic. However, it is not clear that the students and teachers both had the same definition of co-operation. Teachers agreed or strongly agreed with the importance of co-operation, although the majority chose the less strong of the two choices ("agreed" on post-course questionnaires), suggesting, perhaps, that while important, this was not considered a critical or crucial trait for success in the second language classroom.

As noted above, it would appear that consulting with other students and co-operating with other students are not equated in the minds of the majority of teachers. While the majority of teachers chose "Neutral" on both pre- and post-course questionnaires, the second most popular choices were in the negative end of the spectrum (with the exception of one "agree" on the post-course questionnaire). This result is interesting when contrasted with the student responses [see Section 3.2.3.3] and the known culturally-based tendency for Japanese students to reach consensus (consult each other) before answering questions in order to produce the correct answer. In other words, the answer, not answerer, is considered most important the important issue (Wadden, 1993). Thus, "co-operation" appears to have been a potential "hotspot." As discussed in Section 5.1.4, this item appeared to be an area of convergence between students and

teachers.

The importance of "politeness" was also found to be an area of diverse opinion, with 21.4% (n=3) of teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing with its importance, and an equal number disagreeing on both pre- and post-course questionnaires. However, the majority of teachers chose Neutral on both questionnaires with respect to this trait. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize the findings.

Statistically significant change[67] ($p<.05$) was also observed concerning the characteristic "competes with other students." A strong (non-significant) positive change was seen, with 35.7% (n=5) of teachers agreeing on the post-course questionnaire versus 14.3% (n=2) on the pre-course questionnaire. This result may reflect either an initial teacher preconception that Japanese students did not like to compete (which appears consistent with the previous item), and/or the realization by many teachers that techniques such as games, which are implicitly competitive, were very successful in getting students to communicate and participate in classroom activities, as noted in the interviews.

Not surprisingly, sleeping in class was not considered a good student characteristic. This item was included on the post-course questionnaire to examine teachers' attitudes towards an action which was know to have culturally different interpretations (attributions and/or values). Sleeping in class is generally considered extremely rude (or even personally offensive) in the Canadian context. According to Ames' (1983) framework, this difference could influence attributions (and therefore it could influence achievement in the LPPC model). For example, high value teachers tend to interpret student interest as validating the effort they put into developing the lesson (good preparation + student interest = success/achievement)(TBAK+). Therefore, such teachers would perceive students sleeping in class as indicating a lack of interest (in absence of a strong external explanation like illness), resulting in negative attributions either towards the student ("bad student"), or towards themselves ("I did not prepare well"). In other words, we would find good preparation together with student sleeping (lack of interest)

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[67]On Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test ($z=-2.12$, $p<.05$)

would result in low or negative success/achievement. Some teachers indicated such attributions in their interviews.

While not encouraged, sleeping in class is more socially condoned in Japan than in North American (i.e., it could be part of students' CBAK+). Lack of sleep is a chronic problem because of the pace of life. Everyone from children to executives tend to nod off on the subway, etc. Therefore, according to a number of Japanese informants, the perception in Japan is that as long as one is not imposing or bothering someone (not disturbing the class), this is not considered a particularly offensive activity.[68] Although this question concerning sleeping in class did not appear on the student questionnaire, as noted above, a number of people familiar with Japanese culture suggested this interpretation, and the students interviewed did not appear to consider this behaviour problematic. Finally, as noted earlier, because one reported side effect of culture shock is sleepiness, teacher sensitivity to this issue was also of concern.

4.2.3.4.1 Successful COAELI student characteristics: Summary

In summary, only minor variation was seen between pre- and post-course questionnaire responses concerning "successful COAELI student characteristics," with the exception of student competitiveness, although some non-significant pedagogical change was seen. In other words, traits which were seen as positive (volunteering answers, speaking frequently, and being enthusiastic) remained high, whereas traits seen as less essential (being polite, consulting with other students) remained neutral, and those traits seen as counter to good learning (sitting quietly, sleeping in class) remained low. Evidence was also found suggesting that cultural differences in interpretation of some behaviours may have occurred, specifically sleeping in class and consulting with other students. It was suggested that these differences might constitute "hotspots," although it was not possible to confirm this hypothesis.

4.2.4 Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change: Summary

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[68]However, falling asleep also appears to be a coping device for some students. One teacher, SM, said that when he asked his students what they did when they didn't understand something in class, he was told "go to sleep".

In this study, some evidence of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was found, although much of the change was not significant, suggesting that such change may be more salient in student populations than in teacher populations. It was suggested that this salience in the study may be due (i) to differences in populations size and/or (ii) teacher expectations being more "realistic" concerning the expected program format and/or outcomes. In general, more support was found for explanation (ii).

Confidence in speaking was the most frequently cited area of perceived linguistic improvement. This finding is important because the stated program goals and the perceived goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute were practice of spoken language and/or developing language comfort, based on both student and teacher questionnaire responses. These findings are also consistent with the research of Freed (1995c) identifying fluency as being one of the most salient linguistic changes in study-abroad programs. These results therefore also provide triangulation with the student findings concerning linguistic change. With respect to perceptual change, the majority of teachers considered themselves both good ESL teachers (85.7%, n=12), and good ESL teachers with Japanese ESL students (100%, n=14). These results suggest that the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute was a positive experience for the majority of teachers, and hence they arguably provide support for areas of progress and a quantitative measure of "teacher achievement" within the LPPC model.

Evidence of pedagogical change was also relatively sparse, suggesting that teachers' expectations concerning general and sociocultural course goals, and teaching activities and techniques were realized. Pedagogical change that did occur was found with respect to emphases and activities (probably due to situational constraints). These findings also support the need for separate teacher and student paths in the LPPC model, as they suggest that unlike the student expectations of the program, which in a number of cases appear to have been inaccurate initially and therefore they showed change, the teachers' expectations appear to have been either appropriate and/or they were not influenced as much by student expectations. Therefore, different amounts and types of change were

observed. For example, teachers' expectations concerning activities and frequency of use of various techniques appear to have been generally close to the reality of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute, with only minor changes. These findings may also be interpreted with respect to the relative power differences in the classroom. In other words, the teacher, unlike the students, has the power to direct class activities, arguably imposing their vision of the program to a considerable extent on the students.

Finally, only minor variation was seen between pre- and post-course questionnaire responses concerning "successful COAELI student characteristics," with the exception of student competitiveness. In other words, traits which were seen as positive (volunteering answers, speaking frequently, and being enthusiastic) remained high, whereas traits seen as less essential (being polite, consulting with other students) remained neutral, and those traits seen as counter to good learning (sitting quietly, sleeping in class) remained low. Some of these differences were attributed to cultural differences.

4.3 Program success and teacher achievement

"Teacher achievement" was defined in this dissertation as being composed of the *perceptual or internal* dimension and the *pedagogical or external* dimension. The *perceptual/internal* dimension encompassed what others have termed BAK (Woods, 1996), ideology (Olshtain, 1998), values (Omnaya & Kassabgy, 1998), beliefs and attributions (Ames, 1983). The internal dimension was where "input" became "interpretation." The *pedagogical/external* dimension included traditional measures (arguably, "objective" measures) of achievement such as specific evidence of learning by students (something taught is correctly used) or specific language change (pronunciation problems disappear after the teacher has focussed on it), and/or students performing well on a test or in a program (showing they have learnt something from the teacher).

In addition, "teacher achievement" was proposed to encompass both the *macro-level classroom perspective* (concerning the achievement of the class as a group) and the *micro-level perspective* (concerning the achievement of an individual student). These perspectives include (i) *perceived success or achievement of individual students* and/or (ii) *perceived success or achievement of the group*. A perception of a high level of

"teacher achievement" could theoretically result from either cumulative "class achievement" and/or "class fit" and/or it could result from a remarkable individual achievement ("lighting a fire"). In addition, at any given time, a "butterfly effect" may occur whereby a single event or experience (either positive or negative) could disproportionately influence an individual's perceptions of achievement. Further, although this variation could be experienced by any teacher at any given time, it was proposed that the weighting would be influenced by three main factors: (i) the individual teacher's BAK or values (TBAK+), (ii) "class fit," or the degree to which the teacher and student(s) styles were compatible (SBAK+s, CBAK+, and TBAK+), and (iii) situational constraints (administrative, or temporal).

The first factor, the individual teacher's TBAK+, was predicted to influence what behaviours or events the teacher would highly value, and therefore how they would define success of failure. The second factor, "class fit," proposed that the degree to which the teacher and student(s) shared the same goals, styles and strategy preferences (and arguably, gender, culture and language or knowledge of these differences) could influence the class atmosphere. Class atmosphere, if not adversely affected by situational constraints, would result in positive feelings and/or perception of achievement. Finally, the third factor, situational constraints, recognized that even if there were positive weightings on the first and second factors, the effects of administrative policies, physical plant arrangements, etc., could adversely or positively influence classroom atmosphere, and/or interpretations of the classroom situation.

4.3.1 Teacher achievement in the 1993 COAELI

In this section, I will review evidence concerning teacher achievement. Based on the definition of teacher achievement proposed in this dissertation, achievement is considered primarily a perceptual phenomenon. In other words, if the teacher perceives themselves to have been successful (as indicated either directly via teacher comments or indirectly via other measures), the researcher must be willing to accept these introspections and give them equivalent weight to external measures such as class results, etc.

Results and discussion

On the post-course questionnaires, teachers were asked to indicate whether they thought the program had been a success, to indicate or suggest areas of student progress, and to recommend areas for future development or change. The majority of teachers (85.7%, n=12) in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute either agreed (57.1%, n=8) or strongly agreed (28.6%, n=4) with the statement "I feel this program was successful in attaining its goals." Two teachers were neutral.

As noted previously, the majority of teachers also considered themselves both good ESL teachers (85.7%, n=12) and good ESL teachers with Japanese ESL students (100%, n=14). Combining these findings provides evidence that the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute was a positive experience for the majority of teachers, although the degree to which any individual teachers perceived themselves to be successful is difficult to determine within the context of the study. However, the results appear to support success on an external, macrolevel basis (as above).

Comments from teachers provide additional support for the success of the program and a high external measure of teacher achievement, as well as for the benefits of a short-term study-abroad language program for Japanese ESL students. For example, in Example #1, the temporal constraints of the program are cited in qualifying the success of the program (and thus externalizing any perceived failure), while the general benefits of short term programs are identified in the second quote:

> Example 1: [The course goals were met] to a certain extent - to the extent of the time frame.

> Example 2: [It] gives the students an idea of what it's like to go abroad. They get a chance to see they can speak and understand English. They have a really good group experience, they've done it learning English, so they'll look favourably at English.

Thus, in general, it appears that the teachers considered program to be a success in terms of attaining its goals within the situational and temporal constraints. Teacher perceptions of success were hypothesized to correlate positively with teacher achievement.

4.3.2 Teacher definitions of "teacher achievement"

The relative nature of "teacher achievement" was clarified by definitions offered by two former 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teachers who were interviewed in the summer of 1996[69] concerning teacher achievement. Both teachers defined teacher achievement based primarily on student reaction to teacher efforts, which would make them high value teachers according to Ames (1983). They also identified both internal and external measures of teacher achievement, occurring at the macro-level and/or micro-level. The significant areas of the quotations have been italicized.

> Example 1 [S]: *[Success is when you] teach something and they'll try it. Lo and behold, what you've taught, they've assimilated.* It's there. I have students who have learnt something with me! Their three weeks with me have, in fact, done something - taken them up a level or quarter - and this is now part of their language and they will not lose it. They'll have it forever. They will not lose it. And that excites me to no end - because again, we don't know which of these might become the one [to return].

In Example #1, S cites external measures of achievement when he states "Success is when you teach something and they'll try it. Lo and behold, what you've taught, they've assimilated." In Example #2, he refers to internal measures such as having prepared well, but not having made any difference with some students (those who are "drilling holes in the boat" or making trouble in class). He also refers to external measures such as "learned some cultural and/or linguistic things."

> Example 2 [S]:
> Had I not been here you wouldn't have learnt this and having been here, you are now aware of these things, and you have assimilated them and they have become part of what you know and/or are - and if I were not here you would not be there. *I feel discouraged when I prepare well [in FSL] and you can only minimally make a difference in certain*

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[69]Both teachers had participated in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. At the time of the interview, they were teaching students from the same school in the 1996 summer program.

students - by those drilling holes in the boat [sinking it]. [But] in the Japanese program, if I feel they've come up a level, *they've learned some cultural and/or linguistic things -* then I feel good.

According to Ames (1993), these comments would identify S as a high value teacher. It is also interesting that S identifies different pedagogical goals for different contexts, indirectly identifying the influence of situational factors on his approach.

In another quotation, G touches on virtually all of the dimensions noted above, although his response suggests that in a short-term program, he would be more likely to expect achievement from a more internal, and micro-level, source. He states that he would feel successful if a couple of students thank him at the end of a program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and/or if he felt he made a difference. The only linguistic area of change he would expect was in the area of pronunciation on words on which he had focussed.

The definition of achievement based on a few students thanking him is therefore this individual teacher's idiosyncratic "gold coin." Recognizing that G has had considerable experience with Japanese students, we must assume this measure to be a personally meaningful indicator of student enjoyment of his class. The fact that G also does not expect all of his students to thank him personally suggests that, contrary to popular belief concerning Japanese cultural behaviours, Japanese students would not feel obliged to thank their teacher(s) unless they really enjoyed the class.

Example 3 [G]:
*Part of it is a thank you...*it was amazing how when I collected the journals four or five days later, how much the students had written [e.g. 1/2 page] about this peach that I'd brought back [from the Okanagan]. *It made me feel really great that I had brought back these peaches.* For me, its the same sort of thing with the teaching- *it's part of the way I gauge success.* If at the end of the program, I can get from - I don't expect from everyone - two or three of the students in the class - if they will approach me, and either face-to-face, or in a letter or something give what appears to be a *sincere heartfelt thanks for what had been done in the classroom in the time that had been put in* - if they say - I really enjoyed your class, I had fun and I want to come back to Canada - great. [In a short term program], *I don't expect them to say " My English has improved ten times".* *If they can say, "I had a great time in Canada, you were part of it, and I want to come back" - for me that's success.* In three weeks, we've done our job of opening a few eyes and made them realize there's another part of the world out there, and there's other languages and other experiences to be had, and *if we light some fires and open some eyes....Three weeks isn't enough time to see success in specific linguistic areas* [except, specific pronunciations, for example Victoria].

Therefore, both of these teachers, who I would consider very successful teachers, appear to identify internal, external, micro-level and macrolevel factors in defining teacher achievement, providing support for the proposed definition. In addition, both of these teachers also provide examples that appear to highlight the "butterfly effect" proposed earlier (a small incident with an impact disproportionate to its size - Section 4.3). For example, G recounts his feelings of success when he discovered that a couple of students who had participated in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute had continued on in English, or travelled, after having had him as a teacher.

> Example 4 [G]:
> I have had letters from students [who took part in the program], and they are in Japan... still taking English [three years later]. [For example], one student ...is now tutoring English to Junior High students and says "I want to be a high school English teacher and want to travel abroad". A couple of students also said "I'll be leaving for Australia soon" [for six months to a year]...[so] *the three weeks in Victoria helped them to make the decision to move to Australia for a year.* Great. If [they] had never come here, [they] would never have had that taste [of travel].

In the last sentence, G also identifies a key benefit of short term study abroad programs, "If [they] had never come here, [they] would never have had that taste (of travel)."

S also identifies such a "butterfly effect" when he discusses his goal (or vocation) as a teacher to "light fires."

> Example 5 [S]:
> You [can't] tell which student is going to catch fire...[My students went to the Shakespeare festival]...There was one student who was very, very quiet in class and only communicated with hand gestures and monosyllables...who had her mouth open and watched wide-eyed at the whole presentation of Shakespeare, and was drinking this whole Shakespearean play in. *You could see something lit in this one.* We don't know. None of us know. That's why you teach the way you teach.

Therefore, for this teacher, "lighting a fire" would strongly influence his perceptions of teacher achievement (a "butterfly effect"), although this does not mean that not lighting a fire would necessarily mean failure. If the class in general met his goals, he would probably also feel successful. However, a strong feeling of individual achievement could influence individual perceptual change.

In conclusion, the interview data provided by two experienced ESL teachers

provides support for the four-part definition of teacher achievement proposed in this dissertation which includes both internal and external measures of teacher achievement, which may occur at the macro-level or micro-level, and/or via a "butterfly effect". Further research with a diversity of teachers would serve to further clarify these concepts. Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

4.4 Evidence for situational, temporal and participant factors in LPPC

As proposed in Chapter 1 [Section 1.7], the development of the model of Linguistic, Perceptual and Pedagogical Change (LPPC) in this dissertation had three main goals. The first goal involved the *identification of areas and types* of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term study-abroad program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. The second goal included the *identification of factors* involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change, and the third goal was the *identification of program outcomes* such as teacher achievement and student achievement.

The factors involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change were categorized into three types of factors: *participant factors, temporal factors, and situational factors*. The category of "participant factors" included "TBAK+", "SBAK+", and "CBAK+". The category of "temporal factors" included the amount of time involved in a particular program, how the time was used for curricular or extracurricular activities, and any influences the temporal parameters may have had on the behaviour or perceptions of program participants. "Situational factors" included degree of class fit (or degree of similarity or compatibility between TBAK+, SBAK+ and/or CBAK+), administrative or curricular constraints, and pedagogical interactions (such as use and reception of specific techniques, activities, etc). In this section, I will discuss some additional evidence concerning the identification of situational, temporal and participant factors in the teacher data. Participant factors in this context are considered to refer to "teacher factors."

4.4.1 Evidence for situational and temporal factors in LPPC

Evidence for the influence of situational and/or temporal factors can be found in teacher interview data (the relevant statements have been italicized). For example, a

number of teachers cited situational factors such as class size as influencing their style and class activities.

> Example 1: [My teaching style] is eclectic - I always change a bit [*due to factors like*] *the influence of class size.*

The influence of temporal factors are also cited, especially with respect to the analogy of a "window of opportunity," or an optimal time period for influencing change. For example, one teacher qualified his comments with respect to whether the goals of the program were reached, saying "(The course goals were met) to a certain extent - to the extent of the time frame. Three weeks isn't enough time to see success in specific linguistic areas." The temporal limitations are further clarified in Examples #2 and 3 below:

> Example 2: [The window of opportunity in a short term program] is the same as in any situation. I think its the same anywhere. It's that first impression - the impression the students have after the first week of classes [of] a good teacher or bad teacher. *In this [short] program, you have the first three days or something just to start to develop some kind of relationship* - like after the first day, the students still have no idea.

> Example 3: I certainly know that students aren't going to learn English in three weeks. The best thing we can do is give them an opportunity to practice the skills they've already spent 6 1/2 years studying in Japan in a practical situation...we're refreshing them. We've got three weeks to recap all the highlights of the last 6 years.

In addition, G specifically identifies a "temporal threshold" at Week Two, which also coincides with the period(s) identified for student linguistic change [Section 3.2.1.3.1], providing further support (through triangulation) for the existence of such "break through" periods in a short term program.

> Example 4: *In a three week program, somewhere between beginning and end of Week Two* [is when you *begin to see significant progress*]. In the first week, even the best students aren't going to get what I say all the time. By Week Three, 80-90% better be grasping most of what I say. *So somewhere in Week Two...*[because] in the first week, you have to give them the initial culture shock thing, the jet lag thing, just getting accustomed to their surroundings. By the third week, they've got an idea of what's going on, things are coming a little more naturally. *In a three week program, somewhere in that second week people start clicking.* I'm sure that in a six month program... teachers would say, somewhere in the second or third month. I mean still in the second week *[the students] would obviously know more than they did* in the first week and be a little more accustomed to their surroundings, the classroom and be picking up more than they did the previous week, by the third week, should have more...*But in a three week program, the second week is where things start to click.* By the third week, everyone is getting quite comfortable with each other, and then you start winding down towards Friday. *In the second week, you're actually doing things in class.* You've done the introductions and greetings. *The second week is where you get the meat,* then in the third week, its

time for games. We're doing all these games in Week One, and all these games in Week Three.

Thus, in this one quotation, G has identified three major events which I would argue are consistent with linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change as occurring in Week Two: (i) "beginning to see significant progress" (linguistic change), (ii) "people (starting to) click" (perceptual change and "class fit"), and (iii) "doing things in class" or "getting to the meat" (pedagogical change), as well as providing evidence for the influence of situational and/or temporal factors. He also explicitly identifies culture shock and jet lag as possible external participant factors influencing student behaviour or achievement in the classroom.

Therefore, the teacher interview data provides support and clarification for the definition of teacher achievement proposed for the LPPC model. It also provides support for some of the change found in the questionnaire data (e.g., use of games and music), as well as the influence of culture shock and jet lag, and temporal factors.

4.4.2 Evidence for teacher factors in linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change

In this section, I will examine evidence of the influence of teacher factors, based on teacher style, experience and/or expectations on linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change in student (or class) response. First, I will discuss the interaction of "teacher style" and "class fit," then I will examine evidence of the influence of "teacher factors" on student outcomes.

First, to review, within the LPPC model, it was hypothesized that *teacher style* (as defined in the study by teacher training, gender, age, and cognitive/learning style), together with *teacher experience* (overall classroom experience, experience with Japanese students, experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute), and *teacher expectations* (classroom roles and activities), would influence *classroom practice* (activities, techniques, etc.) within the context of a short-term intensive language program. *Teacher variables* would therefore interact during the program with *student variables* such as *student style* (motivation, attitude, cognitive/learning styles and demographic variations), *student linguistic expectations* (major, experience with English, number of

languages spoken, previous experience with Canada and/or Canadians), *student pedagogical expectations* (with respect to classroom roles and activities), and *student extracurricular contact*. These interactions would influence both *student achievement* (increased fluency, positive perceptions of Canada and Canadians, increased comfort in language use and comprehension, increased knowledge of Canada, desire to return to Canada) and *teacher achievement* (positive assessment of student(s) success, self-assessment as good teacher of Japanese students, positive assessment of the program, and "realistic" expectations of classroom roles and activities).

In the next sections, I will examine evidence of a number of these relationships.

4.4.2.1 Teacher style, variation and class fit

Teacher style (Tstyle), as part of TBAK+, was defined as an aggregate of training (Ttraining), gender (Tgender), cognitive learning style (Tcogl), knowledge of additional language(s) (Tlang) and views on language learning (Ttheories), and age (Tage). According to Woods (1996), teachers' BAKs do not normally change unless they encounter "hotspots" or events which do not fit with their current BAK. In teacher interviews, some teachers commented that they changed their teaching styles, while others did not ("On the whole, I kept my own style").

Results and discussion

Teachers who said that they frequently changed style, in many cases attributed this variability to their "eclecticism"[70] (or internal factors), although in Example #1, the teacher attributes her decision to change to external factors such as class size.

> Example 1: [My teaching style] is eclectic - *I always change a bit* [due to factors like] the influence of class size.

> Example 2: [My teaching style] is eclectic - sometimes I'm a complete idiot, others, serious.

In addition, in a number of cases, teachers cited "click" (or a good class fit) as a reason they did <u>not</u> have to modify their styles. A couple of teachers also

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[70]In such cases, it is difficult to separate "style" from "techniques" and "methods". Clarifying these distinctions are important future research (behaviour versus attitude).

explicitly tied teacher success to perceptions of class fit, a finding which is consistent with Oxford's (1998) suggestion concerning the importance of style matches in student motivation, as well as providing support for the importance of "class fit" in this dissertation.

> Example 3: It just happened that *their style and my style meshed,* because in other groups [there were] excellent teachers, but the *chemistry wasn't right.*

> Example 4: *The class and I were a really good fit,* personality-wise, and I *didn't seem to have to adjust my teaching style* too much.

The idea that class style (CBAK+) may have an impact on class fit, and therefore on teacher achievement is also specifically identified in a quote by S, who joked "W, her class has the reputation, they're the ruffians."

The influence of the students on the teacher, therefore, also appears to be an important part of the learning equation. In the case of CBAK+, there appears to be a mixture of situational and participant factors which may influence teacher achievement to the degree to which the teacher (and/or arguably the students) attribute outcomes to themselves or the group. For example, when S identifies W's group as "the ruffians," or in comments concerning "fit" or "chemistry," the teachers are implicitly attributing class outcomes to external factors such as the group (CBAK+), rather than personal internal attributions. Such external/macro-level attributions should not influence teacher achievement negatively since any "failure" would be seen to originate from an external locus.

Finally, the issue of accommodation is alluded to in the following comment by a teacher who apparently attributed initial class problems to student-based factors (external) such as their inappropriate expectations ("the students expected things to be a little different").

> Example 5: *The students expected things to be a little different* [e.g., didn't expect songs and games], but they didn't seem to mind. They always had their textbooks open - so they expected to do a lot of textbook work. *So, it was hard to get them to do things like a fashion show - but they got better.*

Interestingly, by the students accommodating to her perspective, in this teacher's perspective "they got better." This quotation therefore also provides support for the

argument previously made that the lack of change found on the teacher questionnaires may reflect to some extent the power dynamic in the classroom which gives the agenda-setting power to the teacher (or T->SS). It also suggests that for some teachers, achievement or success depends on the students accommodating to the teacher. Further research is needed to clarify the extent and/or influence of such a perspective. Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

4.4.2.2 Teacher factors in LPPC

A number of differences such as style, experience and expectations were identified in Section 4.1 as existing between individual teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program. Due to the general homogeneity of the student population, such differences in student responses on the post-course questionnaire (linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change) were believed to be influenced by teacher factors" (or differences). Teacher factors included teacher gender and training, as well as teaching experience in general (experience), with Japanese ESL students (JESL), and in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program (COAELI).

In order to examine overall influence (rather than individual differences), the influence of teacher factors on aggregate student variables was analyzed using an analysis of variance (repeat measures ANOVA). While a number of significant inter-group differences were found on individual questionnaire items, due to concerns regarding the probability of statistical error in examining so many items, aggregate variables only will be reported.

Results

Statistically significant differences were found on a number of variables. Table #56 identifies areas of teacher factor influence. Further statistical description (F-scores and df) will be presented in the discussion. Teacher gender was found to influence students' "interest in foreign language" (F=4.33, df=1, p<.05) and "cognitive/learning style" (F=12.11, df=1, p<.01). Teacher training influenced students' "self-assessment of proficiency" (F=5.52, df=2, p<.01), "cognitive/learning style" (F=6.05, df=2, p<.01), and "perceptions of class activities" (F=7.7, df=2, p<.01). General teaching experience was

found to influence students' "attitudes towards the target population" (F=4.78, df=2, p<.01), "language use anxiety" (F=3.66, df=2, p<.05), "student cultural expectations" (F=3.95, df=2, p<.05), and "perceptions of class activities" (F=4.51, df=3, p<.01).

Table #56   **Teacher Factors in LPPC**

Variable or category	Gender	Experience	Training	COAELI	JESL
Attitudes towards target group	n/s	p<.01	n/s	n/s	p<.01
Attitudes towards language learning	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.05	n/s
Attitudes towards learning situation	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.05
Interest in foreign languages	p<.05	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s
Language learning anxiety	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s
Language comfort	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s
Language use anxiety	n/s	p<.05	n/s	p<.05	n/s
Self-assessment of proficiency	n/s	n/s	p<.01	n/s	n/s
Return to Canada	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.05
Cognitive/learning style	p<.01	n/s	p<.01	p<.01	n/s
Perceptions of program	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.05
Perceptions of Canadians	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.05
Perceptions of language learning	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.05	n/s
Perceptions of class roles	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s
Perceptions of class activities	n/s	p<.01	p<.01	p<.05	p<.001
Student linguistic expectations	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s	n/s
Student cultural expectations	n/s	p<.05	n/s	n/s	p<.05
Student pedagogical expectations	n/s	n/s	n/s	p<.05	n/s

(n/s) = non-significant

Amount of previous experience with Japanese ESL student (JESL) influenced students' "attitudes towards target population" (F=7.21, df=1, p<.01), "attitudes towards learning situation" (F=5.02, df=1, p<.05), "student cultural expectations" (F=8.16, df=1, p<.01), students' desire to return to Canada (F=5.21, df=1, p<.05), "perceptions of the program" (F=4.78, df=1, p<.05), and "perceptions of class activities" (F=14.24, df=1, p<.001). Finally, teachers' experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program itself was found to influence students' "attitudes towards language learning" (F=2.97, df=2, p<.05), "language use anxiety" (F=2.96, df=2, p<.05), "student pedagogical expectations" (F=4.01, df=2, p<.05), "cognitive/learning style"(F=5.03, df=2, p<.01), "perceptions of language learning" (F=4.36, df=2, p<.05), and "perceptions of class activities" (F=4.21, df=2, p<.05). The teacher factors "age" and "income" were also examined[71], however the results are not reported here because external evidence strongly suggested this relationship to be spurious (i.e., the two teachers who taught the special

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[71]They showed significant influence on Cognitive learning/style (both), Perceptions of program and Perceptions of Class roles (age), and Perceptions of class activities (both).

"secretarial classes" were also the oldest teachers, with the highest family incomes; one of these teachers was also the Head Teacher).

Discussion

While it would be difficult to attempt to explain all of these identified influences (although some discussion will be provided below), a number of general observations will be made. First, these results identify specific teacher factors (TBAK+) as influencing student outcomes, including teacher style, teacher experience and teacher expectations, providing support for Hypotheses #4 and 7 (identifying teacher influences), and the inclusion of TBAK+ in the LPPC model. Second, the findings provide evidence of the influence of teacher factors on specific areas of linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change within the student population within a three-week study-abroad program providing support for Hypotheses #7, 9 and 10 (teacher influences with a cultural component). Third, the category(s) which appear to show the largest number of teacher factor influences were those which arguably related to classroom practice. For example, while "perceptions of class activities" (which had four identified influences including experience, training, COAELI, and JESL) were explicitly related to classroom practice, "cognitive/learning style" (which had three identified influences including gender, training and COAELI) was also believed to have been interpreted by the students as relating to specific classroom practices [see discussion, Section 3.2.3.4]. These findings therefore appear to provide independent evidence of "prudent eclecticism" among the teachers, although further research might be able to determine whether this eclecticism is actually as random as some of the teachers appeared to believe (in other words, factors such as experience and training may influence the types of choices made). In addition, these results demonstrate that teachers do different things with the same curriculum (Barkhuizen, 1998; Woods, 1996), and these behavioural differences are key to defining "teacher styles."

The influence of previous experience (general, JESL and/or COAELI) on classroom practice also appears to be significant. For example, as illustrated in Table #56, previous experience with Japanese ESL students influenced seven different variables significantly, including students' "attitudes towards target population" (p<.01), "attitudes

towards learning situation" (p<.05), "student cultural expectations" (p<.05), students' desire to return to Canada (p<.05), "perceptions of the program" (p<.05), "perceptions of class roles" (p<.05), and "perceptions of class activities" (p<.001). Experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute influenced six variables significantly including students' "attitudes towards language learning" (p<.05), "language use anxiety" (p<.05), "student pedagogical expectations" (p<.05), "cognitive/learning style"(p<.01), "perceptions of language learning" (p<.05), and "perceptions of class activities" (p<.05). In addition, general experience in teaching influenced four variables significantly, including students' "attitudes towards the target population" (p<.01), "language use anxiety" (p<.05), "student cultural expectations" (p<.05), and "perceptions of class activities" (p<.01). Thus, if we consider teaching experience as a whole, this factor was seen to have significantly influenced a total of thirteen variables (of eighteen studied). Therefore, a key influence in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute outcomes appears to have been teacher experience, although this data does not provide insight into what an "ideal mix" of experience would be in a short-term study- abroad program such as the one described in this study.

Finally, teacher gender, a "teacher style" factor, was also found to influence "interest in foreign language" (p<.05) and "cognitive/learning style" (p<.01). As noted above, both of these categories also could have been interpreted by students as "things we did in or outside of class." It is suggested that the gender findings here are therefore based on such differences in classroom practice, although there is not conclusive support for this interpretation. However, a number of the male teachers did comment on a possible "gender influence" in the classroom, or as one teacher put it (tongue-in-cheek) "any man will hit his peak when surrounded by 20-year old single females - it's biological and natural."

These findings require further research (which is beyond the scope of this study) due to the homogeneity of the student population among other issues. It would also be interesting to explore linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change in short term programs in which the following configurations were possible: female teacher/male

student(s), female teacher/female student(s), male teacher/male student(s) and male teacher/female student(s).

In conclusion, it should be noted that this analysis identified influences, it did not rank influences (ranking would require a different type of analysis). Therefore, it would be misleading to make substantive general statements such as "X number of years of experience is better than Y years." Further research with larger teacher populations is necessary. Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

4.5 Recommendations for program change: Results & discussion

Recommended changes to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute program and/or curriculum included updating textbooks or textbook content, getting new materials, modifying the curriculum and the "All about Canada" program, modifying activities and using more music. One teacher suggested that changes depend on the class.

In recommendations for changes to the program, the majority of comments focussed on perceived short-comings of the curriculum and course materials. Suggestions included updating textbooks or textbook content, getting new materials, and modifying the curriculum and the "All about Canada" program. Problems with the "All about Canada" program were the most frequently cited changes (57.1%, n= 8) in the questionnaire. Teachers felt this section was boring and/or too advanced for the majority of the students.

Table #57　　　　　　　**Recommendations for program change**

Recommendations for change	# of teachers	%
Update textbook	1	7.1
New materials	1	7.1
Curriculum	1	7.1
Depends on class	1	7.1
"All about Canada" program	3	21.4
Textbook content	2	14.3
Modify activities	1	7.1
More music	1	7.1
I would not change anything	0	0

These issues were also discussed in the teachers' interviews. This apparent focus on the specific section of the curriculum also suggests a possible explanation for the positive trend on the post-course questionnaires concerning Canadian culture. The one hour class in the afternoon, during which time teachers experienced the most difficulty

keeping their students awake, was also the period dedicated to the "All about Canada" workbook. Therefore, these problems appear attributable to the materials and/or the time of day (e.g., situational or temporal factors).

In summary, the teachers did appear to believe that the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was successful in meeting its goals, and they cited development in language confidence and comprehension as areas of most progress. Suggested areas of change for future programs centered on specific areas of the course materials - specifically the "All about Canada" materials.

4.6 Linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change and TBAK+: Summary

To summarize, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers were diverse with respect to demographic features such as age, income, educational background, gender, and teacher training, suggesting that it would difficult to construct a single "TBAK+" for the group. While all teachers had previous teaching experience with female Japanese ESL students, considerable variation was seen with respect to overall teaching experience as well as experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute program specifically. Post-course differences in student (or class) outcomes were attributed to factors not common to the overall population, such as experience with this program particularly, or age, income, educational background, gender, teacher training, and teacher experience. Evidence was found to support the influence of factors including gender, training and teaching experience (general, JESL and COAELI) on linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change in the student population.

Less diversity within the teacher population was found with respect to course specific factors. Teacher pedagogical expectations included the belief that the program goals were primarily language practice and sociocultural development such as learning about Canada and Canadians. The teachers therefore expected to use a mix of communicative language activities such as pair work, group work, games, music, and student-centred activities, and they expected to emphasize communicative competence, survival skills, student participation, and pronunciation. Post-course results supported this "eclecticism." In addition, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute teachers

initially believed a successful student would be one who volunteered answers, was enthusiastic, and co-operated with others. Minor changes with respect to the importance of these characteristics were found which were attributed in part to cross-cultural differences (e.g., cooperation, politeness).

Confidence in speaking and improvement in listening were the most frequently cited area of positive student linguistic change or improvement. These findings provided additional support for both positive linguistic change (fluency) occurring in a short term program, as well as the general success of the program meeting its goals, suggesting that teachers, on average, should have felt achievement in reaching their program goals from a individual or group perspective. The majority of teachers appeared to have considered themselves successful, suggesting that on average, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama Language Institute was a positive experience for the majority of teachers. This research also arguably provides support for the proposal that we can define a quantitative measure of "teacher achievement" within the LPPC model.

It also appeared that teachers' expectations concerning both general and sociocultural course goals were in fact realized. These findings are relevant to the LPPC model as they appeared to suggest differences between teachers and students. The student expectations of the program in a number of cases appear to have been inaccurate initially, and hence they showed change. The teachers' expectations were either appropriate and/or were not influenced as much by student expectations, and therefore they did not show as much change. Results therefore suggest that change or accommodation occurred more from the student side of the learning equation.

Finally, only minor variation was seen between pre- and post-course questionnaire responses concerning "successful COAELI student characteristics," with the exception of student competitiveness. In other words, traits which were seen as positive (volunteering answers, speaking frequently, and being enthusiastic) remained high, whereas traits seen as less essential (being polite, consulting with other students) remained neutral, and those traits seen as counter to good learning (sitting quietly, sleeping in class) remained low.

Therefore, in general, teachers appeared to believe the program met its goals, and

they appeared to consider it a success, although they made a number of recommendations concerning the curriculum and texts. Support for the four part definition of teacher achievement (including internal/external and macro/micro levels) was also found in the teacher interview data.

In conclusion, some evidence was found to support at least some aspects of the hypotheses proposed at the beginning of the chapter, although not all change was statistically significant. This lack of significant change was interpreted as indicating that teachers appeared to have been accurate concerning their initial expectations of the program, or did not change regardless of the situational constraints. These findings therefore suggested that linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change was more salient within the student population than in the teacher population.

A number of hypotheses were addressed in this chapter. For example, support was found for Hypothesis #1 as linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change was found to occur during the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. Less support was found for Hypothesis #2 as most of the linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change that was detected did not appear to be statistically significant. Some support was also found for Hypothesis #3 because perceptual/attitudinal change did occur in measures of self-perception as a teacher and program success. Some pedagogical change was found in Perceptions of Program, Perceptions of Classroom Roles, and Perceptions of Class Activities, however, these changes were primarily negative. Perceived positive linguistic change was also found with respect to language use anxiety, language comfort and language comprehension, and knowledge of Canada. Stronger support was found for Hypotheses #4 and 7 as teacher factors were found to have measurable and significant effects on the student outcomes, although could not be directly related to either teacher style or techniques. In addition, linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change did be greater in the (students') socio-psychological competences than in linguistic competence providing support for Hypothesis #8.

Little support was found for Hypothesis #9 as analysis suggested differences in how students and teachers interpreted items concerning individual differences in learning

strategies and/or styles. Finally, while some support for the influence of teacher gender and teacher pedagogical experience on student outcomes was found concerning Hypothesis #10, such evidence was not clearly related to culture-based factors.

Chapter Five: Interactions and the LPPC Model

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a comparison between teacher and student populations with respect to linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in the Camosun Osaka English Language Institute, followed by a description and explanation of the application of the LPPC model of second language acquisition to the results of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. The theoretical and pedagogical implications of this study will also be examined. Issues, recommendations and conclusions concerning the findings of the Camosun Osaka English Language Institute study will then be presented. The results and a general discussion of the findings will be presented, followed by a discussion of the findings relevant to the hypotheses outlined below. The chapter will be divided into two main sections: (i) Comparison of student and teacher differences in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change; and (ii) Implications and conclusions.

This chapter examines the differences in profiles of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute teacher and student subject populations, which are important: (i) to add to the data concerning ESL teachers and Japanese English as a Second Language students, (ii) to address the general lack of information on the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute 1993 populations, (iii) to develop a clear understanding of the degree to which the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute subject populations are representative of those populations in other short-term intensive study-abroad language programs, and (iv) to test hypotheses concerning differences in student/teacher expectations. The study hypotheses (p. 3) addressed in this chapter are summarized below in the specific form in which they were investigated:

> Hypothesis #5: Differences in teacher-student expectations will be measurable and significant in the following areas:
> (i) classroom behaviour
> (ii) classroom technique
> Hypothesis #6: The above changes in expectations will tend towards a convergence of student and teacher expectations (and/or a stronger movement of convergence from student to teacher than vice versa);
> Hypothesis #8: In general, perceived change within the program will be greater in the socio-psychological competencies (as defined below) than in linguistic competence (as per course/program goals);
> Hypothesis #9: Individual differences in learning strategies and/or styles

among students and/or teachers will correlate with differences in performance as outlined above.

The comparison of student and teacher findings also serves to develop the constructs hypothesized for the LPPC model of second language acquisition developed in Chapter 1. It was hypothesized that *teacher style* (as defined in the study by teacher training, gender, age, culture, income, theoretical perspective, and cognitive/learning style), together with *teacher experience* (overall classroom experience, experience with Japanese students, experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute), and *teacher expectations* (classroom roles and activities), would influence *classroom practice* (activities, techniques, etc.),which would interact with *student style* (motivation, attitude, cognitive/learning styles and demographic variations), *student linguistic expectations* (major, experience with English, number of languages spoken, previous experience with Canada and/or Canadians), *student pedagogical expectations* (classroom roles and activities) and *student extracurricular contact.* This interaction, also characterized as TBAK+ and SBAK+, would influence both *student achievement* (increased fluency, positive perceptions of Canada and Canadians, increased comfort in language use and comprehension, increased knowledge of Canada) and *teacher achievement* (positive assessment of student(s) success, self-assessment as good teacher of Japanese students, positive assessment of the program, "realistic" expectations of classroom roles and activities).

In this Chapter, the degree to which teacher and student expectations differed, and the implications for theoretical and pedagogical understanding of processes within a short-term study abroad-program, will be discussed. Results of the comparisons will be discussed in terms of trends in divergence (change in opposite directions) and convergence (change in similar directions). Overall implications of these findings to the LPPC model will also be discussed.

5.1 Students, teachers and the 1993 COAELI

In this section, a discussion of teacher/student differences in response to interview and/or questionnaire data will presented. A comparison of teacher and student

questionnaire results revealed both consensus and diversity of opinion on factors such as linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change. Differences were observed on a number items such as program goals, program emphasis, successful student characteristics and use of specific teaching techniques.

Note that due to the differences in sizes of the two populations (14 teachers, 384 students), meaningful statistical comparisons were difficult to obtain (due to assumptions of normality).[72] Therefore, the comparisons provided below are discussed in terms of trends. Further research which would provide similar size teacher and student populations is beyond the scope of this study.

5.1.1 Student and teacher BAKs: Results & discussion

The degree to which students and teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute shared similar expectations concerning the purpose of the program (or the degree to which TBAK+ = CBAK+) was analyzed by comparing student questionnaire and/or interview responses with data from teacher pre- and post-course interviews.

5.1.1.1 Motivation

The degree to which students and teachers in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute shared similar expectations concerning the purpose of the program (or the degree to which TBAK+ = CBAK+) was analyzed by comparing average student (mean) responses to three questionnaire items concerning integrative ("social") versus instrumental ("work-related") motivations, with data from teacher pre- and post-course interviews concerning their perceptions of the motivations/expectations of the students arriving for the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute.

Results

It is evident from the student responses [also, see discussion, Section 3.1.1] that the motivations of the students appeared slightly more instrumental than integrative. In other words, the students agreed that they had come to Canada "because I want to work in a job that requires English" (mean=1.211), and/or "as a course requirement"

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[72]Although some significant inter-class differences were found on individual items.

(mean=1.392); whereas, they were neutral or disagreed with the motivation of coming to Canada "for a vacation" (mean=2.689).

By contrast to the student responses, which clearly suggest that the majority of Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students did not see the program as simply a vacation, the majority of teachers appeared to have expected that the students would be more "integratively" motivated (interested in meeting people, making friends, having fun, etc.). For example, teacher responses to pre-course interview questions concerning students' expectations in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute emphasized such perceived student motivations or expectations as "fun" or "have a good time" (53.8%, n=7), "vacation" or "holiday" (23%, n=3), "meet/talk to native speakers" (30.8%, n=4), "see new culture" (7.7%, n=1), "no homework" (7.7%, n=1), "shopping" (7.7%, n=1), "exploring" (7.7%, n=1), and "a fun 3-week camp" (7.7%, n=1). In addition, the few more 'pedagogically' oriented teacher suggestions often overlapped with the "communicative" or "fun" perspectives above, including "improve speaking and/or English" (38.5%, n=5), and "get an idea of what its like to study in Canada (freer, less pressure)" (7.7%, n=1).

In fact, one teacher (BH) commented that the goals of the program were "principally...cultural (in other words, to) visit Victoria...(So having the language) school...(provides the)...justification for coming and having fun".

Other teacher pre-course comments concerning student expectations included:

Example 1: [Their expectations include a] trip to Canada, Cowichan sweaters, Tom Cruise, Jon BonJovi...[having] fun. It's a trip, check it out...[and] go further than [what they have seen on] TV. [Also to] improve their English, [and for some, to]...to converse with native speakers.

Example 2: [They expect a] fun three-week camp.

Example 3: [They expect that their] English will improve dramatically.

Example 4: [They expect] grades, fun, holiday, recreation.

Example 5: [They expect] comfort, [a] nice holiday.

It therefore appears that there was a clear difference in expectations between students and teachers with respect to the students' motivations for taking part in the

program. In other words, while the students thought they were coming to Canada to go to school, the teachers believed the students primarily expected a fun vacation.

Discussion

The impact of these differences can also be illustrated by the teachers' comments (below). Unlike the students, the teachers were asked about student expectations in both pre- and post-course interviews.[73] It appears that the majority of teachers found at least some differences between their expectations of the students' motivations or expectations, and the reality of their classes. A number of these differences appear to be either directly or indirectly attributable to cross-cultural differences in expectations of class activities.

> Example 6: *[The] students expected things to be a little different...[they] didn't expect songs and games...*but [they] didn't seem to mind. *[They] always had their textbooks open - so they expected to do a lot of textbook work...*[and therefore, it was] hard to get them to do things like a fashion show...but they got better.

> Example 7: [I] don't know if what the students got was what they expected from the program. [It] may be two different things: they may have expected to get more of the same [as in] Japan since most hadn't had foreign teachers...[And in fact] even those who'd had foreign teachers [ADTs - teaching assistants]...would not have had realistic experiences - since ADTs were on a very short leash...*I thought students believed they would get much more oral and more chances to communicate with Canadians on street..*but [in the end, they] all came away with positive feelings.

Differences in interpretation between teachers are also evident in these examples. For example, in Example #6, the teacher indicates she felt that the students were more literacy focussed (reading and writing) than she had anticipated, whereas in Examples #7, 8, 9 and 10, teachers comment on what they considered to be "unrealistic" student expectations concerning language learning and/or language improvement.[74]

> Example 8: [They did have a] holiday, and language acquisition...[but perhaps] *their expectations were too high?* I think *they all expected to improve...*[but] some did, some didn't.

> Example 9: *They had higher expectations...[they thought that their] English will improve dramatically...[and they]...realized this was not the case.* Some were surprised

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[73]Students were not asked about their motivations/expectations on the post-course questionnaire because initial motivations was the phenomenon of interest.

[74]Not an unusual finding - many teachers commented anecdotally that students expectations usually exceeded "realistic goals" with respect to speed of acquisition.

they had trouble understanding casual English.

Example 10: The goals were met...[The students] were in Canada and heard English "as she is spoke." *[This] made them realize how bad their English really was.*

The extent to which "unrealistic expectations" were perceived as such by the students is not clear, although some pedagogical change on student questionnaires would appear to support this perspective [see discussion Section 3.2.3]. It is also interesting that Examples #8 and 9 appear to provide additional support for the finding of considerable individual variation in student achievement (Freed, 1995c; Lennon, 1990) [also see discussion, Section 3.2.1.4].

The influence of the perception of "unrealistic" student expectations on teacher achievement is also unclear. However, based on the context of many of the teacher comments, and their earlier expectations concerning their focus on language practice rather than language acquisition, it is proposed that limited language change was expected by the teachers due to temporal constraints. This interpretation receives support from Example #11, in which the teacher indicates that most of the students received the oral practice that they had expected. Example #12 suggests that the sociocultural goals were met.

Example 11: They did get it [oral practice] in the social activities [such as] Phys.Ed... *75% will go back with the feeling they had learnt and used language.*

Example 12: The students had a good time.

Therefore, it appears that while teachers and students generally held differing underlying perceptions of initial student motivations (SBAK+) in the program, these differences did not appear to have strongly influenced what the teachers did in the classroom (i.e., did not result in teacher-based pedagogical change). Rather, based on teacher comments, it appears that the teachers assumed that the students expectations were unrealistic, and therefore, they would (or should) change to fit the teacher(s)' vision of the classroom reality (or accommodation).

5.1.1.2 Learning style and strategies

It appears that student/teacher differences[75] in preferred learning strategies generally parallel the results on perceived language learning difficulty, although as discussed previously [Section 4.1.1.1], these results may also have arisen from different interpretations of the items; therefore, caution must be taken in extrapolating results. In addition, this discussion is limited to examination of trends, rather than statistical comparisons due to the difference in student and teacher population sizes.

Results & discussion

The comparison of student and teacher results uncovered some divergence and some convergence, providing support for Hypotheses #5 and 6. For example, with respect to the statement "I learn best by reading," the students agreed (pre-course) and weakly agreed (post-course); whereas the teachers appeared "negatively neutral" (i.e., responses were closer to disagree than agree). Auditory learning, or responses to "I learn best by listening," revealed some differences between teachers and students, with the students agreeing or strongly agreeing, and the teachers predominately chose neutral. As noted above, these differences may be attributable to the teachers interpreting the question as a "trait" (or a relatively stable characteristic); whereas the students applied a "state" interpretation (situation specific) (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994)[76], although the findings are not inconsistent with McCarthy's (1987) findings which suggested that more teachers were 'Type 2's on average than the students in a normal class [see discussion, Section 1.3.4]. In addition, there appeared to be more obvious individual differences between teachers then were detectable between students. These findings may also relate to the size differences of the populations, different interpretations of the questions, and/or the general homogeneity of the student populations.

While these results do not provide strong support for the teachers being described as "literacy oriented," teacher responses to "I learn best by writing out notes" do appear to

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[75]Based on comparisons of closest aggregate mean responses.

[76]Gardner and Tremblay (1994) discuss the difference between trait (static) and state (dynamic) motivation.

indicate a slight literacy bias in comparison with student learners, although, as noted above, students appeared to interpret the items as referring to the program itself, which they knew to have an oral focus.

It therefore appears that some differences in preferred learning strategies existed between the teachers and students, with the teachers showing a stronger preference for productive learning strategies, rather than receptive learning strategies. In fact, the only item on which responses were exactly the same was "I learn best by memorizing words and/or lists," to which both groups agreed or strongly agreed. Practicing by oneself, however, was more strongly preferred by the teachers (strongly agree, agree) than the students (agree/neutral).

Therefore, the implications of these findings to the LPPC model and second language acquisition theory include the indications of the possible influence of student/teacher differences in preferred learning strategies on student outcomes [Section 4.4.1.2]. These results also provide support for Hypothesis #9 as student/teacher differences did appear to exist. Future research could explore whether teacher preferences for different strategies dominate or influence their choices of techniques, methods, or theoretical perspectives. It was impossible to clarify these issues in this study.

5.1.1.3 Teacher style, class style, teacher achievement and "class fit"

Class fit was proposed to be comprised of a number of variables, both personal and contextual, and reflect a group-specific (CBAK+) dynamic [see Section 1.4.7]. For example, ME's comment "that the class and I were a *really good fit* personality-wise, and I didn't seem to have to *adjust my teaching style* too much" is significant as it identifies two key characteristics of "teacher fit": "fit" and "teacher style." The dynamic nature of the experience of "good fit" also leads it to be referred to as "click" by some teachers ("the group and I really *clicked*"). It is this quality of "fit" which appears to be what makes it possible to create "fit" by "adjusting" one's teaching style [as described in Section 4.3]. Thus, "fit" appears to identify the degree to which a particular class dynamic, created by the alchemy of teacher and student(s) personality, motivations, interests, pedagogical expectations, and ability levels (among other factors such as TBAK+ and CBAK+), is

successful in creating a comfortable psychological and pedagogical environment in the classroom. However, "fit" appears dynamic, and group-specific, providing additional evidence of the influence of student factors on teacher perceptions, as well as teacher factors on student outcomes as proposed in the LPPC model.

The dynamic quality is also illustrated by additional comments by ME and others. For example, as the previous comment suggests, ME apparently had been correct in her expectations concerning the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute class, it should be noted that she particularly emphasized that her *current style* was *due to her experience* in the previous year's (1992) Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. In other words, this year's "really good fit" was attributed to a conscious reconstruction of "teacher style" based on the teacher's analysis of the "personality" of the "typical Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute class" (situational factors and participant factors). ME specifically stated that she had *changed her teaching style* for the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute "because of boredom and some sleeping" (of students presumably). In addition, her recent success with respect to "teacher fit" in the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, in fact encouraged ME to *keep the same style* if she were to teach in the same program in the following year. In other words, again, "teaching style" is being defined with respect to what a teacher does (or behaviour), rather than who they are or what they think (i.e., theoretical perspective). These findings suggest therefore that a modification to TBAK+ should be the explicit inclusion of teacher behaviours. In other words, within "teacher expectations" which currently contains expectations concerning class activities, class roles and program goals, there could also be a situation-specific "use" sub-category. Further research would be required to clarify this point, however.

The dynamic nature of "fit" is also captured in the comments of another teacher (GA), who commented that "it took a week until (he and the class) *started to click*." As noted above, "click," the sound a locking device makes when the two parts "fit" together, appears synonymous with "a good fit," and it therefore points to a high level of "class fit." In other words, the learning experience "clicks on" when the two sides of the mechanism,

the teacher and the class, fit together.[77]

The idea of the "class" as a monolithic entity with a personality of its own, rather than an aggregate of the individual members, is also an important aspect of the concept of "fit." This monolithic perspective is illustrated by CM's description of his class as having "a different personality...more subdued than last year." Or S's description of W's class as "the ruffians" [Section 4.3.2]. This perspective of the "class-as-an-entity," therefore, appears to play a key role in the teacher self-definition of "teacher achievement" from a macro-level perspective. In other words, "the class," "class personality," and/or "class fit" are seen as key contributing factors to the success or failure of the teacher him/herself depending on an individual's personal attributions concerning the success or failure of the "class." For example, the teacher may blame the group for perceived failure, rather than on the actions of the teacher him/herself, and/or attribute success wholly to the class personality rather than personal skill ("the class and I were a good match"). Thus, the implications of such externalization could be positive (e.g., continuing with successful teaching style and strategies) or negative (e.g., continuing with less successful teaching style and strategies).

In conclusion, the findings discussed above provide further support for the importance of external and internal aspects of teacher achievement. Therefore, the concept of "fit" appears to be a powerful factor in the analysis of "teacher achievement" which future research could ideally clarify.

5.1.2 Evidence for linguistic change: Results and discussion

From the results discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, it appears that oral development (or positive linguistic change) was a goal of both teachers and students that appeared to have been realized.

In Chapter 3, an analysis of student interview data found that fluency-related linguistic factors (such as increased MLU, number of utterances, etc.) appeared to increase significantly over the three-week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, with an apparent threshold effect for language activation between Interviews #1

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[77]Or the two sides of the learning equation balance.

and 3 (especially Week Two). These differences are summarized in Section 3.2.1.2. Both students and teachers also perceived such change, as well as improvements in language comfort or lower language use anxiety. In addition, student interviewees' comments on their perceived increase in language comprehension and language production provide support for positive change [see Section 3.2.1.1.5]. In particular, language comprehension was generally seen to precede advances in language production in the earliest interviews. Both student interviewees, and the student group as a whole, appeared to have felt more comfortable in language use situations afterwards. For example, in response to the item #PR82/PS62 ("I speak with native speakers outside of class"), there was a statistically significant positive change (p<.001) from "Sometimes/Rarely" (Pre-course mean=2.444) to "Sometimes" (Post-course mean=2.132).

The teachers' perceptions of the areas of most progress also paralleled those of the students providing triangulation in the identification of areas of linguistic change. Teachers identified areas of development such as listening comprehension (28.5%, n=4), self-confidence (21.4%, n=3), risk-taking (14.2%, n=2), initiating conversations (21.4%, n=3), and confidence in speaking (57.1%, n=8) [see discussion, Section 4.2.1]. As noted previously, these changes appear consistent with other research on the benefits of study abroad programs in promoting increased fluency (Freed, 1995c; Lennon, 1990).

In conclusion, a comparison of teacher and student responses provides clear support for Hypotheses #1 and 2 insofar as linguistic change was found to occur in the three-week period.

5.1.3 Evidence for perceptual change: Results and discussion

Evidence was found to support the existence of student and teacher differences with respect to perceptions of language learning, learning strategies and learning styles [also see discussion in Sections 3.1.1.3 and 4.1.1.1]. These results will be discussed in this section.

Results

The most extreme differences in perspective between students and teachers were found with respect to perceptions of language learning difficulty. Generally, students

considered all areas of language development to be difficult or very difficult, both before and after the course. The teachers, however, while agreeing with the students that language learning was difficult (and different from other learning skills), did not seem to consider the task(s) as difficult as the students did. This apparent student/teacher difference in *perceived degree of difficulty*, together with the fact that the majority of teachers also considered themselves good language learners (mean= 1.85), suggests the existence of fundamental differences in the perspectives of the two groups towards language learning. These differences are elaborated below.

While teachers weakly agreed (agree/neutral) that learning languages was difficult, students perceived most aspects of language learning as difficult (learning to read) or very difficult (learning languages, learning English, learning to write, speak and understand English). Although these results could reflect the tendency for individuals who have learnt a language (or any other skill) to forget the difficulties they had experienced in the initial stages of language learning (Ellis 1989), the fact that the majority of teachers had previously identified themselves as "good language learners" and/or "multilingual" [see discussion, Section 4.1.1.2] suggests that a difference in perceptual perspective between student and teachers did exist. The degree to which this difference is a general trend for second language teachers, however, is not clear. Further research would be required to clarify the generalizability of this finding which is beyond the scope of this study.

Discussion

The implications of these differences, however, may be framed in either positive or negative perspectives. Arguably, one of the benefits of having teachers who find language learning easy may be their ability to help their students overcome their fear of failure. For example, ME commented that she had "bonded with her group" (i.e., had a good "class fit") because of her own previous travel experience, as well as the fact that she was in the process of learning Russian at the time of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. Therefore, according to ME, she was seen by students as having "gone through it (language learning), as they had gone through it, so (they all) had something in common."

Such matches of teacher and student(s) as described above provide support for "class fit" within the LPPC model (TBAK+ and SBAK+ or CBAK+) [see Section 1.4.7]. This particular example also provides evidence of the positive influence of teacher style and teacher experience on student expectations, and arguably on student and teacher achievement. For example, it was clear that ME felt a strong sense of (primarily internal) achievement, and she appeared to believe that her students would also have felt such achievement. This example also provides evidence for the proposal in Section 1.5 that in many language situations, similarities (or at least familiarity) between participants in the language learning situation with respect to gender, language, and/or culture may influence the degree of comfort or perceptions of "class fit" (which may influence perceptions of student achievement and/or teacher achievement). The influence of a teacher having had previous teaching experience in Japan is illustrated in the comments of GA particularly, who identified possible reasons for student expectations based on their prior experience:

> Example 1: [I] don't know if what the students got was what they expected from the program. *[It] may be two different things: they may have expected to get more of the same [as in] Japan since most hadn't had foreign teachers...[And in fact] even those who'd had foreign teachers [ADTs - teaching assistants]...would not have had realistic experiences - since ADTs were on a very short leash...*I thought students believed they would get much more oral and more chances to communicate with Canadians on street..but [in the end, they] all came away with positive feelings.

Therefore, the contributions of teacher or student style and experiences to BAK+, and therefore to "class fit," also appear to be a key component in the definition of "teacher achievement."

5.1.4 Evidence for pedagogical change: Results and discussion

It was hypothesized that cultural differences between students and teachers could influence perceptions of the goals, emphases and/or techniques in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program. The following sections will explore these hypotheses.

Program goals included both sociocultural and linguistic goals. Teacher and student responses were compared on items common to both sets of questionnaires. The general trends are summarized below. Due to statistical difficulties in comparing results because of population sizes, only student and teacher group mean responses, the direction

of change from pre-course to post-course, and the general relationship with respect to change are included in the table. Therefore, in this section, the discussion is limited to a comparison of trends in student and teacher responses.

Results and discussion

It appears both students and teachers held similar expectations concerning program goals. For example, both groups agreed or strongly agreed that the goals were to learn about Canada and Canadians, to be given opportunities to meet Canadians, and to challenge students' beliefs by new experiences.

Table #58   **Comparison of student/teacher perceptions of program goals**

Sociocultural expectations questionnaire items	Student response and direction of change	Teacher response and direction of change	Student and teacher comparisons: Direction of change
To learn about Canada	- Strongly agree	+ Agree	Convergence
To learn about Canadians	- Strongly agree->agree	+ Agree	Convergence
To learn more English	- Strongly agree->agree	n/c Neutral	Student ->Teacher
To practice their English	- Strongly agree->agree	- Agree	Same direction
To learn about Canadian youth culture	- Strongly agree->agree	+ Neutral	Convergence
To meet Canadians	- Strongly agree	- Agree	Same direction
To challenge their beliefs by new experiences	- Strongly agree	+ Agree	Convergence

Note: (-) negative change pre-course to post-course; (+) positive change pre-course to post-course; (n/c) no change pre-course to post-course; Strongly agree->agree means change occurred such that the mean response changed category

However, some interesting trends in interaction were seen. First, convergence was seen generally with respect to sociocultural goals (e.g., learn about Canada, Canadians, and Canadian youth culture). In other words, high pre-course student responses were lower on the post-course questionnaires; whereas (relatively) low pre-course teacher responses were higher on the post-course questionnaires. These results suggest that the students had initially expected a more sociocultural focus than they felt they received in the program. By contrast, the teachers apparently found themselves using more of a sociocultural focus than anticipated. What convergence suggests, then, is a form of mutual accommodation between the students and teachers, a phenomenon reflected in some of the teacher interview comments discussed previously (i.e., change of style - Section 5.1.1.3). These results also appear to suggest that the same events were interpreted differently, possibly because of TBAK+ and SBAK+ differences.

However, the trend with respect to goals of language and/or language use (e.g.,

practice English, learn more English, meet Canadians) appears to differ from the convergence described above. Specifically with respect to language use, both student and teacher responses were less positive on the post-course questionnaire to "practicing English" and "meeting Canadians" (the latter also implies using English). In other words, change was in the same direction, apparently indicating that neither group found that these focusses were as strong in reality as had been expected, probably due to the situational constraints such as class sizes discussed previously. In other words, both groups interpreted the situation in the same way.

Finally, a unidirectional change (students->teacher) was seen with respect to "learning more English." Students appeared to be less positive post-course; whereas the teachers were neutral throughout. The latter result was attributed to an ambiguity in the term such that teachers interpreted their goals as language practice. Based on the explanations above, these results suggest that the teachers were ambiguous about the goal of "learning more English" throughout the program, and that they emphasized language practice, although their students had higher initial expectations (as noted earlier in teacher comments - Section 5.1.1.1). The teachers were also aware that stated goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute focussed more strongly on sociocultural goals and language use (activation), rather than language acquisition, although evidence for both acquisition and activation were found in the student data [see Section 3.3].

Pedagogical expectations also included both techniques and successful student characteristics. Teacher and student responses were compared on items common to both sets of questionnaires. General trends are summarized in the tables below.

Four distinct trends were apparent in the comparison of student and teacher responses regarding expectations of technique use. First, convergence was seen with respect to "traditional" and/or literacy-oriented techniques (use of reading and homework). In this case, the students appear to have received less of these "traditional"

techniques, whereas the teachers used them more than had been expected.[78] Thus, this finding appears consistent with the students having expected a traditional classroom (and not having found it) AND the teachers having "reverted" to using techniques more appropriate to large group instruction. In other words, change occurred in both groups as their initial expectations were not substantiated in the program because both groups may have encountered "hotspots" which resulted in reconfiguring their BAK+s.

Interestingly, the second trend, divergence, was seen with respect to more "communicative" activities such as the use of games and pair work. In these cases, the teachers used the techniques less than expected, but the students, who appear to have expected a "traditional class," found communicative activities being used more than expected. Therefore, the first and second trends may be two sides of the same phenomenon, and therefore, they may provide some insight into the often broad differences between teacher interpretations and class interpretations concerning obstensively the same event. In other words, there was more focus on reading and writing than the teachers had expected; therefore, there was less emphasis on oral skills. From the student perspective, of course, this change would be interpreted as less reading and writing than had been expected (due to high initial expectations), and more focus on oral skills (due to low initial expectations).

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[78]Note that "Homework" could also mean interviewing native speakers outside of class, using the phone, etc.

Table #59   **Comparisons of student/teacher expectations of technique use**

Student/teacher expectations of technique use	Student response and direction of change	Teacher response and direction of change	Student and teacher comparisons: Direction of change
Use music	+Sometimes->Often	+Sometimes	Same direction
Use games	+Often->Always	-Sometimes	Divergence
Use group work	+Often	+Sometimes	Same direction
Use pair work	+Often->Always	-Often->Sometimes	Divergence
Use reading activities	-Often->Sometimes	+Rarely	Convergence
Use writing activities	Often (n/c)	+Rarely->Sometimes	Teacher-> students
Use homework	-Sometimes	+Never->Rarely	Convergence
Use tests	-Sometimes->Rarely	-Never	Same direction
Correct pronunciation	- Agree	- Agree->Neutral	Same direction
Correct grammar	- Agree	+ Disagree	Convergence

Note: (-) negative change pre-course to post-course; (+) positive change pre-course to post-course; (n/c) no change pre-course to post-course; Strongly agree->agree means change occurred such that the mean response changed category

The third trend was change in the same direction. From the table above, it can be seen that positive change occurred in both populations with respect to use of music and group work (both were used more than anticipated), and negative change was found in the use of tests (used less than expected). With respect to the positive changes, program specific (or situational) factors provide a partial explanation. As discussed previously, teachers only discovered mid-program that their classes would be expected to sing a song at the closing ceremonies. According to the teachers, this requirement resulted in minor to major changes in class focus dependent on the group (but some groups were already using music). Another situational influence was the frequent use of group work due to the large class sizes, which teachers had not anticipated, especially those without previous experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. Finally, use of tests was not anticipated by the teachers (Never), who did not use them at all. Students appear to have expected some testing (sometimes/rarely), but they felt they had received virtually none. In other word, in this case, the teachers' expectations were fulfilled, however, the students' expectations were not. Cultural differences were proposed to explain these differences. For example, it is well-known that the Japanese education system typically puts considerable emphasis on testing, therefore, it would be anticipated that the students would have been conditioned to expect tests in a course that most

considered to be a program requirement.[79] By contrast, the teachers believed the program goals to be students having fun and practicing language in natural settings, "communicatively." There was also no "final grade" for the course. Therefore, in general, the teachers did not plan to test formally, although they may have considered certain types of activities (such as pronunciation activities or drills) to have been informal "tests" of progress. We may assume some degree of informal testing occurred as the teachers as a group commented on student progress in areas such as language production and fluency.

The fourth, and final, trend in this analysis is unidirectional (teacher->students) with respect to the use of writing. While students expected (and apparently got) writing activities "often," the teachers apparently found themselves using writing more than anticipated. These results may also reflect program specific factors which conflicted with the assumed underlying oral focus, for example, the student workbook entailed writing. In addition, as noted previously, one teacher (PR) had all of her students write journals. Due to the small number of teachers, only a couple of teachers doing some writing could influence overall results.

Pedagogical expectations and change also included successful student characteristics. Teacher and student responses were compared on items common to both sets of questionnaires. General trends are summarized in the Table #60 (below). As in the previous sections, it appears that convergence occurred most with respect to "traditional" (Japanese) student characteristics.

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[79]In fact, participation in the Language Institute was considered to be a program requirement of Aoyama College (D. Okada - personal communication).

Table #60 **Comparison of perceptions of successful student characteristics**

Successful student characteristics	Student response and direction of change	Teacher response and direction of change	Student and teacher comparisons: Direction of change
Polite Sit quietly until asked a question Volunteer answers Co-operate with other students Compete with other students	- Agree - Agree - Strongly Agree - Strongly Agree->Agree - Agree->Neutral	+ Disagree + Disagree n/c Agree - Agree + Disagree->Neutral	Convergence Convergence Students->teacher Same direction Convergence

Note: (-) negative change pre-course to post-course; (+) positive change pre-course to post-course; (n/c) no change pre-course to post-course; Strongly agree->agree means change occurred such that the mean response changed category

In other words, it appears that behaviours such as "being polite" and "sitting quietly" were more highly valued by teachers on the post-course, but they were seen as less important than initially by students. "Volunteering" and "competing with other students" also were found to converge. By contrast, "co-operating with other students" showed negative change in both cases.

This rather surprising result, however, appears to find explanation in differing interpretations of "cooperation" as suggested in previous discussion [Section 4.2.3.4]. Within the Japanese cultural view, a number of students collaborating on a response would be considered "cooperation" (Wadden, 1993). The same behaviour ("consulting") appears to have been interpreted by a number of teachers, who favoured individual production, as a form of "cheating." From this teacher perspective, "cooperation" would be working together on assigned group tasks, or not fighting with fellow students (or "not drilling holes in the boat" in SM's words). In other words, neither the students nor the teachers felt this characteristics was as valuable as they had expected, although the attributions behind these changes may have been quite different.

Finally, "perceptions of class roles" (CLRO) were found to be significantly influenced by teacher factors such as general experience, COAELI experience, JESL experience, and training [Section 4.4.1.1]. Therefore, a number of differences were seen with respect to student and teacher perceptions or expectations of actual classroom practice, as well as class roles. It appears that students expected a slightly more traditional classroom than most teachers had planned. However, based on results reported in Section 4.4.2.2 (Teacher factors in LPPC), the impact of these differences varied by teacher. Future research with larger teacher populations would serve to clarify these relationships.

Such research is beyond the scope of this study.

In conclusion, it was found that teacher gender, training and teaching experience (general, JESL and COAELI) influenced student (or class) outcomes. In other words, student group (or class) differences were found in as little as three weeks from a relatively homogeneous initial CBAK+ (for the whole student population), a number of different CBAK+s emerged. The differences in the post-course responses therefore appear to be in part attributable to teacher differences. For example, from the teacher interview data, it could be seen that teachers with more experience in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, such as SM or GA, knew that the students would expect certain types of activities (especially GA who had worked in Japan previously). By contrast, other teachers, such as LW were surprised that the students did not expect activities such as fashion shows.

Therefore, clear support exists for Hypotheses #5 and 6 concerning the potential influence of "teacher factors" in class outcomes. In addition, it is suggested that due to the relative homogeneity of the student population initially, these teacher factors were more readily identifiable than might be the case with a more diverse student population. In other populations, a more complex interaction and description of SBAK+ within the LPPC model might be expected.

5.1.5 Program success

The majority of both teachers and students appear to have considered the program a success based on an analysis of direct and indirect measures of success. Explicitly, teachers (85.7%, n=12) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "I feel that this program was successful in attaining its goals." In addition, indirect support for success of the program goals comes from the responses of the majority of students (95.2%, n=354) who either agreed or strongly agreed on the post-course questionnaire that they would like to return to Canada, significantly more (p<.001) than on the pre-course questionnaire (89.3%, n=325). Comments from both students and teachers provided additional support for the success of the program [Sections 3.3.2, and 4.3.1].

These apparent perceptions of program success have two main implications. First,

on a program specific basis, they suggest that the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was successful at meeting its primary objectives. Second, these findings suggest that based on earlier proposals, relatively high overall external measures of teacher and student achievement may be inferred. However, this analysis should be recognized to be non-statistically significant and indirect. However, to the extent to which we can generalize global teacher and/or student satisfaction in this instantiation of the LPPC model, within the situational and temporal parameters indicated previously, both student and teacher outcomes appeared to have been positive.

5.1.6 Students, teachers and LPPC in the COAELI: Summary

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, all teachers had some previous experience with Japanese students, so it appeared that class size and program format was more influential than culture or gender. However, with the exception of the interviewees on the whole, the majority of students had little experience with Canada or Canadians. More change was therefore seen with respect to classroom roles and activities, which students appear to have expected to be more traditional. A wide range in amount of previous teaching experience was found, and teacher experience was observed to influence a wide number of student variables.

In general, the teachers appear to have expected to use communicative techniques to focus on development of oral/aural skills, awareness of Canada and Canadians, and having students enjoy their experience. Few students had experience with Canadian teachers; therefore, they appear to have based their initial expectations more on the traditional Japanese classroom than the teachers. The students initially expected tests, homework, and focus on literacy skills, although they also wanted to develop their English speaking skills. Their final responses indicated a change consistent with having experienced a more communicative classroom approach with use of techniques such as games and music, and perceptions of classroom roles which emphasized active oral participation.

In addition, the use of Oxford's (1990) SILL to construct learning strategy profiles of students and teachers did not appear particularly useful in this study, as the students

showed pre/post-course differences in strategy use, which appeared to correlate to actual strategy use in a short-term intensive language program (e.g., strategies like speaking to native speakers, etc.), suggesting a "dynamic" interpretation of the questions. The teachers appeared to favour more literacy-based strategies more than the students, although this difference was not significant, and it may also have reflected different interpretations of the questions from the students (i.e., static or trait interpretation).

Differences were also found between the perceptions of difficulty learning languages. The majority of teachers considered themselves to be good language learners, whereas the majority of students did not appear to share this perspective, although the student perspective was not as directly addressed as the teacher perspective. In addition, with the exception of student interviewees, few student participants appeared to know more than one or two languages (despite having 6-9 years of ESL instruction); however, most teachers appeared to know at least two languages. Therefore, the teachers and students appeared to differ with respect to language learning experience and/or language learning success.[80] It appeared that recent language learning experiences (of the teacher) may have facilitated "clicking" with the students, which may have influenced class atmosphere (or "class fit") in at least one case (ME's class).

In conclusion, some support was found for the hypotheses outlined at the beginning of the chapter, although the significance of differences could not be measured in this study due to differences in population sizes. Evidence was found supporting Hypothesis #5 (differences in teacher-student expectations were found with respect to classroom behaviour and classroom techniques), Hypothesis #6 (changes in expectations showed both convergence and divergence), Hypothesis #8 (perceived change within the program did appear greater in the socio-psychological competencies), and Hypothesis #9 (individual differences in learning strategies and/or styles among students and/or teachers were observed, although the degree to which they influence other outcomes was not clear; it was not possible to analyze the influence of individual student differences on teacher

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[80] Arguably, these two variables may be closely related.

perceptions).

5.2 Implications and Conclusions

In this section, I will conclude this discussion of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term study abroad programs by discussing the theoretical, pedagogical and administrative implications of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study, providing review of the LPPC model, identifying future areas of research, and summarizing the overall findings.

5.2.1 Theoretical, pedagogical and administrative implications

In this section, I will discuss the theoretical, pedagogical and administrative implications of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. First, I will consider the implications of this study to the fields of second language acquisition and second language pedagogy with reference to Freed's (1995c) theoretical and practical issues. Second, I will address issues specific to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program and the LPPC model.

5.2.1.1 Theoretical and pedagogical implications: Contributions to the field

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study contributes to the development of the field of second language acquisition by "filling in the gaps" on a number of issues which researchers have identified as "targets for future research" (Freed, 1995a, b & c; Gardner et al., 1974; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 1998; Olshtain, 1998; Oxford, 1998; Woods, 1996). These targets included the need for examination of the role of "situational factors," such as teachers and the classroom, within the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Tennant, 1998; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994) and a shift of focus towards the teacher and/or learning situation (Larsen-Freeman, 1998; Olshtain, 1998; Oxford, 1998; Woods, 1996).

The Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study provided a global perspective on the human and situational factors influencing linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change in a short-term or study abroad program by examining the influences and interactions of student, teacher and temporal factors within the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, and incorporated these complex interactions into a

model of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (the LPPC Model). By creating this inclusive theoretical framework and model, this study, therefore, addressed a number of the "gaps" indicated by Gardner (1985), and others such as Freed (1995b: 17), who proposed the most detailed list of "theoretical and practical" issues to be addressed by research on the study-abroad context, and by analogy, short-term programs as well [see discussion, Section 1.0.1]. A number of these issues were directly addressed or indirectly addressed in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. These issues, therefore, are considered to be contributions to the field.

Of the "theoretical" issues raised by Freed (1995b), three issues were either directly or indirectly addressed in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. For example, dimensions of Issue (i) "actual linguistic benefits" were examined in Chapter 3 and 4 with respect to student and teacher perceptions of linguistic change, and actual linguistic change with respect to changes in type and amount of production. Linguistic change in (student) production and/or comprehension was both perceived and observed to occur by both students and teachers. Issue (iii) concerning the "roles of comprehension, interaction, and negotiation" was indirectly addressed in the student interviews (topic changes, problems of communication, etc.) and questionnaires (pedagogical changes). Students felt their comprehension and comfort with language use increased during the program.

Issue (vi) concerning "knowledge of linguistic universals, the linguistic environment, and their interaction in language acquisition" was indirectly examined in the discussion of the role of language activation (versus language acquisition) in the short-term or study abroad program, as well as being addressed by the inclusion of the postulated "extracurricular contact" factor in the proposed LPPC model, overlaps with Gardner's (1985) "situational variables." Specifically, it was proposed that language activation better described the linguistic processes observed in a short-term study abroad program in which the student population had 6-9 years of previous language training, than the term "language acquisition." Activation was also a term used spontaneously by a number of the teachers, who saw their goals as language practice in general (i.e.,

activation), not language learning.

Of the "practical issues" outlined by Freed (1995b), Issue (iv) which concerned "identifying the minimal amount of time spent in a study abroad context for students to benefit linguistically from the experience," or rather within the terms of this dissertation "identifying areas of *linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical* change within a short term program", was the primary focus of this study. It was found that as short a temporal period as one week (the minimal period observed in linguistic change) was sufficient for linguistic change to be observed. Significant linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change was also observed in the three-week period, the minimal period of time observed for perceptual and pedagogical change in this study.

Other practical issues addressed indirectly included Issue (ii) "the influence of prior exposure to the target language" by questionnaire and interview items. As noted above, the use of term "language activation" with respect to the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute students was related to their previous knowledge of the language based on an average of 6-9 years of previous ESL instruction. In addition, the fact that a number of teachers had previous experience with Japanese ESL students (JESL), and/or they knew Japanese appeared to influence some student outcomes. Therefore, previous exposure to the target language and/or target culture appears to influence language activation in students, and culture familiarity may influence the type of impact teacher factors have on student outcomes.

Issue (v) "investigating whether systematic and significant differences in demographic background, motivation, learning style, and/or metacognitive abilities exist between students who choose to participate in study abroad programs and students who do not participate" was not specifically addressed; however the possible influence of demographic background, motivation, learning style, etc. (or BAK+) of student and teacher participants was investigated. In general, it was found that this particular student population was highly homogeneous with respect to BAK+ (allowing the construction of a group construct, CBAK+). More diversity was found with respect to the teacher population (TBAK+), and a number of these differences were found to influence student

outcomes. However, the lack of a control group of students who did not participate in the study, and/or a comparison group of ESL teachers who were not hired to teach in the program, did not allow this issue to be addressed directly.

Issue (vi) "identifying the most appropriate assessment tools for measuring progress in all skill areas and proficiency levels for students in study abroad contexts" was addressed indirectly by testing the utility of using changes in fluency markers in student interview data to identify specific areas of linguistic change, as well as incorporating triangulation based on student and teacher identification of perceived areas of progress and/or change over the three-week period. A strong degree of agreement was found between perceived change and measured change. However, more language skill specific measures were not accessible for administrative reasons. It is suggested in future research a combination of linguistic and sociocultural measures would provide a more comprehensive measure of progress, as the results in a three-week period appear to be both attitudinal or motivational and linguistic (e.g., students enjoying travel, language comfort, etc.). Thus Issue (vii) "identifying methods to measure and evaluate quality and extent of student social contact (or extracurricular exposure), and language use in the study abroad context" gains in importance. This issue was indirectly measured by student questionnaire and interview responses concerning amount and type of extracurricular contact and language use. It appeared that increased extracurricular contact and/or language use did improve students' language (fluency) and/or language comfort.

Finally, evidence from the student interviews provides some insight into Issue (viii) by identifying "experiences most valuable for students who participate in study- abroad programs." The students in this study appeared to be most motivated by extracurricular activities involving contact with Canadians, such as home stays and shopping, cross-cultural experiences such as Folk Fest and All Sooke Day, and tourism-related activities such as shopping, sightseeing and photography. Classroom activities which they found valuable included discussions of cross-cultural differences, family, careers, and future plans. The teachers who reported including such activities also appeared to share the highest level of rapport with their students.

The pedagogical implications from these findings also begin to address Issue (x) "identifying positive attributes of the study abroad experience which can be replicated in the home learning environment." First, while extracurricular contact with native speakers of the target language may be more difficult to arrange in the home environment, it appears to be a key factor in student motivation. Therefore, finding native speakers who are willing to spend some time with students would appear to be worth the effort. Depending on the country in question, native speakers of English may include consulate or embassy employees, other teachers, friends, family, travellers at hostels, church or missionary groups, business people, academics, other foreign students, or even e-mail pen pals. In addition, bringing contemporary cultural media into the classroom such as videos, music, etc., can bridge the gap and make learning English more motivating (Harmer, 1986). Finally, providing activities which the students find personally relevant appeared to be important from both the perspective of the classroom teachers and the success of student interviews. In the student interviews, topics which resulted in the most interaction included family, career, shopping, and discussion of daily events. In other words, the students talked more when they had an opinion which was very important to them, and/or when they had easy access to the vocabulary necessary to communicate (e.g., shopping vocabulary, career discussions).

In conclusion, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study contributes to both theoretical and practical areas of the fields of second language acquisition and second language pedagogy by addressing directly or indirectly many of the issues identified by Freed (1995b) and/or Gardner (1985), although further research is necessary to clarify these issues.

5.2.1.2 Theoretical implications: COAELI

A number of theoretical issues were addressed in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. The first issue was the contribution of a description of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive study-abroad language program to the field of SLA. Second, this study proposed modifications to the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985) which include development and inclusion of the

cluster of variables defined TBAK+ (teacher style, teacher expectations and teacher experience) and SBAK+ or CBAK+ (student style, student linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations), as well as the introduction of the context (interactive) description of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program. A distinction between language activation and language acquisition in terms of describing the language change in a short term program was also proposed. The third theoretical contribution is the development of the model of Linguistic, Perceptual and Pedagogical Change.

The LPPC model had three main goals. The first goal involved the *identification of areas and types* of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term or study abroad program such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute. Evidence was found supporting linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a number of areas. Significant change was found primarily on the student questionnaire although non-significant change was found on the teacher questionnaires as well. The second goal included the *identification of factors* involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change. A number of teacher factors, including gender, training and teaching experience, were found to influence class outcomes. The influence of student factors on teacher outcomes could not be assessed due to differences in population sizes limiting statistical validity. The third goal was the *identification of program outcomes* such as teacher achievement and student achievement. Evidence was found supporting the inclusion in the construct of "teacher achievement" of external and internal measures, as well as microlevel and macrolevel influences. A description of student achievement based on perceived positive linguistic change (fluency), increases in language comfort and use, and desire to return to Canada, rather than simply using test scores, was also supported. Based on the analysis of both teacher and student data in this study, arguments were also made supporting a generally high level of perceived achievement and success.

The factors involved in linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change were categorized into three types of factors: *participant factors, temporal factors,* and *situational factors*. The category of "participant factors" included three aggregate factors:

(i) "TBAK+" which included teacher beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, language background, teaching style and strategies, gender, culture, educational experience and background, and other demographic influences; (ii) "SBAK+" which included student attitudes, knowledge, language background, learning style and strategies, gender, culture, educational experience and background, and other demographic influences; and (iii) "CBAK+", or class BAK, which was defined as the aggregate result of a group of students' "SBAK+s". The category of "temporal factors" included the amount of time involved in a particular program, how the time was used for curricular or extracurricular activities, and any influence the temporal parameters may have had on the behaviour or perceptions of program participants. "Situational factors" included degree of class fit (or degree of similarity or compatibility between TBAK+, SBAK+ and/or CBAK+), administrative or curricular constraints (such as class size and scheduling), and pedagogical interactions (such as use and reception of specific techniques, activities, etc.).

This study began to identify the influence of temporal factors (or the temporal dimension) on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (especially with respect to development of fluency) in a short-term intensive language program, including identification of a possible "critical threshold" for language activation and/or change. A number of teachers also explicitly identified one of the benefits of the short-term study abroad program as being the fact it may provide a "window of opportunity" for exposing students to a new culture and providing opportunities for language practice. In addition, within the specific temporal parameters of the three week Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, Week Two was identified as the period of most linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical activity. In GA's terms, it is "when we get to the meat." Evidence of language activation was also found in Week One, with the greatest change in language production by the end of Week Three.

Finally, the importance of learning strategies and styles to understanding linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive language program was investigated. It appeared that the students and teachers interpreted some of the questionnaire items differently. Therefore, further research examining the influence of

context on strategy inventory results would be useful.

5.2.1.3 Pedagogical implications: COAELI

A number of findings from this study have direct pedagogical implications. These findings are related to temporal factors (time constraints), participant factors (student and teacher factors, class fit), situational factors (class size, facilities), and outcomes (language activation, fluency).

First, the main pedagogical and administrative implication of this study is the fact that change *does occur* in as short a period as a week. In other words, short term study abroad programs *do have* an impact on all participants, or as GA put it, "if they had never come here, they would never have had that taste (of travel, culture and language practice)." In general, this change was positive with increases in fluency and comfort of language use, more positive attitudes towards language learning, target language populations and travel in general, and student adaptation to more a communicative teaching style.

From a teacher perspective, short-term programs are seen as a window of opportunity for opening students' eyes to a world in which learning English isn't like learning Latin, where they can actually use English to explore a new culture. The teachers see short term programs as an opportunity to "light fires," and for students to listen to and practice English "as she is spoke." They do not expect to teach students new language, but rather to "activate" the linguistic knowledge the students already possess. Therefore, most teaching and/or learning in a three-week program occurs on a sociocultural level: knowledge of a new country and its people, knowledge of the hows and whys of cultural similarities and differences, knowledge of one's own ability to successfully negotiate the rocky shoals of cross-cultural encounters.

Second, in a three-week program, the first week appears critical to obtain a good "class fit." Therefore, it is important for teachers to "click" with the class by adapting their style to include techniques, activities to suit the "class personality." Good "class fit" is also the main key to external, macrolevel perceptions of teacher achievement. As "class fit" is influenced by a number of participant factors which can be generally categorized as

TBAK+ (teacher style, teacher experience, teacher expectations), SBAK+ (individual student style, student linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations, and extracurricular contact), and CBAK+ (the cumulative student group SBAK+s). A number of factors could influence the perceived success of a class. For example, the teacher's TBAK+ (personal beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, experience, expectations, gender, culture, age, etc.) could influence how s/he perceives and interacts with the class. The group CBAK+ (personal beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, experience, expectations, gender, culture, age, etc.) could influence how the group (and individuals) reacts to the class situation. The implications for both the classroom teacher and program administrators are the importance of identifying and understanding both CBAK+ and TBAK+. In other words, it is important for teachers to learn as much about their students and classroom situation as they can as soon as possible (ideally, prior to the beginning of the program). Due to the 2-3 day window of opportunity for "clicking," teachers need to find a common ground with their students as quickly as possible.

"Finding common ground," however, may not be as difficult as it initially appears. First, on an administrative level, providing incoming teachers with a detailed outline of the student population, their general expectations and interests, and the administrative goals of the program would be very useful. Details in this outline could be derived from previous student course evaluations, as well as teacher feedback concerning areas or activities which were successful or not as successful with students. Cultural, linguistic, and gender based insights would also be helpful in identifying behaviours or expectations which might conflict with or differ from those included in a teachers' TBAK+. As both TBAK+ and SBAK+ are constructed of beliefs, attitudes and *knowledge* (as well as experience, etc.), knowledge appears to be the most accessible area for managing change. Providing both students and teachers with a clear understanding of the purposes, expectations, and processes in a short term program would help make "class fit" much less amorphous; and therefore, it would be a more obtainable goal.

Some of the issues which could be addressed in this context would be the implications of culture shock and jet lag (such as sleepiness, anxiety, etc.), and the

implications of the gender (or gender mix) of the students and teachers, together with cultural and linguistic differences, as well as specific situational and temporal constraints in the program structure itself. For example, in the Camosun Osaka English Language Institute, both students and teachers felt class size was an issue worthy of comment. It was not that large classes are necessarily a problem in all situations, but in this case, a number of teachers had never taught large classes. They were, therefore, initially at a loss concerning the appropriate course of action for *pedagogical reasons*. As noted previously, however, in a short-term period, even a short period of teacher confusion could influence "class fit." A mentor teacher, or "buddy system" with teachers who had previously taught in the program, could have minimized this problem. A list of communicatively-oriented large group techniques could also have provided some background for new teachers.

Teacher orientation that included awareness of the "three-stage cycle" described by GA, which included "the first and third weeks have a lot of games, the second week is the meat" [see Example #7, Section 4.1.3.1], might also provide psychological support for teachers immersed in the experience, so that they realize the limitations are situational and/or temporal ("It's not just me"). For example, as another teacher noted, she felt more successful and she experienced a better "fit" in her second year teaching in the program when she changed her style to one more suited to the specific context of the Camosun Osaka English Language Institute. Harnessing such teacher insights concerning the most appropriate style to be used in the particular context or program could provide all teachers with a degree of "instant common ground" regardless of previous experience in a specific program, as well as shortening the period of "learning the ropes" which everyone encounters coming into a new work situation. An anonymous binder of "hits and strikes"[81] (or simply "helpful hints") could provide similar generally accessible information. For example, such a resource could include culturally appropriate topics, and those of general interest such as shopping, sightseeing, family, career, etc.).

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[81] An anonymous binder could be useful in the case where teachers might worry "strikes" or unsuccessful lessons could influence future hiring.

Finally, helping teachers to identify their TBAK+s and *to understand the implications of this set of beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, etc., on classroom behaviour* may be useful in addressing the issue of "class fit." "Understanding the implications of one's TBAK+ on classroom behaviour" is a very important part of this equation. Simply identifying one's TBAK+ could lead to mindless navel-gazing (Woods, 1998) which would not be particularly useful in the classroom. For example, while many teachers have informally completed inventories such as the SILL (Oxford, 1990), anecdotally it appears that often any insights gained from such tests do not generalize to the possible pedagogical impact such teacher factors may have on the classroom. In other word, completing surveys or inventories may help the teachers understand themselves as learners, not teachers.

Therefore, it is important to incorporate the influence of teacher and student style and expectations into teacher orientation and/or teacher education by including *specific examples* of how one style or set of techniques would in general be more appropriate than another - in a *specific setting*. For example, in the Japanese educational setting, students are typically expected to wait until called upon to answer. As a result, such students will frequently not volunteer answers in the ESL classroom, causing frustration for their ESL teachers who may interpret a row of silent faces as a personal affront, resulting in a negative class atmosphere due to a cross-cultural misunderstanding. However, the simple technique of the teacher calling upon individual students ("Rie, what do you think?") may alleviate this problem. Similarly, it may prove helpful in creating class fit to provide the teachers with information concerning such cross-cultural differences as soon as possible because the findings of this study suggest that in a three-week program, there is little time for negotiation of "class fit." In fact, according to GA, the window for such negotiation would be as little as one or two days.

Some cross-cultural differences of relevance to teachers of Japanese students would include the importance of the group within the Japanese world view (e.g., the group finding the answer is more important than any particular individual answering, so students may "consult" with each other before answering) and/or the desire not to impose

(e.g., sleeping in class is seen as not bothering anyone). In addition, it is suggested that teachers should be provided with examples of culturally sensitive ways of addressing such issues because simply knowing about such differences may not be sufficient. Thus, in orientation or teacher training, scenarios or role plays could be used. For example, if a teacher does not want students to "consult" with their seatmates before answering, a possible response which both identifies the problem and the solution explicitly could be: "I know that in your country it is more important for the answer to be correct than one particular student being correct, but today I'm interested in Hiroko's answer to this question. Please let her answer by herself."

Similarly, in response to students falling asleep in class, a two-pronged approach could be taken. First, when students appear to be getting sleepy, the teacher may insert an "active" activity like a game, or simply open the windows. Second, the teacher may address the issue explicitly, outlining the cultural differences in interpretation: "In Canada, falling asleep is considered as rude as (something that is very rude in Japanese culture, such as wearing shoes in the house). If you feel sleepy, please ask permission to go for a quick walk (have a coffee, etc.)."

Therefore, by providing clear guidelines with respect to both anticipated student behaviours and culturally and pedagogically appropriate teacher responses, program coordinators and/or administrators may increase the possibility of good "class fit" in their programs.

5.2.1.4 Administrative implications: COAELI

Issues for the administration of a short-term intensive language program include teacher preparation, class size, the amount of time spent in class and the amount of extracurricular contact with native speakers, the influence of culture shock on student performance, student expectations, and the focus and format of the curriculum.

First, the issues of teacher preparation discussed in the previous section are relevant to program administrators. Previous experience with JESL programs in general, and the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute in particular, appeared to have a strong effect on class outcomes. Some suggestions were made in Section 5.2.3

concerning the benefits to both staff and students of adequately addressing situational, temporal and participant factors before the program begins. The importance of such advance preparation can not be overemphasized. Second, the issue of class size (and frequent classroom changes) appeared to be situational constraint specific to the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute.[82] However, every program has idiosyncracies having to do with such issues as class size, physical layout, access to materials, etc. Smaller classes may mean more individual production is possible, although large classes can also engage in frequent oral practice in pairs, groups or drills such as Jazz chants (Graham, 1978).

Increasing the possibility of contact with native speakers in a study abroad program may be done by arranging "host family visits," "conversation partners," cross-cultural "buddies," cultural assistants, or having students interview native speakers or ask questions at the Tourism Bureau. Such contact was quite well managed in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute despite the enormous complexity of arranging equivalent activities for almost 400 students. One teacher also suggested that having cultural assistants (usually native English speaking university students) attend classes also encourages continuity with extracurricular activities.

From an administrative perspective, the goals identified (above) can be met by providing the teachers with information concerning class size, as well as "helpful hints" in advance of the start of the classes. Having a clearly identified designated individual(s) who is available to provide extra support during the program would be useful. Having "a classroom of one's own" throughout the program would also provide a better sense of continuity for the teachers and students, as well as encouraging teachers to personalize the experience for the students through use of multi-media (music, video, etc.), as well as limiting the amount of class time lost to changing rooms. In addition, keeping teachers informed about the extracurricular activities arranged for their students would also facilitate personalization of the classroom experience by allowing the teachers to develop

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[82]The following year classes were smaller.

lessons which clearly link classroom learning to extracurricular (i.e., "real") sociocultural experiences.

Third, based on the sociocultural goals of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program format, approximately four hours of ESL class time daily appears to be sufficient to see linguistic and perceptual change. In the program, students were in class from approximately 9 a.m. to noon, with one hour in the afternoon. Due to the increased sleepiness of students in the afternoon hour, a number of teachers suggested that starting earlier in the morning and ending earlier would be more effective (e.g., 8 a.m. to noon). These parameters would, of course, vary with the program. However, taking into account the influence of jet lag and culture shock in the first week when the students would be expected to be most awake based on home time zones, etc., adapting the program to accommodate optimal student receptivity would appear to be a logical consideration. For example, placement tests administered when students are jet lagged are often found to be inaccurate.[83] For example, in a more linguistically-oriented program with a focus on development of specific language skills, longer classes with a more specific syllabus might be appropriate.

In addition, the degree to which a program is expected (or advertised) to produce specific outcomes (such as "the students will learn to....") should be reflected in the emphasis placed on highlighting specific aspects of the syllabus during teacher orientation. As one teacher (SM) suggested:

> [Having a syllabus is good]. The director of French for Saanich years ago [referred to a syllabus] as a "carte routière" - the road map. He said "I always want the road map. I want it there. I can take my side trip to Duncan, and I can go off to Sooke, but I want the carte routière with me so I can go through and I can find [what I want] - *I don't want to be spending hours reinventing the wheel"*. For me, its got to be there, but then *I want the flexibility* so that as you're driving to Sooke - *you find they want to talk about trees or surfers or something, and that's their passion*, and then you *get them using language, and talk to them , and they can ask the questions, and that's how they're going to remember everything*. [So a structured curriculum is good] that's appropriate, from which you get the freedom to deviate so its a balance between - here you get enough material for you, but a lot of its extra. *"We'd like you to cover these points* - say between here and Nanaimo - like Duncan and Ladysmith, *but I don't really care* if you make it to Lantzville or not. But you have to know what's there - and if they're interested...

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[83]Personal communication - C. Duffy.

In this quote, SM emphasizes the importance of the administrator identifying the "critical parts" of the curriculum, while equally providing flexibility to explore areas of students' passionate interest. In addition, the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study clearly indicates that differences in teacher style correlate to differences in teacher in class behaviours - which result in different student (class) outcomes. The general belief in the strength of an eclectic approach to ESL teaching among the teachers also resulted in different teachers using different activities in the classroom. Therefore, in order for an ESL program, especially one without formal testing, to reach specific (and/or advertised) pedagogical goals, it is imperative that the "critical parts" of the curriculum be clearly identified to teachers before the program begins. Identification of flexible areas is equally important, because identifying the entire curriculum as "critical" would not allow the teachers to follow their students' "passions" and to find "common ground."

As student interest is key to motivation, it is also important to student development and achievement. Furthermore, since helping students to "follow their passions," or to "light fires," appears to have a potent "butterfly effect" on most teachers, influencing positive feelings of teacher achievement, providing flexibility in the curriculum to allow such exploration is critical to both student and teacher achievement.

In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute, extracurricular "options" occurred after classes in the afternoon and evenings. Having organized activities ensured that all students experienced a number of different experiences. However, due to class size, a number of students complained of always being with a crowd of Japanese students, and not having had opportunities to meet native speakers. Therefore, providing a number of possible activities, both optional and obligatory, would ensure most students were able to pursue their own interests. In this sense, "optional activities" also would include "free time."

Both students and teachers identified the types of activities students did during their "free time" as being pivotal for language practice and development. These free time activities included shopping, sightseeing, eating in restaurants, etc. The difference between students' experience in the sheltered ESL classroom where the teacher would often

anticipate student problem and understand less than fluent speech, and students' experience in the "real world" where language breakdown, which forced students to "stretch" linguistically and communicatively, occurred on a fairly regular basis was clearly a factor in language development.

Of course, these close encounters with "real language" are the *raison d'être* for study abroad programs. According to Freed (1995a), Lafford (1995) and others, it is in having to go to the store to buy toothpaste, or to order in a restaurant, or to ask directions, etc., that study-abroad students' language becomes more "native-like" and fluent. Obviously, in a short-term program, there are temporal limitations on the amount of time students can spend "outside." However, both previous research, and the findings of this study, suggest that this exposure should be emphasized to the extent administrative constraints allow. Furthermore, addressing "real language" and "real language use" in the curriculum and classroom could maximize this type of development. For example, Brecht et al. (1995) found that students frequently mentioned their feelings of accomplishment when they tried something they had learnt in class in the "real world" and "it worked." A curriculum relating specifically to student interests and preferred activities such as shopping, meeting people, going sightseeing, asking directions, and coping with communication breakdown would, therefore, be appropriate.

Allowing students to participate in age-appropriate social encounters with same age native speaking peers would also appear to be helpful. In the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute program, a number of interview students commented that the "karaoke parties" that were arranged for them on at least two evenings were (in not so many words) a waste of time because it was the same group of people (Japanese students). Students would have been more motivated by a "pub crawl," going to the movies, going to hear live music at a coffee houses in the city, etc. In cases where supervision is a concern, such as with underage students, having such "night tours" led by cultural assistants or interested teachers, or activities in which the study-abroad students participate in sports or cultural events with same-age students from the target population, could be arranged.

Finally, the influence of culture shock on student performance should not be underestimated or forgotten. First, teachers should be sensitized to the possibility that their students may be experiencing culture shock to minimize the extent to which negative attributions about student behaviour(s) might be made (e.g., students sleeping in class - discussed in the previous section). In addition, students may also benefit by being provided with a outline of the four stages of culture shock so that they will correctly attribute otherwise negative symptoms such as anxiety or irritability to a *natural process* that *everyone experiences* that *will soon pass*. One teacher, ME, implicitly identified the importance of such connections when she attributed her "good class fit" to the fact that she was also learning Russian that summer, so "we were all going through it (learning language)" at the same time.

The stages of culture shock [also see Section, 1.5.6] include the following categories and symptoms: "Honeymoon Stage (Entry)" (everything is great, euphoria, happiness); "Anxiety Stage"(homesickness, depression, boredom, withdrawal, need for excessive sleep, compulsive eating or loss of appetite, compulsive drinking, irritability, exaggerated cleanliness, chauvinism or patronizing behaviour, stereotyping of host nationals, hostility towards nationals, loss of ability to work effectively, unexplained fits of weeping, physical ailments); "Rejection or regression Stage" (constantly confronting problems you can't define, rejection of what you had previously liked); "Adjustment stage" (feel less isolated, loss of feeling of hopelessness, able to greet and use language) (Sikkema & Niyekawa, 1987).

Although in a short-term program students may not pass through all of these stages, there is some evidence that the stages of cultural shock may expand or contract to fit the temporal envelope (Sikkema & Niyekawa, 1987). Discussing possible feelings of culture shock in class could also provide an opportunity to the teacher and students to "bound" or create "common ground." Even a simple suggestion such as providing students with what they are used to eating for breakfast (such as miso soup for Japanese students) may minimize the impact of "digestive culture shock" on students with sensitive stomachs. Students who are not feeling ill would presumably enjoy their experiences more.

Unfortunately, little or no research has been done on "digestive culture shock." Such research is also beyond the scope of this study.

5.2.3 The LPPC model of second language acquisition in a short term program

It was hypothesized that *teacher style* (teacher training, gender, age, and cognitive/learning style), together with *teacher experience* (overall classroom experience, experience with Japanese students, experience with the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute), and *teacher expectations* (classroom roles and activities), would influence *classroom practice* (activities, techniques, etc.). Based on the results described in Chapter 4, there appears to be strong support for both the existence of the variables *teacher style* and *teacher experience*, as well as their influence on *classroom practice*.

Evidence was also found supporting the interaction of these *teacher variables* with *student variables* such as *student style* (motivation, attitude, cognitive/learning styles and demographic variations), *student linguistic expectations* (major, experience with English, number of languages spoken, previous experience with Canada and/or Canadians), and *student pedagogical expectations* (classroom roles and activities). *Student extracurricular contact* within the context of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute short-term intensive language program did appear to influence *student achievement* (increased fluency, positive perceptions of Canada and Canadians, increased comfort in language use and comprehension, increased knowledge of Canada) although it was not possible to measure this relationship directly. Evidence was also found to support the definition of *teacher achievement* as based on internal/external and macrolevel/microlevel dimensions including positive assessment of student(s) success, self-assessment as a good teacher of Japanese students, positive assessment of the program, and "realistic" expectations of classroom roles and activities.

In addition, from the perspective of *student achievement*, this study appears to support previous findings of increased fluency in a short-term intensive language program (Freed, 1995b & 1995c), increased positive perceptions or attitudes towards Canada and Canadians (*Scan*) (Gardner, 1985), increased comfort in language use (*Slang use*) (Brecht et al., 1995; Freed, 1995b & 1995c; Lafford, 1995; Lennon, 1990) and comprehension

(*Slang*) (Brecht et al., 1995; Freed, 1995b & 1995c; Lafford, 1995; Lennon, 1990), increased knowledge of Canada (*Sk of can*), and desire to return to Canada (*Scorr*). As noted above, with respect to the newly adopted construct of *teacher achievement*, the findings in the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study also suggest that *teacher achievement* is a highly individual perceptual concept based on a teacher's positive assessment of student(s) success (*Tstudent success*), self-assessment as good teacher of Japanese students (*TgoodT*), positive assessment of the program (*Tprog*), and "realistic" expectations of classroom roles (*Tclro*) and activities (*Tclac*).

Thus, the model of language acquisition conceptualized by the LPPC Interaction model of SLA [see Figure 7] appears to capture more aspects of the interaction of student and teacher expectations, learning and teaching styles, and general background to influence perceptions of achievement (teacher and student) and actual linguistic change (students) within a short-term intensive language program from the perspective of both teachers and students than either the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985) or Woods' (1990) model. However, further research will be required to test and clarify this new model. The model is constructed in such a manner as to be testable.

5.2.4 Areas for future research

Possible areas of future research are quite diverse due to the scope of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study. In general, however, these areas can be described as involving the identification and/or more detailed description of participant factors, situational factors, temporal factors, methodological issues and/or theoretical issues. The influence of interactions between these factors on perceptual and linguistic outcomes (i.e., student and teacher achievement) are also important areas of future research. Factors and issues for possible future research which were identified in this study include the following:

(1) Participant factors

(i) the influence of gender and/or culture-based differences between students and teachers on outcomes based on the constructs SBAK+ and TBAK+ within the LPPC framework; future research could explore linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change in short term programs in which the following configurations were possible: female teacher/male student(s), female teacher/female student(s), male teacher/male student(s) and male teacher/female student(s);

(ii) the effects of culture shock, which may include fatigue, anxiety, loss of appetite, depression, anger against the target culture, aversion to target culture, and/or development of a "mental block" against the target language; future research could explore the influence of culture shock on pedagogical change and/or "class fit";

(iii) the influence of differences between student and teacher perceptions of self as language learner; future research could explore whether teacher preferences for different strategies dominate or influence their choices of techniques, methods, or theoretical perspectives;

(iv) the influence of teacher "eclecticism; future research could explore whether teacher "eclecticism" is influenced by factors such as experience and training;

(v) the influence of daily oscillations or changes in individual student and/or teacher perceptions of personal well-being (PWB) due to health, life stress, etc.; future research could explore how teacher/student interactions and/or class fit are influenced by factors such as fluctuating feelings of personal well-being;

(2) Situational factors

(i) the influence of class size; future research could explore the influence of class size in a short term program on linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change;

(ii) the influence of student extracurricular contact; future research could explore the influence of student extracurricular contact on linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change;

(iii) the influence of program focus; future research could explore the influence of program focus on linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change;

(3) Temporal factors

(i) the perceived language attrition in Japanese skills (students seem to feel they lost their Japanese proficiency in three weeks); future research could explore the extent of this perception in other JESL populations as related to program focus, program length, and/or amount of contact with the target population;

(ii) the identification of linguistic, perceptual and/or pedagogical change on a day-to-day basis (especially linguistic change); future research could attempt to identify areas of change within even shorter minimal periods of time;

(iii) identification of temporal periods and critical windows; future research could attempt to identify specific areas and type of change within even shorter minimal periods of time to identify critical linguistic and pedagogical "windows of opportunity;"

(4) Methodological issues

(i) the possibility of a "newness" effect in findings of linguistic change; future research could attempt to clarify whether the "temporal threshold" in Week Two identified by this study was caused by a "newness effect" (inexperience of interviewer and/or interviewees);

(ii) the variable nature of the cognitive/learning findings which suggests that responses to learning style items may be situationally dependent; future research could clarify whether learning strategies should be considered relatively static tendencies and preferences or whether responses may be situation-specific;

(5) Theoretical issues

(i) the need for inclusion within the definition of language learning motivation of variables such as *purpose of travel* consistent with culture specific motivations (Japanese status-oriented or status-based travel), and examination of the extent to which such *non-pedagogical goals or motivations* such as travel for status are prevalent both inter-culture and intra-culture; future research to attempt to identify the impact of such variables on the planning and realization of socioculturally-oriented study abroad programs such as the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute study;

(ii) the differentiation language activation and language acquisition in a short-term study abroad program; future research could attempt to identify and differentiate the relative occurrence of language activation and language acquisition in a short-term program;

(iii) the clarification of the relationship between increased fluency and decreased accuracy in a short-term study abroad program; future research could attempt to clarify the relationship between increased fluency and decreased accuracy in a short-term study abroad program by examining the influence of such factors as participant age, language level, program format, etc.;

(iv) the elaboration of the four part definition of teacher achievement proposed in this dissertation; future research could attempt to clarify the relative contributions of internal and external measures of teacher

achievement, which may occur at the macro-level or micro-level, with a diversity of teacher populations;

(v) the identification of factors influencing individual variation in linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change; future research could attempt to identify factors influencing individual variation in linguistic, perceptual or pedagogical change.

The most immediate areas for future research include (i) the elaboration of the four-part definition of teacher achievement, (ii) the identification of the influence of individual student and teacher factors such as learning styles, gender, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, as well as previous teaching and learning experience, on interactions and outcomes in short term and other language programs, and (iii) the identification of specific linguistic changes within the temporal threshold of a short-term program (i.e., three weeks or less).

5.2.5 Summary and review

This study describes the impact of the context of a short-term intensive study abroad language program on female Japanese college students and their ESL teachers in terms of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical changes. The primary focus of this research was (i) the identification of areas of change in linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical domains over the three-week period of the Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute (COAELI) in order to develop a comprehensive picture of this educational phenomenon. An attempt was also made (ii) to assess the extent to which program expectations and changes related between populations, and (iii) to identify and define participant, situational and temporal factors in language acquisition in short-term programs.

This study developed a conceptual and methodological framework, the LPPC Interactive Model of SLA illustrated in Figure 7, for investigating linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change (LPPC) a short-term intensive study-abroad English language immersion program based on the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985) and Woods (1996) construct of the BAK.
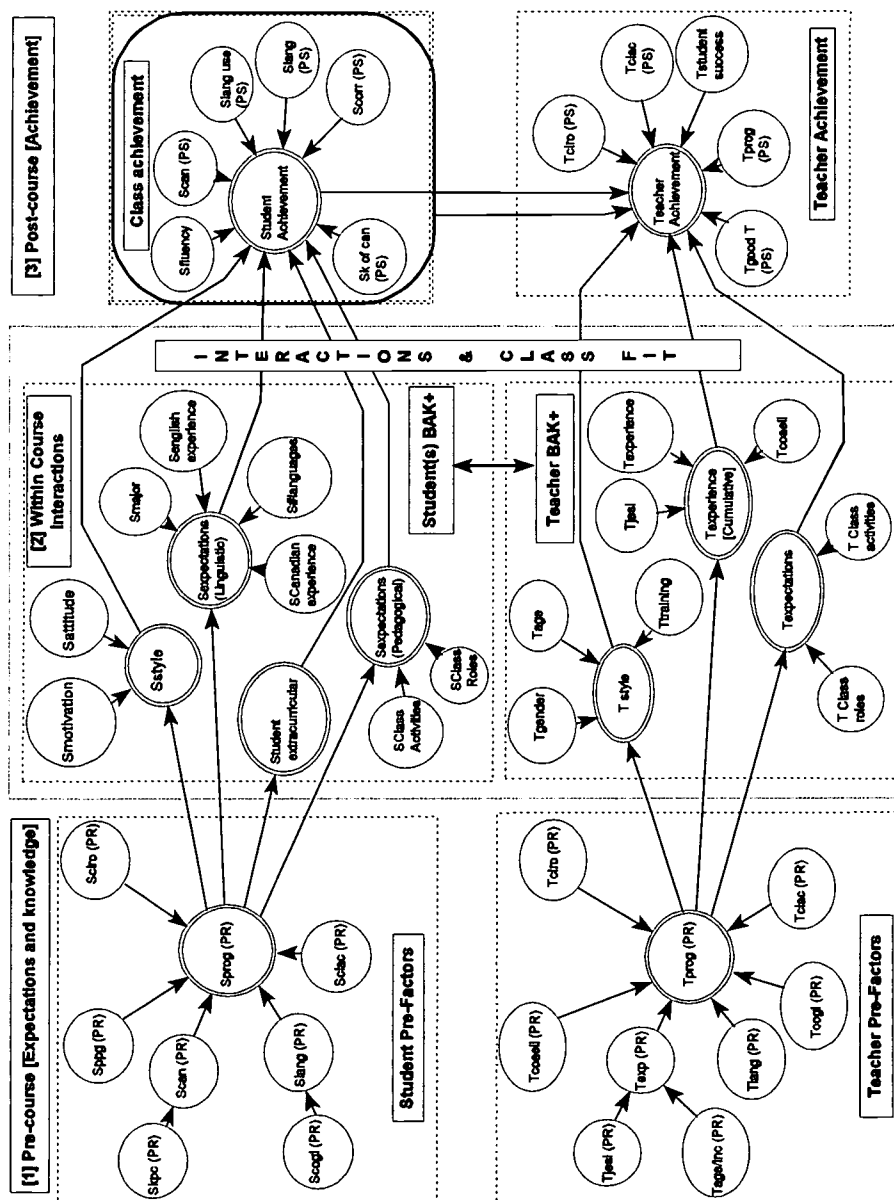
Figure 7   The LPPC Interactive Model of SLA

The framework was applied in a cross-cultural context, focussing on the participants in the 1993 Camosun Osaka-Aoyama English Language Institute: 384 Japanese English as a Second Language (ESL) students from Aoyama Junior College in Osaka (Japan), and 14 Non-Japanese ESL teachers at Camosun College and the University of Victoria in Victoria, British Columbia, Canada.

Research findings supported the hypothesis that change occurs in each of the linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical dimensions explored within a three-week short-term intensive ESL program such as the Camosun Osaka-Aoyama English Language Institute. Statistically significant change over the period of the Camosun Osaka-Aoyama English Language Institute was found with respect to attitudinal change toward language learning; use of English; increases in language production; understanding of Canada and Canadians; student and teacher expectations concerning program and classroom goals, objectives, and format; student knowledge of Canada; and student linguistic competence within a restricted range of attributes.

Differences in teacher factors such as gender, experience and expectations also appear to have an effect on student linguistic, cultural and pedagogical expectations. Differences in teacher-student expectations of course and classroom were also measurable, with differences appearing in expectations concerning classroom behaviour and expectations concerning classroom technique.

Therefore, support was found for Hypothesis #1 (linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change did occur within the three week period), Hypothesis #2 (the linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change was measurable and statistically significant for students; less significant change was found in the teacher results), Hypothesis #3 (the linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change was found with respect to attitudinal change with respect to language learning and use of English, and Canada and Canadian culture and customs, expectations with respect to classroom activities and orientations, knowledge of Canada, and linguistic competence), Hypotheses #4 and 7 (different teacher styles and/or techniques did have measurable effects on the class outcomes), Hypothesis #5 (apparent differences in teacher-student expectations were found with respect to

classroom behaviour and classroom techniques however these differences were not measurable due to population size differences), Hypothesis #6 (some areas of linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change showed evidence of a convergence of student and teacher expectations and/or a stronger movement of convergence from student to teacher than vice versa, although areas of divergence were also identified), and Hypothesis#8 (in general, change within linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change did appear to be greater in the socio-psychological competencies than in linguistic competence as per course/program goals).

Little support was found for Hypothesis #9 concerning individual differences in learning strategies and/or styles among students and/or teachers as such differences were not found to correlate to areas of change. While some differences were observed between teachers, on average, students appeared to have interpreted the questions as referring to strategies specific to the course itself.

Table #61   **Summary of Findings**

Theoretical Concepts in LPPC Model	Student Questionnaire	Teacher Questionnaire	Student Interview Data	Teacher Interview Data
Linguistic Change	√√	√	√√	√
Perceptual Change	√√	√	√	√
Pedagogical Change	√√	√	✗	√
Student factors (SBAK+)	√√	√	√	√
Teacher factors (TBAK+)	√√	√	✗	√
Class fit (CBAK+)	√√	√	✗	√
Language Activation	√	√	√√	√
Language Acquisition	√	√	√	√
Temporal periods	✗	√	√√	√
Achievement	√	√	√	√

(√√) generally statistically significant results; (√) generally non-significant results; (✗) no findings of relevance

Finally, support for Hypothesis #10 was mixed. Some evidence was found to support the identification of Japanese student and Western/Canadian teacher differences in culture and/or gender which appeared to influence outcomes. However, little difference was found between students concerning previous experience with Canadian teachers so

little student experience differences on teacher outcomes was identified.

The overall findings of study as relating to the Hypotheses and the LPPC model are summarized in Table #61 (above).

In conclusion, this study provides evidence for linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change in a short-term intensive study-abroad program. The findings also provide preliminary support for the constructs proposed in the LPPC Interactive Model of Second Language Acquisition, although further research is necessary to establish the extent to which this model accounts for processes in language learning, and language pedagogy. The extent to which these results generalize to other populations also requires further research.

The main contribution of this study was to fill gaps in the second language acquisition and second language pedagogy literature concerning theoretical issues such as the situational context of learning on both students and teachers, the influence of the temporal dimension on linguistic, perceptual and pedagogical change, and the investigation of change on measures in the SILL (Oxford, 1990) and the AMTB (Gardner, 1985). A comprehensive description of both student and teachers populations of the 1993 Camosun Osaka Aoyama English Language Institute was also offered. This study also developed a number of new concepts or constructs including BAK+, the butterfly effect, a definition of teacher achievement, a description of class fit, and a distinction between language acquisition and language activation for the description of language processes in a short-term program. Finally, the LPPC model, which allows researchers to focus on identification and description of student/teacher interactions, was introduced. This model, which was designed to be testable and generalizable, may be tested in future research. It is hoped that this model may help researchers to focus on classroom interaction rather than focussing uniquely on either student factors or on teacher factors.

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Appendix A: Descriptive Statistics:
Pre- and post-course student questionnaires

(1) NAME
(2) AGE:

	FREQ	VALID %
A 17 or younger	3	0.8%
B 18	268	71.7
C 19	99	26.5
D 20	4	1.1
E 21 or older	0	0.0
No Answer	9	2.3

(3) NUMBER OF PREVIOUS VISITS TO ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES:

	FREQ	VALID %
A 0	273	72.6%
B 1	79	21.0
C 2-5	24	6.4
D 5-10	0	0
E More than 10	0	0
No Answer	7	1.8

(4) NUMBER OF LANGUAGES SPOKEN

	FREQ	VALID %
A 1	212	56.7%
B 2	148	39.6
C 3	14	3.7
D 4	0	0.0
E More than 4	0	0.0
No Answer	9	2.3

(5) NUMBER OF YEARS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING

	FREQ	VALID %
A 1	0	0.0%
B 2-5	1	0.3
C 6-9	363	96.5
D 10-15	11	2.9
E 16 or more	1	0.3
No Answer	7	1.8

(6) EDUCATION (Most recently completed):

	FREQ	VALID %
A Elementary	0	0.0%
B High School	217	57.7
C College	159	42.3
D University	0	0.0
E Other	0	0.0
No Answer	7	1.8

(7) MAJOR:

		FREQ	VALID %
A	English	349	92.8%
B	Science	0	0.0
C	Business	27	7.2
D	Tourism	0	0.0
E	Other	0	0.0
No Answer		7	1.8

(8) FATHER'S OCCUPATION:

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Professional	11	3.0%
B	Businessman	235	63.3
C	Independent business	84	22.6
D	Teacher	7	1.9
E	Other	34	9.2
No Answer		12	3.1

(9) MOTHER'S OCCUPATION:

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Professional	6	1.6%
B	Businessperson	76	20.2
C	Housewife	207	55.1
D	Teacher	7	1.9
E	Other	80	21.3
No Answer		7	1.8

*(10) This question does not exist

Section 2: PROGRAM AND PERSONAL GOALS
(11) I came to Canada for a vacation:

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Strongly Agree:	15	4.0%
B	Agree:	31	8.2
C	Neutral:	100	26.4
D	Disagree:	144	38.0
E	Strongly Disagree:	89	23.5

(12) I came to Canada because I want to work in a job that requires English

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Strongly Agree:	113	29.7%
B	Agree:	129	33.9
C	Neutral:	96	25.3
D	Disagree:	29	7.6
E	Strongly Disagree:	13	3.4

(13) I came to Canada because I'm interested in Canada and Canadian culture.

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Strongly Agree:	65	17.2%
B	Agree:	144	38.0
C	Neutral:	139	36.7
D	Disagree:	20	7.4
E	Strongly Disagree	3	0.8

(14) I came to Canada as a course requirement.

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Strongly Agree:	111	29.2%
B	Agree:	95	25.0
C	Neutral:	105	27.6
D	Disagree:	52	13.7
E	Strongly Disagree:	17	4.5

Section 3: KNOWLEDGE AND PERCEPTIONS OF CANADA

(15) I have studied about Canada in school

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Never:	24	6.3%
B	Rarely:	165	43.4
C	Sometimes:	170	44.7
D	Often:	10	4.7
E	Frequently:	3	0.8

(16) I have been to Canada before this summer

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Never:	372	97.9%
B	1 visit:	8	2.1
C	2-5 visits:	0	*
D	6-10 visits:	0	*
E	more than 10 visits:	0	*

(17) I have met Canadians in Japan

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Never:	170	45.0%
B	Rarely:	124	32.8
C	Sometimes:	60	18.0
D	Often:	13	3.4
E	Frequently:	3	0.8

(18) I have had a Canadian teacher in Japan

		FREQ	VALID %
A	Never:	285	75.6%
B	One class:	40	10.6
C	One year:	27	7.2
D	More than one year:	6	1.6
E	Other:	19	5.0

Section 4: PERCEPTIONS OF CANADIANS
(PR19)/(PS1) I think Canadians are friendly

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	48.7% = 185	72.2% = 275
B	Agree:	41.8% = 159	25.5% = 97
C	Neutral:	8.9% = 34	2.1% = 8
D	Disagree:	0.3% = 1	*
E	Strongly Disagree:	0.3% = 1	0.3% = 1

t = -8.57
D<.001

(PR20)/(PS2) I think Canadians are polite

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	28.9% = 110	37.0% = 141
B	Agree:	44.7% = 170	39.4% = 150
C	Neutral:	26.3% = 100	23.4% = 89
D	Disagree:	*	*
E	Strongly Disagree:	*	0.3% = 1

t= -2.41
D<.05

(PR21)/(PS3) I think Canadians are honest

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	26.7% = 101	36.2% = 138
B	Agree:	41.3% = 156	36.5% = 139
C	Neutral:	32.0% = 121	27.0% = 103
D	Disagree:	*	0.3% = 1
E	Strongly Disagree:	*	*

t= -3.22
D<.001

(PR22)/(PS4) I think Canadians are helpful

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	55.0% = 209	73.0% = 278
B	Agree:	35.5% = 135	23.4% = 89
C	Neutral:	8.7% = 33	3.4% = 13
D	Disagree:	0.5% = 2	*
E	Strongly Disagree:	0.3% = 1	0.3% = 1

t= -6.57
D<.001

(PR23)/(PS5) I think Canadians are considerate

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	41.3% = 157	52.8% = 201
B	Agree:	38.9% = 148	34.4% = 131
C	Neutral:	18.7% = 71	12.3% = 47
D	Disagree:	0.5% = 2	0.3% = 1
E	Strongly Disagree:	0.5% = 2	0.3% = 1

t= -4.37
D<.001

(PR24)/(PS6) I think Canadians are superficial

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	2.4% = 9	1.1% = 4

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B Agree: .                    9.5% = 36          8.7% = 33
C Neutral:                   44.6% = 168        37.9% = 144
D Disagree:                  32.9% = 124        38.7% = 147
E Strongly Disagree:         10.6% = 40         13.7% = 52
t= 3.03
D<.003
```

(PR25)/(PS7) I think Canadians are rude

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	0.3% = 1	*
B Agree:	0.5% = 2	1.6% = 6
C Neutral:	7.1% = 27	7.1% = 27
D Disagree:	53.0% = 201	48.6% = 185
E Strongly Disagree:	39.1% = 148	42.8% = 163

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t = .49
D = .626
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(PR26)/(PS8) I think Canadians are similar to Japanese people

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	*	0.5% = 2
B Agree:	1.8% = 7	3.9% = 15
C Neutral:	29.8% = 113	34.6% = 132
D Disagree:	50.9% = 193	45.7% = 174
E Strongly Disagree:	17.4% = 66	15.2% = 58

```
t = -2.91
D<.004
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(PR27)/(PS9) I think I know how to behave appropriately with Canadians
(e.g., greetings, conversation topics, etc.)

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	1.1% = 4	2.4% = 9
B Agree:	3.2% = 12	13.1% = 50
C Neutral:	30.3% = 115	54.6% = 208
D Disagree:	53.2% = 202	25.7% = 98
E Strongly Disagree:	12.4% = 47	4.2% = 16

```
t = -12.37
D<.001
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(PR28)/(PS10) I feel confident speaking English to Canadians

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	0.3% = 1	1.8% = 7
B Agree:	4.0% = 15	9.2% = 35
C Neutral:	30.7% = 116	45.5% = 173
D Disagree:	46.8% = 177	36.3% = 138
E Strongly Disagree:	18.3% = 69	7.1% = 27

```
t = -9.24
D<.001
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(PR29)/(PS11) I feel comfortable socializing with Canadians

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	3.9% = 15	7.1% = 27
B Agree:	15.3% = 58	22.6% = 86
C Neutral:	41.8% = 159	43.6% = 166

D Disagree: 31.3% = 119   21.8% = 83
E Strongly Disagree: 7.6% = 29   5.0% = 19
t = -5.53
D<.001

Section 5: PERCEPTIONS OF PROGRAM
(PR30)/(PS12) In this program, I expect to learn about Canada and
Canadians

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	59.7% = 227	26.8% = 102
B Agree:	31.6% = 120	53.3% = 203
C Neutral:	7.4% = 28	18.1% = 69
D Disagree:	0.8% = 3	1.6% = 6
E Strongly Disagree:	0.5% = 2	0.3% = 1

t = 10.17
D<.001

(PR31)/(PS13) In this program, I expect to learn more English

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	75.5% = 287	23.2% = 88
B Agree:	21.6% = 82	43.9% = 167
C Neutral:	2.9% = 11	24.7% = 94
D Disagree:	*	6.6% = 25
E Strongly Disagree:	*	1.6% = 6

t = 18.66
D<.001

(PR32/PS14) In this program, I expect to practice my English

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	80.5% = 305	29.3% = 112
B Agree	17.2% = 65	38.0% = 145
C Neutral:	2.4% = 9	22.3% = 85
D Disagree:	*	8.6% = 33
E Strongly Disagree:	*	1.8% = 7

t = 17.98
D<.001

(PR33/PS15) In this program, I expect to learn about Canadian youth
culture:

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	38.2% = 145	8.9% = 34
B Agree:	40.0% = 152	31.2% = 119
C Neutral:	21.1% = 80	47.9% = 183
D Disagree:	0.8% = 3	11.0% = 42
E Strongly Disagree:	*	1.0% = 4

t = 15.72
D<.001

(PR34)/(PS16) In this program, I expect to be given opportunities to
meet Canadians

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	68.4% = 260	51.0% = 195
B Agree:	25.3% = 96	38.7% = 148
C Neutral:	6.1% = 23	8.6% = 33
D Disagree:	0.3% = 1	1.6% = 6

E Strongly Disagree: *   *
t = 5.31   ·
D<.001

(PR35)/(PS17) In this program, I expect to to have my beliefs challenged
by new experiences
                              PRETEST   POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree: 64.6% = 245   49.9% = 191
B Agree: 26.9% = 102   35.5% = 136
C Neutral: 7.7% = 29   12.3% = 47
D Disagree: 0.5% = 2   2.3% = 9
E Strongly Disagree: 0.3% = 1   *
t = 4.6
D<.001

Section 6: Knowledge of Canada
(PR36)/(PS18) The province you are in is:
                              PRETEST   POSTTEST
A Alberta: 0.3% = 1   *
B Ontario: 0.8% = 3   0.5% = 2
C British Columbia: 56.2% = 212   79.3% = 303
D Quebec: 0.8% = 3   0.3% = 1
E None of these: 41.9% = 158   19.9% = 76
t = -7.49
D<.001

(PR37)/(PS19) The capital city of Canada is:
                              PRETEST   POSTTEST
A Toronto: 6.4% = 24   2.6% = 10
B Montreal: 9.3% = 35   1.6% = 6
C Tokyo: 0.3% = 1   *
D Victoria: 10.4% = 39   2.1% = 8
E Ottawa: 73.7% = 277   93.7% = 358
t = 7.45
D<.001

PR38)/(PS20) How many provinces are there in Canada:

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	0:	1.1% = 4	*
B	8:	22.3% = 83	8.4% = 32
C	10:	21.7% = 81	64.5% = 247
D	50:	50.7% = 189	23.5% = 90
E	None of these:	4.3% = 16	3.7% = 14

t = -2.32
D<.021

(PR39)/(PS21) The population of Canada is:

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	5 million:	8.1% = 20	6.1% = 23
B	50 million:	29.5% = 109	18.3% = 69
C	24 million:	45% = 166	63.7% = 240
D	16 million:	14.6% = 54	11.4% = 43
E	less than 1 million:	2.7% = 10%	0.5% = 2

t = 1.49
D<.137

(PR40)/(PS22) The official language(s) of Canada are:

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	English:	20.6% = 78	12.3% = 47
B	French:	1.6% = 6	1.6% = 6
C	Spanish:	*	*
D	Japanese & English:	0.3% = 1	0.5% = 2
E	English and French:	77.5% = 293	85.6% = 327

t = 3.56
D<.001

(PR41)/(PS23) Which of these are <u>not</u> in Victoria:

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	The Royal B.C. Museum:	13.8% = 52	2.1% = 8
B	Totem poles:	.4% = 15	0.8% = 3
C	University of British Columbia:	43.4% = 164	92.1% = 352
D	Talley-Ho:	34.7% = 131	1.0% = 4
E	Butchart Gardens:	4.2% = 16	3.9% = 15

t = -1.39
D<.166

(PR42)/(PS24) A totem pole is:

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	For telephones:	*	*
B	Indian Food:	1.9% = 7	*
C	Made by Native Canadians:	95.2% = 360	99.7% = 382
D	A big boat:	0.8% = 3	0.3% = 1
E	A type of flower:	2.1% = 8	*

t = -1.68
D<.093

PR43)/(PS25) Canada is a 'cultural mosaic', this means

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
(A) Citizens come form many cultures:	87.2% = 327	97.6% = 373
(B) Different cultures are not allowed:	1.6% = 6	0.5% = 2
(C) No immigrants can enter Canada:	1.9% = 7	*
(D) All Canadians are of one culture:	5.3% = 20	1.3% = 5
(E) All Canadians are artists:	4.0% = 15	0.5% = 2

t = -5.73
D<.001

Section 7: PERCEPTION OF LANGUAGE LEARNING
(PR44)/(PS26) I think learning languages is

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Very difficult:	46.1% = 175	50.7% = 194
B Difficult:	48.2% = 183	39.9% = 153
C OK:	5.3% = 20	8.9% = 34
D Easy:	0.5% = 2	0.5% = 2
E Very easy:	*	*

t = -.15
D<.884

(PR46)/(PS27) I think learning English is

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Very difficult:	37.9% = 144	40.7% = 156
B Difficult:	49.2% = 187	46.7% = 179
C OK:	12.1% = 46	12.0% = 46
D Easy:	0.8% = 3	0.5% = 2
E Very easy:	*	*

t = -.76
D<.447

(PR47)/(PS28) I think learning to read English is

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Very difficult:	24.5% = 93	19.3% = 74
B Difficult:	52.4% = 199	47.0% = 180
C OK:	20.8% = 79	29.8% = 114
D Easy:	2.1% = 8	3.7% = 14
E Very easy:	0.3% = 1	0.3% = 1

t = 4.42
D<.001

(PR48)/(PS29) I think learning to write English is

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Very difficult:	52.9% = 201	41.1% = 157
B Difficult:	41.6% = 158	44.0% = 168
C OK:	5.5% = 21	14.4% = 55
D Easy:	*	0.5% = 2
E Very easy:	*	*

t = 6.69
D<.001

(PR49)/(PS30) I think learning to speak English is

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Very difficult:	50.1% = 190	43.9% = 168
B Difficult:	40.1% = 152	43.3% = 166

C OK: 9.2% = 35   11.0% = 42
D Easy: 0.5% = 2   1.8% = 7
E Very easy: *   *
t = 3.06
D<.002

(PR50)/(PS31) I think learning to understand spoken English is
                     PRETEST   **POSTTEST**
A Very difficult: 39.8% = 151   32.6% = 125
B Difficult: 43.0% = 163   44.1% = 169
C OK: 15.3% = 58   20.6% = 79
D Easy: 1.6% = 6   2.3% = 9
E Very easy: 0.3% = 1   0.3% = 1
t = 3.78
D<.001

(PR51)/(PS32) I think learning to understand Canadian culture is
                     PRETEST   **POSTTEST**
A Very difficult: 10.4% = 39   6.5% = 25
B Difficult: 38.6% = 145   27% = 103
C OK: 47.9% = 180   57.9% = 221
D Easy: 2.9% = 11   7.1% = 27
E Very easy: 0.3% = 1   1.6% = 6
t = 6.98
D<.001

(PR53)/(PS33) I think making friends with Canadians is
                     PRETEST   **POSTTEST**
A Very difficult: 8.2% = 31   1.3% = 5
B Difficult: 31.4% = 119   20.1% = 77
C OK: 52.2% = 198   56.7% = 217
D Easy: 6.6% = 25   17.5% = 67
E Very easy: 1.6% = 6   4.4% = 17
t = 9.45
D<.001

(PR54)/(PS34) I think speaking English to a shop clerk in a store or bus
driver will be

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Very difficult:	12.6% = 48	3.4% = 13
B	Difficult:	46.8% = 178	21.1% = 81
C	OK:	34.5% = 131	53.5% = 205
D	Easy:	5.0% = 19	16.7% = 64
E	Very easy:	1.1% = 4	5.2% = 20

t = 13.13
D<.001

(PR55)/(PS35) I think speaking English to a teacher is

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Very difficult:	12.9% = 49	4.5% = 17
B	Difficult:	49.6% = 188	32.5% = 124
C	OK:	33.2% = 126	51.3% = 196
D	Easy:	3.4% = 13	8.9% = 34
E	Very easy:	0.8% = 3	2.9% = 11

t = 10.28
D<.001

(PR56)/(PS36) I think speaking English to Japanese people is

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Very difficult:	6.9% = 26	8.4% = 32
B	Difficult:	30.6% = 116	25.2% = 96
C	OK:	50.4% = 191	47.0% = 179
D	Easy:	9.5% = 36	14.4% = 55
E	Very easy:	2.6% = 10	5.0% = 19

t = 2.37
D<.018

(PR57)/(PS37) I think that having an accent in English is:

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	A big problem:	41.3% = 157	54.6% = 209
B	A problem:	30.3% = 115	25.6% = 98
C	Only a problem if people can't understand:	27.4% = 104	19.3% = 74
D	Is not a problem:	0.5% = 2	0.3% = 1
E	Is not problem because it reflects my heritage:	0.5% = 2	0.3% = 1

t = -4.68
D<.001

(PR58)/(PS38) I think understanding English television or movies is

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Very difficult:	46.6% = 177	35.5% = 136
B	Difficult:	43.7% = 166	46.5% = 178
C	OK:	9.2% = 35	17.0% = 65
D	Easy:	0.3% = 1	1.0% = 4
E	Very easy:	0.3% = 1	*

t = 4.98
D<.001

(PR59)/(PS39) I believe having good Listening/Speaking skills in English
is:

```
                              PRETEST      POSTTEST
A Very important:          78.1% = 296   82.2% = 315
B Important:               20.1% = 76    14.6% = 56
C OK:                       1.6% = 6      2.9% = 11
D Not important:            0.3% = 1      0.3% = 1
E Not very important:          *              *
t = -1.07
D<.286
```

Section 8: PERCEPTION OF CLASSROOM ROLES (E.G. GOOD LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS)

(PR60)/(PS40) I think the teacher will want me to be polite

```
                              PRETEST      POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:          15.0% = 57    14.4% = 55
B Agree:                   36.9% = 140   28.5% = 109
C Neutral:                 42.0% = 159   43.3% = 166
D Disagree:                 5.5% = 21     9.4% = 36
E Strongly Disagree:        0.5% = 2      4.4% = 17
t = 3.65
D<.001
```

(PR61)/(PS41) I think the teacher will want me to sit quietly until asked a question

```
                              PRETEST      POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:          21.6% = 82    21.2% = 81
B Agree:                   31.6% = 120   30.1% = 115
C Neutral:                 32.4% = 123   33.2% = 127
D Disagree:                10.3% = 39    11.3% = 43
E Strongly Disagree:        4.2% = 16     4.2% = 16
t = .54
D<.592
```

(PR62)/(PS42) I think the teacher will want me to volunteer answers

```
                              PRETEST      POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:          47% = 178     45.3% = 173
B Agree:                   42% = 159     34.3% = 131
C Neutral:                 10.6% = 40    17.5% = 67
D Disagree:                    *          2.1% = 8
E Strongly Disagree:        0.5% = 2      0.8% = 3
t = 2.74
D<.006
```

(PR63)/PS43) I think the teacher will want me to co-operate with other students

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	32.4% = 123	23.6% = 90
B	Agree:	40.8% = 155	28.6% = 109
C	Neutral:	22.9% = 87	41.7% = 159
D	Disagree:	2.6% = 10	3.4% = 13
E	Strongly Disagree:	1.3% = 5	2.6% = 10

t = 5.76
D<.001

(PR64)/(PS44) I think the teacher will want me to compete with other students

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	5.8% = 22	5.5% = 21
B	Agree:	22.1% = 84	12.0% = 46
C	Neutral:	48.9% = 186	50.5% = 193
D	Disagree:	20.3% = 77	24.1% = 92
E	Strongly Disagree:	2.9% = 11	7.9% = 30

t = 5.34
D<.001

(PR65)/(PS45) I think the teacher will correct my English pronunciation and grammar

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	24.5% = 93	27.0% = 103
B	Agree:	45.5% = 173	35.3% = 135
C	Neutral:	25.8% = 98	29.3% = 112
D	Disagree:	4.2% = 16	6.3% = 24
E	Strongly Disagree:	*	2.1% = 8

t = 2.07
D<.039

Section 9: PERCEPTION OF CLASS ACTIVITIES
(PR66)/(PS46) I think the teacher will use music in class

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	2.9% = 11	23.8% = 91
B	Often:	13.7% = 52	28.0% = 107
C	Sometimes:	58.2% = 221	27.7% = 106
D	Rarely:	23.7% = 90	16.8% = 64
E	Never:	1.6% = 6	3.7% = 14

t = -9.88
D<.001

PR67)/(PS47) I think the teacher will use games in class
```
                     PRETEST        POSTTEST
A Always:         7.4% = 28      42.4% = 162
B Often:         36.3% = 138     36.1% = 138
C Sometimes:     50.8% = 193     17.5% = 67
D Rarely:         4.7% = 18       3.7% = 14
E Never:          0.8% = 3        0.3% = 1
t = -13.09
D<.001
```

(PR68)/(PS48) I think the teacher will have us work in groups
```
                     PRETEST        POSTTEST
A Always:         6.6% = 25      32.2% = 123
B Often:         33.5% = 127     34.3% = 131
C Sometimes:     47.5% = 180     24.6% = 94
D Rarely:        11.1% = 42       5.0% = 19
E Never:          1.3% = 5        3.9% = 15
t = -8.05
D<.001
```

(PR69)/(PS49) I think the teacher will have us work in pairs
```
                     PRETEST        POSTTEST
A Always:        14.0% = 53      33.1% = 126
B Often:         40.1% = 152     42.5% = 162
C Sometimes:     39.1% = 148     21.0% = 80
D Rarely:         5.5% = 21       2.1% = 8
E Never:          1.3% = 5        1.3% = 5
t = -8.36
D<.001
```

(PR70)/(PS50) I think the teacher will have us read in English
```
                     PRETEST        POSTTEST
A Always:        35.5% = 135     10.5% = 40
B Often:         33.7% = 128     18.1% = 69
C Sometimes:     21.8% = 83      39.3% = 150
D Rarely:         8.4% = 32      24.6% = 94
E Never:          0.5% = 2        7.6% = 29
t = 15.49
D<.001
```

(PR71)/(PS51) I think the teacher will have us write in English
```
                     PRETEST        POSTTEST
A Always:        11.6% = 44      20.2% = 77
B Often:         31.1% = 118     23.9% = 91
C Sometimes:     44.5% = 169     34.1% = 130
D Rarely:        11.3% = 43      19.7% = 75
E Never:          1.6% = 6        2.1% = 8
t = .00
D = 1.00
```

PR72)/(PS52) I think the teacher will give us homework

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	2.6% = 10	1.3% = 5
B	Often:	9.7% = 37	6.0% = 23
C	Sometimes:	47.4% = 180	34.7% = 133
D	Rarely:	34.2% = 130	37.9% = 145
E	Never:	6.1% = 23	20.1% = 77

t = 6.80
D<.001

(PR73)/(PS53) I think the teacher will give us tests

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	0.5% = 2	0.5% = 2
B	Often:	6.3% = 24	1.0% = 4
C	Sometimes:	43.4% = 165	6.0% = 23
D	Rarely:	39.7% = 151	18.0% = 69
E	Never:	10.0% = 38	74.4% = 285

t = 23.58
D<.001

Section 10: COGNITIVE/LEARNING STYLE:
(PR74)/(PS54) I think I learn best by reading

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	12.4% = 47	7.0% = 27
B	Agree:	32.1% = 122	25.3% = 97
C	Neutral:	36.1% = 137	39.4% = 151
D	Disagree:	16.3% = 62	24.3% = 93
E	Strongly Disagree:	3.2% = 12	3.9% = 15

t = 5.48
D<.001

(PR75)/(PS55) I think I learn best by listening (e.g, lectures, TV, radio, cassettes)

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Strongly Agree:	33.9% = 129	31.9% = 122
B	Agree:	43.2% = 164	40.5% = 155
C	Neutral:	19.7% = 75	24.0% = 92
D	Disagree:	3.2% = 12	3.7% = 14
E	Strongly Disagree:	*	*

t = 1.79
D<.075

(PR76)/(PS56) I think I learn best by writing out notes (eg., organizing information)

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	3.2% = 12	1.6% = 6
B Agree:	15.8% = 60	12.8% = 49
C Neutral:	47.5% = 180	49.6% = 190
D Disagree:	28.5% = 108	28.7% = 110
E Strongly Disagree:	5.0% = 19	7.3% = 28

t = 2.73
D<.007

(PR77)/(PS57) I think I learn best by memorizing words and/or lists

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	6.6% = 25	8.1% = 31
B Agree:	24.2% = 92	29.8% = 114
C Neutral:	47.9% = 182	43.9% = 168
D Disagree:	17.1% = 65	15.9% = 61
E Strongly Disagree:	4.2% = 16	2.3% = 9

t = -2.77
D<.006

(PR78)/(PS58) I think I learn best by practicing by myself (eg., repeating words)

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	10.5% = 40	7.8% = 30
B Agree:	21.1% = 80	20.6% = 79
C Neutral:	38.2% = 145	36.3% = 139
D Disagree:	25.3% = 96	26.9% = 103
E Strongly Disagree:	5.0% = 19	8.4% = 32

t = 2.50
D<.013

(PR79)/(PS59) I think I learn best by practicing speaking with native speakers

	PRETEST	POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:	67.1% = 255	68.4% = 262
B Agree:	26.1% = 99	25.8% = 99
C Neutral:	6.6% = 25	5.0% = 19
D Disagree:	0.3% = 1	0.8% = 3
E Strongly Disagree:	*	*

t = -.58
D<.564

PR80)/(PS60) I prefer to study in a group
```
                           PRETEST      POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:          7.1% = 27     7.3% = 28
B Agree:                  29.6% = 112   29.1% = 111
C Neutral:                50.4% = 191   46.3% = 177
D Disagree:                7.9% = 30    12.3% = 47
E Strongly Disagree:       5.0% = 19     5.0% = 19
t = .74
D<.458
```

(PR81)/(PS61) I prefer to study by myself
```
                           PRETEST      POSTTEST
A Strongly Agree:         11.1% = 42     9.2% = 35
B Agree:                  17.4% = 66    21.2% = 81
C Neutral:                40.5% = 154   48.4% = 185
D Disagree:               22.6% = 86    15.7% = 60
E Strongly Disagree:       8.4% = 32     5.5% = 21
t = -2.14
D<.033
```

(PR82)/(PS62) I speak with native speakers outside of class
```
                         PRETEST     POSTTEST
A Always:                 1.3% = 5     5.5% = 21
B Often:                  6.9% = 26   14.9% = 57
C Sometimes:             45.8% = 173  47.5% = 182
D Rarely:                38.1% = 144  25.3% = 97
E Never:                  7.9% = 30    6.8% = 26
t = -6.32
D<.001
```

(PR83)/(PS63) I listen to English radio/music
```
                         PRETEST     POSTTEST
A Always:                15.8% = 60   16.0% = 61
B Often:                 21.8% = 83   28.3% = 108
C Sometimes:             37.6% = 143  31.7% = 121
D Rarely:                21.1% = 80   18.6% = 71
E Never:                  3.7% = 14    5.5% = 21
t = -1.47
D<.144
```

(PR84)/(PS64) I watch English TV
```
                         PRETEST     POSTTEST
A Always:                 3.2% = 12    2.1% = 8
B Often:                  8.7% = 33   10.4% = 40
C Sometimes:             30.5% = 116  30.3% = 116
D Rarely:                46.6% = 177  42.0% = 161
E Never:                 11.1% = 42   15.1% = 58
t = .96
D<.339
```

(PR85)/(PS65) I read English magazines, newspapers and/or books

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	3.9% = 15	2.3% = 9
B	Often:	5.0% = 19	4.4% = 17
C	Sometimes:	19.5% = 74	21.9% = 84
D	Rarely:	52.4% = 199	46.7% = 179
E	Never:	19.2% = 73	24.5% = 94

t = 1.77
D<.077

(PR86)/(PS66) I read Japanese magazines, newspapers and/or books

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	49.6% = 182	42.4% = 162
B	Often:	29.2% = 107	35.3% = 135
C	Sometimes:	15.5% = 57	14.9% = 57
D	Rarely:	4.9% = 18	6.3% = 24
E	Never:	0.8% = 3	1.0% = 4

t = 1.81
D<.071

(PR87)/(PS67) I write letters/essays/reports in English

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	1.4% = 5	1.6% = 6
B	Often:	3.3% = 12	5.0% = 19
C	Sometimes:	26.0% = 96	26.1% = 100
D	Rarely:	47.4% = 175	48.6% = 186
E	Never:	20.2% = 81	18.8% = 72

t = -1.82
D<.069

(PR88)/(PS68) I write letters/essay/reports in Japanese

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	32.0% = 118	31.9% = 122
B	Often:	42.5% = 157	44.6% = 171
C	Sometimes:	20.9% = 77	18.8% = 72
D	Rarely:	3.5% = 13	3.9% = 15
E	Never:	1.1% = 4	0.8% = 3

t = -.52
D<.606

(PR89)/(PS69) When I write in English, I have problems with grammar/spelling

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	19.5% = 72	15.7% = 60
B	Often:	40.4% = 149	40.6% = 155
C	Sometimes:	36.6% = 135	40.8% = 156
D	Rarely:	3.0% = 11	2.6% = 10
E	Never:	0.5% = 2	0.3% = 1

t = 1.37
D<.173

(PR90)/(PS70) When I write in Japanese, I have problems with grammar/spelling

		PRETEST	POSTTEST
A	Always:	2.2% = 8	3.7% = 14

B Often: 11.1% = 41   14.4% = 55
C Sometimes: 37.0% = 136   38.7% = 148
D Rarely: 46.2% = 170   40.1% = 153
E Never: 3.5% = 13   3.1% = 12
t = -2.61
D<.009

(PR91)/(PS71) I believe having good reading & writing skills in English
is:
                         PRETEST   **POSTTEST**
A Very important: 56.1% = 207   57.7% = 220
B Important: 37.7% = 139   34.1% = 130
C Neutral: 5.7% = 21   7.9% = 30
D Not important: 0.5% = 2   0.3% = 1
E Not very important: *   *
t = -.08
D<.937

(PR92)/(PS72) I think I would like to return to Canada
                         PRETEST   **POSTTEST**
A Strongly Agree: 71.7% = 261   84.7% = 315
B Agree: 17.6% = 64   10.5% = 39
C Neutral: 10.2% = 37   4.0% = 15
D Disagree: 0.3% = 1   0.8% = 3
E Strongly Disagree: 0.3% = 1   *
t = -5.46
D<.001

Appendix B: Descriptive Statistics:
Pre- and post-course teacher questionnaires

		Frequency	% Reply
(2) AGE:	20-25	3	23.1
	26-30	2	15.4
	31-35	2	15.4
	36-40	2	15.4
	41-45	2	15.4
	46-50	1	7.7
	51-55	0	0
	56-60	1	7.7

		Frequency	% Reply
(3) SEX:	FEMALE:	9	64.3%
	MALE:	5	35.7

		Frequency	% Reply
(4) COUNTRY OF ORIGIN:	Canada	11	84.6%
	U.S.	0	0
	U.K.	2	15.4
	Other	0	0

(5) ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME

	FREQ	%
20,000 or less	6	46.2
21-40,000	1	7.7
41-60,000	1	7.7
61-90,000	3	21.4
over 90,000	0	0
No answer (N/A)	2	15.4

(6) LANGUAGES SPOKEN:			FREQ	%
First language:	English		13	100.0
Other languages:	French		6	46.2
	German		3	21.4
	Chinese		1	7.7
	Japanese		4	30.8
	Spanish		1	7.7
	Swedish		1	7.7
	Russian		1	7.7

(7) EDUCATION (Last completed):	FREQ	%
High school	0	0
College diploma	0	0
Bachelors degree	10	76.9
Masters degree	2	15.4
Ph.D.	0	0
ESL diploma	2	15.4
Other:	1	7.7

		FREQ	%
(8) TEACHER-TRAINING:	B.Ed.	2	15.4
	B.A.	6	46.2
	Diploma	3	23.1
	R.S.A.	0	0
	M.A.:	0	0
	Other		
	- None of above	1	7.7
	- B.C. Teaching Certificate	1	7.7
	- M. Ed.	1	7.7

		FREQ	%
(9) I have taught:	ESL/EFL:	13	100.0
	Other: FSL	3	23.1
	Middle school	2	15.4
	High school	1	7.7

		FREQ	%
(10) I have taught for approximately:	1 year or less	2	15.4
	1-2 years	1	7.7
	2-5 years	5	38.5
	6-10 years	4	30.8
	More than 10 years	1	7.7

(11) I have taught in the following country(s) and/or institution(s):

Institution	Country	FREQ	%
Camosun College	Victoria, Canada	5	38.5
University of Victoria	"	1	7.7
Canada Pacific College	"	3	23.1
Intercultural Association	"	1	7.7
Saanich School District	"	1	7.7
ECNU	Shanghai, China	1	7.7
Non-specified	Japan	3	23.1
AMVIC English school	Japan	1	7.7
Non-specified	Victoria, Canada	1	7.7
GEOS	Vancouver, Canada	1	7.7
Non-specified	Canada	4	30.8
Morpho Club	"	1	7.7
Glad Tidings Church	Victoria, Canada	1	7.7
University	New Zealand	1	7.7
Non-specified	Finland	1	7.7
Non-specified	Sweden	1	7.7
Non-specified	Norway	1	7.7
Secondary school	Zimbabwe	1	7.7
Secondary school	Hong Kong	1	7.7

(12) I have taught Japanese students before: Yes: 100%   (13)
                                                 No: 0

(13) I have taught English to Japanese students before:
                                                 Yes: 100% (13)
                                                 No: 0

(14) I have taught English to Japanese students in:

	Freq	%
1 program/course:	0	0.0
2-5 programs/courses:	10	76.9
6-10 programs/courses	2	15.4
More than 10 programs/courses:	1	7.7
Other	0	0.0

(15) I have taught English to female Japanese students before:

Yes:	92.9%	(12)
No:	0	(0)
Didn't answer:	7.1%	(1)

(16) I have taught English to Japanese students in the Camosun/Aoyama program:

	Freq	%
Once before	2	15.4
2-5 programs/courses	3	23.1
6-10 programs/courses	0	0
More than 10 programs/courses	0	0
Other - First time	7	53.8
- Didn't answer	1	7.7

(17) What do you consider to be the most important influences on language acquisition - e.g., techniques, environment, social interaction, etc):

	FREQ	%
Social interaction:	4	30.8
Environment:	6	46.2
Techniques:	5	38.5
Student motivation:	4	30.8
Student attitude:	4	30.8
Teacher ability/attitude:	2	15.4
Programme:	1	7.7
Host family or residential situation:	1	7.7
Real life situations:	1	7.7
Being surrounded by native speakers:	1	7.7

I think the goals of this program are:

	Str. Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Str Disagree	No Answer
[16] Language development	2 (15.4%)	4 (30.8%)	2 (15.4%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (38.5%)
[17] Speaking	9 69.2%	4 30.8%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%
[18] Listening	4 30.8%	6 46.2%	1 7.7%	0 0%	0 0	2 15.4%
[19] Reading	0 0%	3 23.1%	5 38.5%	2 15.4%	0 0	3 23.1%
[20] Writing	0 0%	2 15.4%	6 46.2%	1 7.7%	1 7.7	3 23.1%
[21] Language practice	8 61.5%	1 7.7%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0	4 ·30.8%
[22] Speaking	12 92.3%	1 7.7%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0	0 0%
[23] Listening	7 53.8%	5 38.5%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0	1 7.7%
[24] Reading	0 0%	2 15.4%	8 61.5%	0 0%	0 0	3 23.1%
[25] Writing	0 0%	2 15.4%	7 53.8%	1 7.7%	0 0	3 23.1%
[26] Developing awareness of Canada	4 30.8%	9 69.2%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0	0 0%
[27] Developing awareness of Canadian culture	6 46.2%	7 53.8%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0	0 0%
[28] Students having fun	8 61.5%	5 38.5%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0	0 0%
[29] Other	0 0%	1 7.1%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0	12 85.7%

In general (i.e., not only in this program), I use the following techniques:

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER	No answer
[30] Group work	0 0%	9 69.2%	4 30.8%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%
[31] Individual production	2 15.4%	4 30.8%	6 46.2%	0 0%	0 0%	1 7.7%
[32] Teacher controlled activities	0 0%	6 ·46.2%	7 53.8%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%
[33] Student centered activities	0 0%	10 76.9%	3 23.1%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%
[34] Co-operative activities	0 0%	0 53.8%	0 38.5%	0 0%	0 0%	1 7.7%
[35] Competitive activities	0 0%	3 23.1%	8 61.5%	2 15.4%	0 0%	0 0%

In this program (e.g., ESL for Japanese students), I expect to
use the following techniques:

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER	No Answer
[36] music	0	4	7	1	0	1
	0%	30.8%	53.8%	7.7%	0%	7.7%
[37] games	0	9	4	0	0	0
	0%	69.2%	30.8%	0%	0%	0%
[38] drills	0	2	7	2	2	0
	0%	15.4%	53.8%	15.4%	15.4%	0%
[39] dictation	0	1	3	7	2	0
	0%	7.7%	23.1%	53.8%	15.4%	0%
[40] pair work	2	9	2	0	0	0
	15.4%	69.2%	15.4%	0%	0%	0%
[41] group work	2	6	4	0	0	1
	15.4%	46.2%	30.8%	0%	0%	7.7%
[42] writing activities	1	0	6	5	0	1
	7.7%	0%	46.2%	38.5%	0%	7.7%
[43] reading activities	1	0	5	6	0	1
	7.7%	0%	38.5%	46.2%	0%	7.7%
[44] tests	0	0	2	4	7	0
	0%	0%	15.4%	30.8%	53.8%	0%
[45] homework	0	0	5	4	2	2
	0%	0%	38.5%	30.8%	15.4%	15.4%

In this program, I believe I will emphasize:

	Str Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Str Disagree	No answer
[46] fluency	2	7	4	0	0	0
	15.4%	53.8%	30.8%	0%	0%	0%
[47] accuracy	1	6	3	2	0	1
	7.7%	46.2%	23.1%	15.4%	0%	7.7%
[48] student participation	10	3	0	0	0	0
	76.9%	23.1%	0%	0%	0%	0%
[49] pronunciation	4	6	3	0	0	0
	30.8%	46.2%	23.1%	0%	0%	0%
[50] spelling	0	2	5	4	1	1
	0%	15.4%	38.5%	30.8%	7.7%	7.7%
[51] grammar	0	4	5	3	0	1
	0%	28.6%	38.5%	23.1%	0%	7.1%
[52] reading	0	2	5	5	0	1
	0%	15.4%	38.5%	38.5%	0%	7.7%
[53] writing	0	3	4	5	0	1
	0%	23.1%	30.8%	38.5%	0%	7.7%
[54] communicative competence	10	3	0	0	0	0
	76.9%	23.1%	0%	0%	0%	0%
[55] survival skills	9	4	0	0	0	0
	69.2%	30.8%	0%	0%	0%	0%

I believe a successful student will be one who:

	Str Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Str Disagree	No answer
[56] volunteers answers	6	4	2	0	0	1
	46.2%	30.8%	15.4%	0%	0%	7.1%
[57] speaks frequently	3	6	2	0	0	2
	23.1%	46.2%	15.4%	0%	0%	15.4%
[58] is enthusiastic	7	5	1	0	0	0
	53.8%	38.5%	7.7%	0%	0%	0%
[59] is polite	0	3	6	2	1	0
	0%	23.1%	46.2%	15.4%	7.7%	0%
[60] sits quietly	0	0	7	4	1	0
	0%	0%	53.8%	30.8%	7.7%	0%
[61] co-operates with other students	3	9	1	0	0	0
	23.1%	69.2%	7.7%	0%	0%	0%
[62] consults with other students before answering	0	0	9	4	0	0
	0%	0%	69.2%	30.8%	0%	0%
[63] competes with other students	0	2	8	3	0	0
	0%	23.1%	61.5%	15.4%	0%	0%

I believe the goals of this program are to help students to:

	Str Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Str Disagree	No answer
[64] learn about Canada	2	11	0	0	0	0
	15.4%	84.6%	0%	0%	0%	0%
[65] learn about Canadians	3	10	0	0	0	0
	23.1%	76.9%	0%	0%	0%	0%
[66] learn more English	3	6	3	1	0	0
	23.1%	46.2%	23.1%	7.7%	0%	0%
[67] practice their English	10	3	0	0	0	0
	76.9%	23.1%	0%	0%	0%	0%
[68] learn about Canadian youth culture	0	7	5	0	0	1
	0%	53.8%	38.5%	0%	0%	7.7%
[69] meet Canadians	7	6	0	0	0	0
	53.8%	46.2%	0%	0%	0%	0%
[70] challenge their beliefs by new experiences	6	3	3	1	0	0
	46.2%	23.1%	23.1%	7.7%	0%	0%

(24) I believe the following adjective best describes my personality in the ESL classroom:

	Frequency	%
Organized	2	15.4
Eclectic	7	53.8
Imaginative	1	7.7
Fun	4	30.8
Thorough	0	0
Comprehensive	0	0
Serious	0	0
Spontaneous	1	7.7
Goal-oriented	0	0
Other - Relaxed	1	7.7

(71) I consider myself a good ESL teacher

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	1	7.7
B	Agree	11	84.6
C	Neutral	1	7.7
D	Disagree	0	0
E	Strongly Disagree	0	0

(72) My favourite ESL level to teach is (Circle one):

	Frequency	%
Beginner	6	46.2
Intermediate	9	69.2
Advanced	2	15.4
English for Specific Purposes	1	7.7
Other - All	1	7.7

(73) My favourite age group to teach is:

	Frequency	%
Elementary school	0	0
High school	3	23.1
University	5	38.5
Adult Education	5	38.5
None	1	7.7

(74) I think learning languages is difficult

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	0	0
B	Agree	6	46.2
C	Neutral	3	23.1
D	Disagree	3	23.1
E	Strongly Disagree	1	7.7

(75) I think learning languages is different than learning other subjects

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	3	23.1
B	Agree	7	53.8
C	Neutral	2	15.4
D	Disagree	1	7.7
E	Strongly Disagree	0	0

(76) I consider myself a good language learner

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	5	38.5
B	Agree	6	46.2
C	Neutral	1	7.1
D	Disagree	1	7.1
E	Strongly Disagree	0	0

(77) I think I learn language best by listening (e.g., lectures, TV, etc)

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	0	0
B	Agree	3	23.1
C	Neutral	6	46.2
D	Disagree	3	23.1
E	Strongly Disagree	1	7.7

(78) I think I learn language best by reading

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	0	0
B	Agree	3	23.1
C	Neutral	6	46.2
D	Disagree	2	15.4
E	Strongly Disagree	2	15.4

(79) I think I learn best by writing out notes (e.g., organizing information)

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	2	15.4
B	Agree	6	46.2
C	Neutral	4	30.8
D	Disagree	1	7.7
E	Strongly Disagree	0	0

(80) I think I learn best by memorizing words and/or lists

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	0	0
B	Agree	6	46.2
C	Neutral	1	7.7
D	Disagree	1	7.7
E	Strongly Disagree	1	7.7

(81) I think I learn best by practicing by myself (e.g., repeating words)

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	2	14.3
B	Agree	2	14.3
C	Neutral	7	50.0
D	Disagree	3	21.4
E	Strongly Disagree	0	0

POST-TEST SURVEY RESULTS

I think the goals of this program were:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Str Disagree	No Answer
[2] Language development	6	2	0	0	3	0
	27.3%	54.5%	18.2%	0%	0%	0
[3] Speaking	6	6	1	0	0	0
	46.2%	46.2%	7.7%	0%	0%	0
[4] Listening	3	7	3	0	0	0
	23.1%	53.8%	23.1%	0%	0%	0
[5] Reading	0	3	6	4	0	0
	0%	23.1%	46.2%	30.8%	0%	0
[6] Writing	2	1	5	4	0	0
	16.7%	8.3%	41.7%	33.3%	0%	0
[7] Language practice	7	3	0	0	0	0
	70%	30%	0%	0%	0%	0
[8] Speaking	7	6	0	0	0	0
	53.8%	46.2%	0%	0%	0%	0
[9] Listening	5	7	1	0	0	0
	38.5%	53.8%	7.7%	0%	0%	0
[10] Reading	1	3	7	1	1	0
	7.7%	23.1%	35.8%	7.7%	7.7%	0
[11] Writing	0	3	7	2	0	0
	0%	25%	58.3%	16.7%	0%	0
[12] Developing awareness of Canada	5	8	1	0	0	0
	35.7%	57.1%	7.1%	0%	0%	0
[13] Developing awareness of Canadian culture	8	6	0	0	0	0
	57.1%	42.9%	0%	0%	0%	0
[14] Students having fun	8	6	0	0	0	0
	57.1%	42.9%	0%	0%	0%	0

In this program, I used the following techniques:

	AlWAYS	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	RARELY	NEVER
[16] Group work	0	12	2	0	0
	0%	85.7%	14.3%	0%	0%
[17] Individual production	0	5	8	1	0
	0%	35.7%	57.1%	7.1%	0%
[18] Teacher controlled activities	1	4	9	0	0
	7.1%	28.6%	64.3%	0%	0%
[19] Student centered activities	0	10	4	0	0
	0%	71.4%	28.6%	0%	0%
[20] Co-operative activities	5	8	1	0	0
	35.7%	57.1%	7.1%	0%	0%
[21] Competitive activities	0	8	5	0	1
	0%	57.1%	35.7%	0%	7.1%
[22] music	2	4	5	3	0
	14.3%	28.6%	35.7%	21.4%	0%
[23] games	1	6	6	1	0
	7.1%	42.9%	42.9%	7.1%	0%
[24] drills	0	2	4	4	4
	0%	14.3%	28.6%	28.%6	28.6%
[25] dictation	0	0	4	5	5
	0%	0%	28.6%	35.7%	35.7%
[26] pair work	2	9	3	0	0
	14.3%	64.3%	21.4%	0%	0%
[27] group work	0	10	4	0	0
	0%	71.4%	28.6%	0%	0%
[28] writing activities	0	0	11	3	0
	0%	0%	78.6%	21.4%	0%
[29] reading activities	0	0	7	7	0
	0%	0%	50%	50%	0%
[30] tests	0	0	0	4	10
	0%	0%	0%	28.6	71.4%
[31] homework	0	0	3	8	3
	0%	0%	21.4%	57.1%	21.4%
[32] interviews	1 ·	3	9	1	0
	7.1%	21.4%	64.3%	7.1%	0%

In this program, I believe I emphasized:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
[33] fluency	0	4	8	0	1
	0%	30.8%	61.5%	7.7%	0%
[34] accuracy	0	5	6	3	0
	0%	35.7%	42.5%	21.4%	0%
[35] student participation	8	6	0	0	0
	57.1%	42.9%	0%	0%	0%
[36] pronunciation	2	6	5	1	0
	14.3%	42.9%	35.7%	7.1%	0%
[37] spelling	0	1	8	4	1
	0%	7.1%	57.1%	28.6%	7.1%
[38] grammar	0	4	6	4	0
	0%	28.6%	42.9%	28.6%	0%
[39] reading	0	0	8	6	0
	0%	0%	57.1%	42.9%	0%
[40] writing	0	2	7	5	0
	0%	14.3%	50.0%	35.7%	0%
[41] survival skills	3	11	0	0	0
	21.4%	78.6%	0%	0%	0%

From my observations in this program, I believe a successful Japanese
ESL student was one who:

|		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
[42]	volunteers answers	5	5	4	0	0
		35.7%	35.7%	28.6%	0%	0%
[43]	speaks frequently	6	6	2	0	0
		42.9%	42.9%	14.3%	0%	0%
[44]	is enthusiastic	9	4	1	0	0
		64.3%	28.6%	7.1%	0%	0%
[45]	is polite	1	2	9	1	1
		7.1%	14.3%	64.3%	7.1%	7.1%
[46]	sits quietly	0	0	6	6	2
		0%	0%	42.9%	42.9%	14.3%
[47]	co-operates with other students	3	9	2	0	0
		21.4%	64.3%	14.3%	0%	0%
[48]	consults with other students before answering	0	1	9	2	1
		0%	7.1%	64.3%	21.4%	7.1%
[49]	competes with other students	0	5	8	0	0
		0%	38.6%	61.5%	0%	0%
[50]	sleeps in class	0	0	0	5	9
		0%	0%	0%	35.7%	64.3%

I believe the goals of this program were to help students to:

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
[51]	learn about Canada	4	10	0	0	0
		28.6%	71.4%	0%	0%	0%
[52]	learn about Canadians	8	6	0	0	0
		57.1%	42.9%	0%	0%	0%
[53]	learn more English	3	7	3	1	0
		21.4%	50.0%	21.4%	7.1%	0%
[54]	practice their English	9	5	0	0	0
		64.3%	35.7%	0%	0%	0%
[55]	learn about Canadian youth culture	1	6	7	0	0
		7.1%	42.9%	50%	0%	0%
[56]	meet Canadians	7	5	2	0	0
		50%	35.7%	14.3%	0%	0%
[57]	challenge their beliefs by new experiences	6	4	4	0	0
		42.9%	28.6%	28.6%	0%	0%

[58] I consider myself a good ESL teacher with Japanese ESL students

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	4	28.6
B	Agree	10	71.4
C	Neutral	0	0
D	Disagree	0	0
E	Strongly Disagree	0	0

(68) I feel my students progressed the most in the following area(s):

	Frequency	%
Listening comprehension	4	28.6
Self-confidence	3	21.4
Confidence in speaking English	6	42.9
Broadened horizons	1	7.1
Writing skills improved	1	7.1
Willingness to participate in or try new activities	1	7.1
Risk-taking	1	7.1
Relaxation	1	7.1
Understanding new culture	1	7.1
Loss of inhibitions when speaking to strangers	1	7.1
Communication skills	1	7.1
Better structure and vocabulary	1	7.1
Enjoyment in learning new language	1	7.1
Initiating conversations	1	7.1

[59] I feel this program was successful in attaining its goals:

		Frequency	%
A	Strongly Agree	4	28.6
B	Agree	8	57.1
C	Neutral	2	14.3
D	Disagree	0	0
E	Strongly Disagree	0	0

(10) If I taught in this program again, I would change:

	Frequency	%
Update textbook	1	7.1
New materials	1	7.1
Curriculum	1	7.1
Depends on class	1	7.1
"All about Canada" program	3	21.4
Textbook content	2	14.3
Modify activities	1	7.1
More music	1	7.1

Appendix C: Week 1, Week 2, Week 3 and Week 4 interview questions: Students

Week One
(1) What is your name?
(2) How old are you?
(3) Have you been to Canada before?
(4) Why did you come to Canada?
(5) What do you expect to see and do in Victoria?
(6) What have you seen so far?
(7) Where are you living in Victoria?
(8) Do you like Canadian food?
(9) Do you like speaking English?
(10) What do you think is the easiest/most difficult thing about speaking/learning English?

Week Two
(1) What is your name? [For identification purposes]
(2) How was your first week in Canada?
(3) What is one thing you learnt in class?
(4) What is one thing you did outside of class?
(5) Is Canada/Victoria like you thought it would be?
(6) Are your classes what you expected? (How do you think the teacher expects you to behave in class?)
(7) Do you find it easier to speak English now?
(8) Have you met any Canadians? Who? Where? When?
(9) What are you going to do next week?
(10) What are some new words/ideas you have learnt this week?

Week Three
(1) What is your name? [For identification purposes]
(2) How was your second week in Canada?
(3) What are some new words/ideas you have learnt this week?
(4) Tell me about something you did outside of class.
(5) What is one thing you have found to be the same/different in Japan and Victoria/Canada?
(6) What was your favourite activity in class last week?
(7) Do you find it easier to speak English now?
(8) Have you met any Canadians? Who? Where? When?
(9) What are you going to do next week?
(10) Tell me about your homestay (if you have already gone)

Week Four
(1) What is your name? [For identification purposes]
(2) How was your third week in Canada?
(3) What are some new words/ideas you have learnt this week?
(4) Tell me about something you did outside of class.
(5) What is one thing you have found to be the same/different in Japan and Victoria/Canada?
(6) What was your favourite activity in class last week?
(7) Do you find it easier to speak English now?
(8) Have you met any Canadians? Who? Where? When?
(9) Tell me about your homestay (if you have already gone)
(10) Describe your overall impressions of Canada, Canadians, and the Language Institute. Were they what you expected?

Appendix D: Pre- and post-course interview questions: Teachers

Pre-course Interview
(1) What is your name?
(2) How long have you been teaching? Teaching ESL?
(3) Where did you learn to teach ESL?
(4) Have you taught ESL to Japanese students before? In this program? Do you expect Japanese students to react differently than your other students?
(5) What do you consider your "theoretical perspective" on ESL? (How do you think students learn?)
(6) What do you consider to be the goals and objectives of the Summer Institute?
(7) What are your goals and expectations for this program?
(8) What are your goals and expectations for language development in this program? (i.e., which skills in general will be your focus?)
(9) What are your expectations for developing awareness of Canada and/or Canadian culture in this program?
(10) How would you describe your "teaching style"?
(11) What are some of your favourite teaching techniques? Why?
(12) What do you think the students expect to get out of this program?
(13) How do you expect the students to behave in the program? Explain (e.g., cultural influences, etc.)
(14) How would you describe a "good language learner"? What are some of the key characteristics, and why?
(15) In your opinion, what are some of the potential benefits and liabilities of short-term intensive language programs?

Post-course Interview
(1) What did you consider to be the goals and objectives of the Summer Institute?
(2) In your opinion, were these goals and objectives met?
(3) What were your goals and expectations for this program?
(4) In your opinion, were these goals and objectives met?
(5) What were your goals and expectations for language development in this program? (i.e., which skills in general will be your focus?)
(6) In your opinion, were these goals and objectives met?
(7) What were your expectations for developing awareness of Canada and/or Canadian culture in this program?
(8) In your opinion, were these goals and objectives met?
(9) How would you describe your "teaching style"?
(10) Do you feel you had to change any aspect of your "style" to meet the needs of these students? Of the course?
(11) What are some of your favourite teaching techniques? Why?
(12) What did you think the students expected to get out of this program?
(13) In your opinion, were these goals and objectives met?
(14) How did you expect the students to behave in the program? Explain (e.g., cultural influences, etc.)
(15) Were your expectations accurate? Why/why not?
(16) How would you describe a "good language learner"?
(17) Did any/all of your students fulfill this description?
(18) What were some of the key characteristics you believe helped students learn? Why?
(19) In your opinion, what are some of the potential benefits and liabilities of short-term intensive language programs? Are short-term intensive language programs in general a good idea?
(20) What are your recommendations for curriculum and/or program development for this or similar programs?

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