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Interactions Between Cultural Attitudes, Cultural Instruction, and Second Language Use by International Students at the University Level

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Abstract

While participating in study abroad programs, language instructors and learners alike hope that learners will have many opportunities for communicative intercultural engagement in the second language (L2). Such interactions are desirable because correlations exist between the quantity and quality of L2 interactions that learners have and the ultimate language gains that they attain while studying in a host country (e.g., Baker-Smemoe, et al., 2012; Dewey, et al., 2013; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006). In order to optimize L2 development, this study investigates learners' out-of-class L2 use, cultural attitudes, and social motivations, in addition to analyzing how these factors may be impacted by different types of cultural instruction.

The data for this study are drawn from two upper-intermediate, first-year classes of English as a Second Language (ESL) at a university in the US, targeting the following: (1) free-writing exercises involving cultural knowledge and experiences, and (2) a pre- and post-intervention survey of cultural attitudes and intercultural L2 use. The intervention provided explicit cultural instruction in one class and implicit cultural instruction in the other. Quantitative and qualitative analyses focus on the ways in which explicit and implicit cultural instruction impact learners' attitudes, which may relate to the ways in which they interact in the L2, integrate into the host community, and use the L2 meaningfully for intercultural interactions outside of class.

Results offer insights into the baseline cultural attitudes and social motivations of ESL learners who have recently arrived for extended study abroad experiences in the US, in addition to providing information regarding learners' patterns of L2 usage and their perspectives on intercultural communication. Statistical analyses demonstrate that while

attitudes and motivations did have positive increases throughout the course of one semester, varying pedagogical interventions involving explicit or implicit methods of cultural instruction did not appear to have a significant effect. This may have implications for course design as instructors consider how to best provide cultural instruction in the second language classroom.

INTERACTIONS BETWEEN CULTURAL ATTITUDES, CULTURAL INSTRUCTION,

AND SECOND LANGUAGE USE

BY INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL

by

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B.A., Brigham Young University, 2013

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The issue of intercultural interaction in education has risen to the forefront in recent years, largely driven by the surging populations of international students around the globe and the interconnectedness of an increasingly mobile global population. As of 2013, numbers of international students registered for higher education in the United States had been rising for seven consecutive years, with the most recent report stating that approximately 820,000 students from other nations are currently studying in the US. This means that nearly 4% of the total population of students at US colleges and universities are international, with about half of this population originating from China, India, and Saudi Arabia (Institute of International Education, 2013). As these students have arrived at campuses across the United States in ever-rising numbers, many scholars in the fields of applied linguistics and intercultural studies have become aware of the need to investigate how international and domestic students interact in educational settings. If a primary goal of international study is for students to learn to function in a globalized society by developing relationships across cultural boundaries, it is important to know if and how intercultural connections are being made, as well as to understand any potential barriers that could impede them.

The issue of intercultural communication is also relevant with regards to the linguistic development of students who are studying internationally. Those individuals who have been arriving for studies in a host country often hope to improve their second language skills as they pursue other goals, such as obtaining a degree from a university. Many enroll in classes of English as a Second Language (ESL), either as a program requirement or simply due to a desire to enhance their experiences. As valuable as

classroom instruction may be to these second language learners, they also have the opportunity while studying abroad to interact regularly with other speakers of the target language, especially native speakers. These second language (L2) interactions can be quite important to learners' linguistic development, since correlations have been found between the quantity and quality of L2 interactions that learners have and the ultimate language gains that they attain while studying in a host country (e.g., Baker-Smemoe et al., 2012; Dewey et al., 2013; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006). As such, learners and instructors may be interested in finding ways to optimize learners' opportunities to have beneficial L2 interactions throughout the course of their study abroad experiences.

To better understand the factors that impact intercultural interaction and L2 usage on study abroad, this study explores two main research questions. The first is to determine what patterns exist regarding L2 usage and cultural attitudes among international students at a large US university. This involves exploring the frequency of learners' out-of-class L2 usage, the circumstances in which the L2 is used, the types of relationships learners form with native L2 speakers, attitudes towards intercultural interaction, and motivations for using the L2 socially. The second research question involves whether or not differing types of cultural instruction in the L2 classroom have an impact on L2 usage, cultural attitudes, and social motivations. This question was explored by conducting an intervention study in which one section of a university ESL course was taught with explicit cultural instruction and a separate section of the same course was provided with implicit cultural instruction.[1] Both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered to explore these two questions.

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[1] In this study, usage of the terms *explicit* and *implicit* is akin to their use in language pedagogy to differentiate between, for example, varying methods of grammar instruction (e.g., Long, 1991) based on the extent to which learner attention is deliberately directed towards language phenomena.

In Chapter 2 of this paper, a literature review is presented to summarize relevant prior research that explores the efficacy of study abroad contexts for language learning and that specifically establishes a connection between the level of L2 usage, which may be greater in immersion contexts, and overall gains in L2 proficiency. It also summarizes research regarding factors that impact effective usage of the second language, including both the quantity and quality of L2 interactions. Other relevant factors that are discussed in the literature include difficulties in forming friendships across cultural and linguistic boundaries, the impact of individual learners' degrees of communicative competency, their attitudes towards culture and intercultural interaction, and their motivation for improving their L2 skills. Additionally, this chapter includes prior research on the efficacy of cultural instruction and on various types of cultural instruction that have been implemented in second language classrooms. An understanding of what has been researched previously in these areas serves to situate the current study as one expanding previous research in order to more specifically explore interactions between L2 use, cultural attitudes, and cultural instruction with regards to advanced English language learners in the US.

Chapter 3 outlines the methods that were used to conduct this study, including a discussion of who the 32 participants were and how they were recruited from their university-level ESL course at a US university; although all participants were enrolled in the same course, they were divided between two separate class sections. This chapter provides examples of how the intervention study, in which one class received explicit cultural instruction while the other received implicit cultural instruction, was carried out on a daily basis within the classroom. It also details the survey that was used to gather quantitative data regarding the learners' background information, patterns of L2 use, types

of relationships with native L2 speakers, cultural attitudes, and social motivations. Finally, this chapter includes a discussion of the qualitative methodology that was used to collect learners' perspectives on cultural interaction and other aspects of their experiences as study abroad students in the form of weekly journal entries throughout the semester.

In Chapter 4, the relevant results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses are presented. Patterns regarding L2 use, cultural attitudes, and social motivations were analyzed with descriptive and inferential statistics as well as qualitative coding in order to determine that there were few, if any, impacts of the intervention study on ultimate outcomes for learners. However, the data also revealed interesting insights into the learners' experiences. Major findings include that the majority of learners reported using the L2 outside of class on a regular basis, but that they spent more time speaking their native language than they did the target language. Additionally, reported levels of English use decreased throughout the course of the study, while the numbers of reported intercultural relationships increased over time. Furthermore, attitudes towards culture and motivations for using the L2 socially became more positive throughout the course of the study. The data also suggested that, while the learners wanted to increase their interactions with native L2 speakers, they encountered several obstacles to doing so.

Chapters 5 and 6 end this paper with a discussion of the results and a conclusion. Among other relevant areas of discussion, Chapter 5 explains that the results of this study support previous findings regarding the fact that L2 usage by study abroad participants is often lower than what might be expected for an immersion situation and that cultural and social barriers can make intercultural interaction difficult. It also suggests that the lack of a significant impact from the intervention warrants further research to determine if type of

cultural instruction would have more of an effect in a different setting, such as a lower-level

L2 course. Avenues for further research are presented, including the possibility of

exploring the data from this study from an individual perspective to gain insights into why

some learners have higher levels of L2 usage and more positive attitudes and motivations

than others, as well as to determine what impact, if any, the three variables of L2 usage,

cultural attitudes, and social motivations might have on each other. Based on the results

and discussion presented in this paper, it may be possible to better understand the ways in

which L2 learners participating in study abroad experiences interact in the L2 and view

social and cultural issues, as well as the implications this may have for in-class cultural

instruction.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Intercultural Interaction in Immersive L2 Education

Since learners in study abroad settings are immersed in the target language and culture, they have many opportunities for using the L2 to interact with members of the host culture. Research has indicated that studying abroad in this type of immersive setting does lead to gains in L2 proficiency for many language learners (e.g. Carroll, 1967; Magnan, 1986). Additionally, some research has indicated that study abroad students may achieve substantially greater gains than their counterparts in traditional foreign language classrooms, at least within the realms of oral fluency and vocabulary acquisition (e.g. Freed, 1995; Milton & Meara, 1995; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). Since the most obvious difference between study abroad and traditional language classroom situations is the input-rich environment that linguistic immersion provides to learners, it is plausible that frequent interactions in the L2 could be related to the increased language gains experienced by many study abroad students. This would imply that frequent intercultural interaction by those learners who travel to a host country in order to further their studies is an important factor in ultimate language gains. If learners are to maximize their time abroad, it may be necessary to successfully navigate the complexities of intercultural communication on a regular basis. In order to more completely understand these issues, it is important to examine the relationship between meaningful communication and language acquisition, as well as the factors that may impact learners' target language usage while studying abroad in immersion contexts.

2.2. Intercultural Interaction and Language Acquisition

2.2.1. L2 usage on study abroad

Recent research has focused on the social aspect of second language acquisition (SLA), since language and socialization are inherently intertwined. Along with a recognition that language cannot be separated from its social context, language pedagogy has shifted to an emphasis on communicative approaches, in which instructors encourage their learners to participate in meaningful target-language interactions on a regular basis in order to develop well-rounded, socially-appropriate language skills (Pan, 2013; Savignon, 1987; Whong, 2012). In study abroad contexts, this can apply to using the L2 both in and out of the classroom, since opportunities for L2 use are generally widely available in the host country. Learners who are directly enrolled at universities have access to native speakers in their classes, dormitories, and many other areas of campus life. Learners who participate in other study abroad programs, such as those involving intensive language programs or cultural exploration programs, likewise have access to L2 speakers in the homes of their host families, their neighborhoods, or various educational settings.

It is important to note that some home country language programs, such as intensive immersion programs, can enable students to receive as much or more target language input than study abroad programs (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004). Learners who travel abroad may use their native language with friends or classmates, and may be able to get by without actually using the target language much at all. Additionally, the research on how much time learners spend using their native language as opposed to the target language is inconclusive; a study by Freed et al. (2004) found that study abroad participants reported using the L2 more often than their native language, while a later

study by Trentman (2013a) found the opposite. Other research has indicated that study abroad students generally tend to be successful in taking advantage of opportunities for L2 interactions and do use the L2 outside of class more frequently than similar learners in traditional classroom contexts (Hernández, 2010). Based on the current body of research, it seems that many variables may impact the degree to which learners use their L1 and L2 while on study abroad, ranging from the program design to the number of L1 speakers in the region to individual personal goals and motivations.

Regardless of how study abroad programs compare with various other types of learning contexts, however, it is clear that learners do have many opportunities for engaging in the L2. It is also interesting to note that learners themselves have reported that they believe the most valuable aspect of study abroad is the interactions they can have with native speakers (Dewey, 2007). In one study, for example, the vast majority of learners (87-91%) indicated that they believed spending time interacting with native speakers is much more valuable than the instruction they receive in classrooms while on study abroad; this result was consistent both before and after participating in a study abroad program (Pellegrino, 1998). Although there seems to be some individual variation, data regarding actual L2 use as well as learner perceptions suggest that L2 interactions are an important factor in study abroad programs.

2.2.2. L2 usage and language proficiency

The idea that increased L2 interactions impact study abroad participants' ultimate language development has been widely accepted due to its common-sense appeal. Research on the topic has largely supported this idea, with a few important qualifications.

Early research regarding out-of-class L2 usage did not reveal a convincing connection to L2 proficiency (e.g., Spada, 1986; Freed et al., 2004), but a recent study by Baker-Smemoe et al. (2012), which relied on an improved methodology involving a longer study time and larger sample size, demonstrated that there may be a significant positive correlation between these two variables. Findings from other studies (Hernández, 2010; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004), have also suggested that learners' increased L2 usage on study abroad, as compared with learners in traditional language classrooms, may be connected to their greater gains in speaking proficiency.

As important as using the L2 seems to be, however, other research has indicated that the quality of time spent interacting in the L2 may be more significant than the quantity. In other words, the types of L2 communication that students engage in may have more of an impact than the amount of time spent in these interactions. In a large-scale study of over 100 language learners participating in study abroad programs in six different countries, Baker-Smemoe et al. (2014) found that factors relating to the types of relationships learners formed with native speakers were more significantly related to proficiency gains than the amount of out-of-class language usage. Statistical analyses revealed that learners' social dispersion, or the number of social groups to which they belong, and the intensity, or closeness, of their relationships were significantly related to their language development. This seems to indicate that simply using the target language outside of class is not sufficient to drive substantial linguistic gains. Instead, participation in many groups and the formation of close relationships may be necessary, as they enable learners to participate in frequent, meaningful L2 interactions.

These findings are also reflected in Isabelli-Garcia's (2006) study involving qualitative data gathered from interviews and diary entries provided by four students on study abroad in Argentina. In this case, learners' success in developing strong social relationships while living in a host country was related to their ultimate language gains over the course of the study abroad. Part of the reason why social relationships may be influential in L2 development is simply because those learners who are regularly interacting with friends in the target language will have greater amounts of L2 use. Furthermore, those learners who form close friendships with native speakers may have more opportunities to use the L2 for more in-depth and meaningful interactions than those who engage only in more surface-level conversations with acquaintances. These results seem to be supported by studies finding a positive correlation between intercultural friendships and learners' academic success as well as their general satisfaction with their time spent on study abroad (Ward & Masgoret, 2004; Rohrlich & Martin, 1991).

2.2.3. Factors that impact intercultural interaction

If meaningful L2 use within strong social relationships is key to language development on study abroad, it follows that learners and instructors would want to understand how to maximize opportunities for interaction with native speakers outside of the classroom. Aside from the cultural enrichment that can be gained through the formation of intercultural relationships, these interactions may have an important impact on a learner's ultimate academic or linguistic success while studying in a host country; by developing a network of social relationships with individuals of varying linguistic and cultural backgrounds while studying in-country, learners may have access to a consistent

supply of deep and meaningful L2 interactions that can benefit their linguistic development. This may indicate that instructors can assist their students linguistically by making an effort to facilitate opportunities for intercultural interaction outside of the classroom. These efforts may be as simple as encouraging learners to reach out and make friends with people from different backgrounds, or organizing activities in which learners and native speakers can get to know one another.

However, while research has shown that study abroad participants generally want to make friends with native L2 speakers, they often encounter difficulties (Bataller, 2010; Gareis, Merkin, & Goldman, 2011; Ward & Masgoret, 2004). Many learners form no or few close friendships with host nationals while on study abroad, with studies of international students around the world reporting that anywhere from 17 to 70% of learners do not form friendships with native L2 speakers, including 24 percent of learners in a recent study at a university in New York City (Gareis et al., 2011). As discussed previously, it seems likely that some learners who do not become friends with and therefore do not spend significant amounts of time with native L2 speakers may not use the target language as often as they might otherwise. It is also possible that some learners might form relationships with other non-native L2 speakers, however, and spend time interacting in the target language with those friends. Since it is clear that there is wide variation in learners' success in forming friendships while on study abroad, researchers have explored various factors that might impact learners' intercultural interactions, relationship formation, and subsequent out-of-class language use.

2.2.4. Communicative competency

In order to interact confidently with native speakers of the L2, learners must have obtained a certain degree of spoken proficiency in the L2 as well as an understanding of how to act appropriately in a variety of social situations, based on the social expectations of the host community (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Learners must be able to navigate the many interconnected aspects of communicating effectively in the target culture, such as code-switching between different linguistic domains, coordinating verbal and body language, and interpreting non-verbal cues from interlocutors. Those learners who have high levels of communicative competency may be more likely to have positive experiences with native speakers, while those who have lower levels may experience more communicative breakdowns and struggle to interact in the L2. Interestingly, Gareis et al. (2011) demonstrated that learners' perceived L2 proficiency, an important component of communicative competency, is positively correlated with their willingness to communicate in the target language.

2.2.5. Cultural attitudes

Another individual factor that may have a significant impact on target language use relates to learners' cultural attitudes. For example, Isabelli-Garcia (2006) found that learners' varying tendencies for ethnorelativism or ethnocentrism may be connected to their motivations for intercultural communication. Those who are more ethnocentric generally deny or minimize cultural differences altogether, or they acknowledge differences but insist that one group is superior to the other. These individuals may have more negative feelings towards the host culture; alternatively, they may be less open to

learning about cultural differences. In either case, this could lead to less of a desire to interact with local L2 speakers while on study abroad. If learners harbor strong prejudices regarding the host culture, this could affect their willingness to participate in cultural activities and their success in developing close social relationships with native speakers. They may see native speaker acquaintances more as a tool to be used for language development rather than as true and lasting friends.

In contrast, those who tend to favor ethnorelativism over ethnocentrism tend to acknowledge and accept differences in cultures, either by adapting to a new culture or by developing a sense of pluralism and recognizing the role that cultural differences play in individual and group identity. Learners who fall towards the ethnorelativism end of the spectrum may be more open to new cultural experiences. They may have a curiosity about cultural differences and also may be more capable of recognizing the positive as well as the negative in the L2 culture. These traits could enable them to more easily integrate and participate in the host community. Hernández (2010) also found that those learners who engage in L2 cultural activities on a regular basis have higher levels of social interaction in the L2. If they are interested in learning more about the target culture and have positive feelings about it, learners may be more willing to participate in cultural events and be able to form intercultural friendships more easily.

Similarly, the ways in which learners perceive their own and the host community's cultural identities may impact the ways in which they interact while on study abroad (Kinginger, 2013). Whenever learners are immersed in a new cultural context, they must navigate the differences between the ways in which they perceive the world and the new perspectives and behavior patterns that they encounter. If they have a difficult time coming

to terms with cultural differences, learners may struggle to adjust and may reject integration with the host culture. On the other hand, if they are able to develop a balanced perspective in which they recognize the factors that have shaped their own and others' cultural identities, they may be more readily able to accept the behaviors or ideas of those in the host country, in spite of the differences that are inevitably apparent in any situation involving intercultural contact. If learners are more successful in negotiating differences of identity, they may be more likely to connect and form relationships with native speakers.

2.2.6. Attitudes towards intercultural relationships

It appears that many learners participating in study abroad experiences are less satisfied with their relationships that cross cultural and linguistic boundaries than they are with those they form with other international students who share their own cultural background. This has been shown to be the case in learners who are new to the host country, as well as those who are long-term residents (Gareis et al., 2011; Trice & Elliott, 1993). In one study, for example, it was found that some L2 learners struggled to bond with students in the United States, where they were studying, because they felt that their relationships were superficial and pursued for academic purposes rather than to build a true personal connection (Trice & Elliott, 1993). In another study, learners reported that they were more easily able to connect with and support other non-native L2 speakers who understood their experiences, causing them to group together rather than reach out to the host community (Gareis et al., 2011). While friendships with fellow international students may certainly provide beneficial support, the fact that learners can rely on each other,

especially in areas or programs with large numbers of conationals, may decrease the

perceived need to form relationships with native L2 speakers.

2.2.7. Motivation

Furthermore, some research suggests that learners' motivations for learning the L2

may impact their degree of intercultural interaction and relationship building. As explained

by Gardner and Lambert (1959), there are two different types of motivation that influence

language learning: intrinsic and integrative. Intrinsic motivation, related to practical factors

such as earning a high grade or working towards a degree, and integrative motivation,

concerning an internal desire to learn languages or understand a culture, may both play

roles in language acquisition. However, it has been shown that learners who are more

strongly motivated by integrative factors tend to reach higher levels of language

achievement (Dörnyei, 2001). In a quantitative study involving 44 participants, Hernández

(2010), found a significant correlation between levels of integrative motivation and the

amount of time that learners spend interacting in the target language outside of class, both

while on study abroad and in traditional language programs. This seems to indicate that

those with more integrative motivations are more likely to seek out and take advantage of

opportunities to interact with native speakers and use the L2.

2.2.8. Perspectives of locals

Another key factor to consider in the success of study abroad participants in

forming relationships with native speakers of the L2 is the attitudes of the locals towards

intercultural interaction. Importantly, albeit unfortunately, international students may face

prejudice in the host country, which could impact their abilities to interact with native speakers. For example, Marginson et al. (2010) found that about 50 percent of international students included in a study in Australia faced some type of negative attention or prejudice during their time on study abroad. Learners' experiences with prejudice may vary depending on their own nationality and the current state of foreign relations between the host country and their home country. If they are from a nation that is an ally with the host country, or that is perceived as sophisticated or prestigious, the learners may not struggle to make friends; on the contrary, they may find that they are easily welcomed. On the other hand, if they are from a nation that has political or military conflicts with the host country, or that is perceived as less desirable, the students may struggle to find host nationals who are willing to befriend them. The prejudice that learners encounter may differ depending on their own backgrounds and on the individual opinions of the native speakers they meet, but there is no question that many international students do encounter it in one form or another.

Additionally, it is worth examining the perspectives of local students, since many L2 learners study alongside domestic students at universities or other educational institutions in host countries. To complement previously-existing research on the experiences of international students, Colvin and Volet (2014) examined the types of experiences that domestic students at a US university had with international students who were in long-term study abroad situations. These researchers found that the domestic students had a wide range of reported experiences, but those students who had had prior cultural experiences or who had greater cultural interests were more likely to connect in meaningful ways with international students. Colvin, Volet, and Frazer (2013) also found

that domestic students' attitudes and perceptions of culture and diversity impacted the ways in which they interacted with students from differing cultures.

In addition to exploring the ways in which domestic and international students interact outside of the classroom, researchers have investigated the ways in which classroom assignments or teacher-directed interactions might impact cultural attitudes of students from differing backgrounds. Through both qualitative and quantitative analyses, Moore and Hampton (2014) found that domestic students have a range of perceptions and attitudes towards working on group projects with international students, and vice versa. Interestingly, the vast majority (79%) of domestic students indicated that they prefer working with other domestic students. In contrast, only 29% of international students reported a preference for working with other internationals (Moore & Hampton, 2014). This seems to indicate that international students have more favorable views towards intercultural interaction in classroom settings than do domestic students, perhaps because they are more keenly aware of the ways in which they might benefit from interactions with locals – linguistically, academically, or otherwise.

It is also significant to note that some of the local students who participated in Moore and Hampton's (2014) study gained an increased understanding of different cultures through their interactions with diverse groups, but others were negatively impacted as a result of the challenges that they experienced when asked to complete assignments in mixed domestic-international groups. If students have a difficult time working together in classroom situations, this could affect their attitudes towards intercultural interaction in general and make it more difficult for international students to build relationships with domestic students. Since students often make friends in classes,

negative experiences with group work could lead them to self-segregate and ultimately

harm their abilities to get to know one another and interact with each other in meaningful

ways.

2.3. Facilitating Intercultural Interaction on Study Abroad

In order to optimize learners' experiences while on study abroad and to overcome

some of the challenges of forming beneficial relationships with locals in the host country,

researchers have proposed various interventions or pedagogical tools that can be used in

language programs. For example, Dewey et al. (2013) found that requiring learners on

study abroad in the Middle East to speak outside of class for at least two hours daily was

found to be very beneficial; the learners reported that this was one of the most useful

interventions that helped them interact with and form relationships with native L2

speakers. Similarly, Kinginger (2011) indicates that learners are most likely to successfully

meet language goals on study abroad when their instructors actively encourage them to

participate in the host community. Learners should be taught to navigate their

relationships as visitors in a new culture, and to appropriately navigate patterns of local

communication in order to maintain a positive reception in the community. For example,

they can be taught pragmatic skills such as appropriate leave-taking exchanges in a variety

of situations, or the unspoken cultural rules regarding interaction and communication with

individuals of differing sexes.

Active reflection about their linguistic and cultural experiences may be another

useful tool for assisting learners in maximizing their time in a host country for study

abroad. Kinginger (2011) suggests that reflection may be a key feature of successful study

abroad programs. To facilitate this reflection on the part of learners, Dewey et al. (2013) and Stewart (2010) used journals as a tool for students to reflect on their experiences and as a method for gathering qualitative data regarding relationships between students' attitudes or social identities and their ultimate linguistic gains on study abroad. In journals such as these, learners can think through the experiences that they have had with native speakers, allowing them to more readily recognize their successes, identify problems, and develop a plan for further interactions. When learners, through the use of journals, are able to more tangibly see the effects of their efforts to participate socially in the host culture, it can be easier for them to continue interacting throughout their time studying abroad.

Various other programs that deliberately bring learners into contact with native L2 speakers can be beneficial in providing opportunities for intercultural interaction. For example, learners could be placed in host family situations, live with native L2 speaking roommates, or enroll in classes alongside domestic students. While these measures may be effective in some cases, Trentman (2013b) found that merely ensuring that learners are in close spatial proximity to native speakers is not always sufficient to facilitate frequent meaningful conversations in the target language. This aligns with earlier research indicating that host families or other similar living situations do not necessarily provide many opportunities for L2 interaction, particularly if there are not close bonds between the learners and the native speakers (Rivers, 1998; Wilkinson, 1998). Rather, Trentman (2013b) suggests that is important for learners to regularly interact in communities in which they are able to actively contribute on a regular basis. To assist students, instructors or program directors could therefore encourage their students to join a club or a team in

which they are interested and which could provide enriching opportunities for L2

interaction.

2.3.1. *Direct cultural instruction*

Multiple researchers have also suggested that cultural instruction can have a

positive impact on learners' willingness to engage in meaningful intercultural interactions

and ultimate out-of-class L2 usage (e.g., Baker-Smemoe et al., 2014; Gareis et al., 2011). Due

to the challenges that international students often face with regards to forming strong

intercultural friendships, Gareis et al. (2011) indicates that instructors need to be aware of

their students' sociolinguistic needs and should construct pedagogical materials to

specifically target language skills needed for social interaction as well as provide cultural

training. Since it seems to be important for study abroad participants to regularly interact

with locals, it stands to reason that L2 students should be provided with the tools that they

need to successfully interact in the host culture in addition to their regular academic

language training; they need to develop pragmatic skills in addition to other areas of

language development.

In one illustration of how this cultural instruction can be structured, Koike and

Lacorte (2014) describe a case study in which learners participated in activities that

involved engaging with various situations regarding cultural differences. The learners were

also able to review the results of surveys that they had taken and that members of the

target language/culture had taken. Through these activities in the language classroom,

learners were able to develop increased intercultural competency. As a result, they were

better prepared to understand the nuances of the target culture and to take part in effective

cross-cultural interactions, making it more likely that they could develop successful relationships with native L2 speakers. Herández (2010) also indicates that incorporating instruction on interacting with the target culture as well as approaches that help increase learners' motivation to gain greater cultural understanding can be useful within the language classroom.

Although cultural themes are an inherent aspect of any language class, the literature seems to indicate that providing explicit cultural instruction in the L2 classroom may be important for the purposes of increasing learners' intercultural interaction, particularly in immersion situations. Therefore, this study further explores how direct cultural instruction may impact L2 learners' out-of-class target language usage while on study abroad. In particular, it examines the ways in which regular classroom discussions involving an explicit focus on culture may impact learners' cultural attitudes and/or their motivations for interacting with native speakers. If this explicit cultural instruction has a positive impact, it would lend support to the prior research as well as provide more information on the mechanisms by which cultural instruction leads to increased target language usage, thus having significant implications for the ways in which instructors could design their courses in order to achieve the best possible outcomes for their study abroad learners.

Chapter 3: Methodology

To examine the relationships between modes of cultural instruction and learners'

out-of-class L2 use, cultural attitudes, and motivation for L2 development, a mixed-

methods study was undertaken with 32 participants, all of whom were international

students studying at a medium-sized, private university in Central New York. The

participants were each enrolled in one of two sections of an upper-intermediate class of

English as a Second Language. For most of the learners, this course was taken as a

necessary step in a series of ESL writing courses that fulfills a university requirement for

graduation. The two sections of the course were taught by the author of this study,

ensuring that the same basic lessons and materials were used in each class. However, the

sections differed in that one (Class A) only explored cultural issues implicitly, while the

other (Class B) included explicit cultural instruction. To measure any differences in the

learners' intercultural L2 usage and their attitudes towards culture, quantitative data was

gathered through a survey administered both before and after the intervention. Qualitative

data was also gathered through free-writing exercises in which the learners were

encouraged to reflect on their opinions regarding intercultural interaction and their

experiences as international students.

3.1. Participants

The participants were recruited from a pool of 36 students who were enrolled in

two sections of an ESL writing course at a US university. Near the beginning of the

semester, they were asked to participate by an outside individual while their instructor

was not in the classroom, in order to minimize any potential pressure to participate. Four

students were not included as participants because three left the course before it was

completed and one did not provide consent, leaving a total of 32 who participated in all

phases of the study. As illustrated in Table 1, the student demographics were similar in

each class, with the majority of students being Chinese and only a few from other cultural

or linguistic backgrounds. This reflects the trend of an increase in Chinese international

Table 1. Demographics of study participants

	Class A	Class B	Total
Total participants	15	17	32
Nationality			
Chinese	13	13	26
South Korean	1	1	2
Brazilian	0	1	1
French	0	1	1
Iranian	1	0	1
Iraqi	0	1	1
Gender			
Male	7	8	15
Female	8	9	17
Age			
18	5	9	14
19	5	3	8
20	4	2	6
22	0	1	1
23	0	1	1
28	0	1	1
30	1	0	1
Time in US			
1 – 2 months	10	13	23
2 years	1	1	2
3 years	2	0	2
4 years	2	2	4
10 years	0	1	1
Year in school			
Freshman	14	14	28
Sophomore	0	1	1
Junior	0	1	1
Senior	0	0	0
Graduate	1	1	2

Note: Data represented here were reported in the pre-intervention survey, conducted halfway through the semester. All students were new to the university in this semester, regardless of their year in school.

students that has been seen around the US (Institute of International Education, 2013). The participants were nearly evenly split between the genders, with 47% being male and 53% being female. Additionally, although the total range of ages spanned 18 – 30 years old, the vast majority (88%) fell between 18 and 20 years old. While all of the participants in both classes were in their first semester at the university during the time of this study, a total of nine (28%) had spent a significant amount of time in the US prior to entering college, while the remainder had entered the US immediately prior to the semester. Of those with prior experiences in the US, eight had arrived as high school exchange students, while the last was a refugee who had already been in the US for about 10 years. Finally, while most (88%) of the participants were freshman, four had completed some level of university education in the past, with two having already received bachelor's degrees in their home countries; the two with bachelor's degrees were graduate students who elected to enroll in the ESL course although it was not required for their programs.

All learners who participated in the study had a relatively advanced level of English when they arrived at the university, since a score of 80 on the TOEFL exam is required for acceptance. Additionally, they all were assigned to this particular level of ESL due to their scores on an English placement exam that they took immediately prior to the start of the semester. This exam, which is based on the Michigan English Test and involves grammar, listening, and writing, is given to all non-native English speaking students who enter the university; the purpose is to have a secondary evaluation to use along with TOEFL scores to determine the correct ESL placement of international students. Since all the study participants were in their first semester at the university, they had very recently taken the placement exam and had their proficiency levels confirmed. Based on the results of the

exam, all of the participants of this study were placed into the third course in a sequence of

six core ESL courses taught at the university. This indicates that all study participants were

not native-like English speakers, but they were also not among the lowest levels of students

admitted to the university. Additionally, the recent placement process ensured that the

proficiency levels of all learners were within a fairly narrow range during the time period

in which they participated in the study.

3.2. Surveys

        To gather data on factors related to the learners' backgrounds, out-of-class L2 use,

intercultural interactions, cultural attitudes, and motivations for L2 use, a survey was

designed and administered both before and after the classroom intervention. The same

survey questions were given to the participants at both points in the study so that it would

be possible to measure any changes that took place throughout the course of the semester.

The students were asked to complete the survey, which was about 10-15 minutes long,

while they were in class, and the survey was completed on paper in order to maximize the

response rate. The survey, a copy of which can be found in Appendix 1, consisted of three

main sections: a background information profile, a series of items related to language use,

and an attitudes and motivations questionnaire.

3.2.1. The Language Contact Profile

        The first two sections of the survey were adapted from the Language Contact Profile

(LCP), which has been successfully used by researchers in a variety of situations, beginning

with Seliger in 1977. The version of the LCP used for this study was based heavily on that

published by Freed et al. (2004), with some alterations based roughly on the LCP used by

Baker-Smemoe et al. (2012). The survey as published by Freed et al. (2004) was designed

for English native speakers learning Spanish on a study abroad. Much of the material for

the current survey was taken from that version, but modifications were also taken from the

version produced by Baker-Smemoe et al. (2012), who were working with English

language learners at an intensive program in the United States. The model of Baker-

Smemoe et al. (2012) was useful since it involved a similar context to this study.

Several additional modifications were made to tailor the LCP to the language

situation in question at this university. For example, learners were asked to report their

year in school and their major. Additionally, several items related to specific aspects of L2

usage, such as details about types of reading or writing that the learners engaged in, were

not included, since the focus of this study was verbal intercultural interactions and general

patterns of L2 usage. This had the added benefit of shortening the questionnaire in order to

reduce participant fatigue, as the original LCP was quite lengthy. To supplement the

information gathered in the LCP, learners were also asked to give a percentage estimate of

how much of their language usage each day was in English, their native language, or a

different language. Although this segment of the survey elicited only rough estimates, it

provided a useful glimpse into the general ratios of how much the learners used each of

their languages to interact outside of the classroom.

Furthermore, survey items were designed to ascertain the types of relationships

that students had formed with native speakers, based on a questionnaire on social

networks designed by Dewey et al. (2013). These survey items asked learners to report

how many native speakers of English they consider acquaintances, friends, or close friends.

They were also asked how they met those native speakers. Along with these questions,

learners were asked if and how often they participated in extracurricular activities. These

additional items are useful because they allow for analysis of the types of social networks

and interactions that international students participate in while studying at this university.

It was expected that these numbers would be relatively low since the participants were all

in their first semester at the university, and most were in their first few months in the US

However, since the first questionnaire was not distributed until about halfway through the

semester, it was reasonable to assume that at least some friendships might have been

formed.

It should be noted, as indicated by Baker-Smemoe et al. (2012), that the LCP often

results in an over-reporting of total time spent using the language out of class, since

participants cannot report increments of time shorter than one hour. This means that all

students who engaged in a certain type of language use for only a few minutes would select

the "0-1 hour" category and would be listed as having one hour of interaction. This does not

pose a significant problem for this study because the goal is not to draw conclusions

regarding the actual number of hours that are spent using the L2 outside of class. Rather, it

is to ascertain whether learners with different characteristics use language differently

outside of the classroom. By using the responses to analyze language use comparatively,

significant conclusions can be made despite the lack of preciseness in reporting actual

hours of language use. It is important, however, to refrain from generalizing about the

amount of language used by these international students, due to this limitation.

3.2.2. Cultural attitudes and motivations for social L2 use

The third and final section of the survey consisted of a set of 22 Likert items[2]

designed specifically for this study to measure the participants' relative cultural attitudes

and motivations for using the L2 in social situations outside of the classroom. These items

were based on the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner (2004),

which has been used and adapted by a number of researchers, e.g. Mirzaei and

Forouzandeh (2013). The original AMTB is a long questionnaire consisting of more than

one hundred items that measure learners' attitudes toward using the second language and

interacting in the target culture as well as their motivations for developing their second

language skills. The reliability and validity of the AMTB assessment have been well

confirmed throughout its decades of use in various research projects (Gardner, 2004). The

items used for this study were adapted from those included in Gardner's AMTB, since the

original questionnaire was designed for native English-speaking learners of French in

Canada; the materials were adapted to the context of English learners in the US, and the

questionnaire was shortened considerably for the sake of reducing participant fatigue and

to focus on the issues related to motivation and attitudes in a university level second

language context. The 22 Likert items were adapted from the AMTB in accordance with the

standards for survey design as included in Dörnyei and Csizér (2012) and in Wray and

Bloomer (2012).

Out of the items in this final section of the survey, twelve were statements of either

positive or negative attitudes regarding American culture or intercultural experiences. The

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[2] As explained in Dörnyei & Csizér (2012), a Likert item is a close-ended survey item in which respondents indicate, generally on a scale of five to seven increments, how much they agree or disagree with a given statement (p. 76).

remaining ten items consisted of statements involving the learners' various motivations to use English, including the desire to interact socially in English with Americans. Half of the items in each group were positively worded, while the remaining half were negatively worded; this was done in order to increase the accuracy of the measure, as participants were thus encouraged to read each line carefully. (A list of these items, divided according to their positive or negative wording, is included in Appendix 2.) A large set of items was included in order to ensure that participants were led to consider their attitudes and motivations from a variety of angles and to achieve a more nuanced measure. On the survey, the items from each set – those related to cultural attitudes and those involving motivations for L2 use – were interspersed and randomized in order to keep the measurement as reliable as possible.

The participants were asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with each statement on a scale from one to seven. The scores from the negative items were reversed during the coding of the data such that all items were tallied with a 1 being the most negative response and 7 being the most positive response. The scores for each item in the two sets were totaled in the data analysis in order to assign one cultural attitudes score and one motivations score to each participant. As such, each participant received a score from 12 to 84 for the measurement of attitudes towards culture and a score between 10 and 70 for the measurement of motivation for using the L2. For the first measure, regarding cultural attitudes, higher scores indicated more positive feelings towards intercultural interaction; for the second score, regarding motivation for L2 use, higher scores indicated stronger motivations to use English socially. The calculation of these total scores is not meant to be a perfect measure of individual attitudes or motivations, but it does allow for

the comparison between each participant's own scores at each point in the semester, as well as for comparisons between different participants. With regards to the second measure, it should also be noted that the items were designed to gather insights primarily into social motivations due to the assumption that a desire to use the L2 socially could impact learners' patterns of L2 engagement outside of the classroom. As such, this scale is not sensitive to differences in alternative types of motivation or to a general lack of motivation.

After the survey had been administered, once midway through the semester and once at the end of the semester, the data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics in order to determine if there were any significant relationships or patterns regarding L2 usage and prevalent cultural attitudes among this sample of ESL learners who had recently arrived for extended study abroad experiences. Various statistical analyses, including mixed between-within subjects analyses of variance (SPANOVA) and independent and paired t-tests,[3] were used for the inductive statistics. The data were analyzed to determine if there were any changes in the participants' motivations or cultural attitudes over the course of the semester, as well as whether their quantity or quality of out-of-class L2 use had changed. These factors were analyzed with regards to which section of the class that the participants were in, in order to determine whether or how the intervention had an impact on L2 use. The connections between cultural attitudes, social motivations, and out-of-class L2 use were also investigated. In addition, the data were analyzed inductively to determine if there were unanticipated patterns between language use and other factors measured by the survey. This exploratory analysis could reveal any

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[3] SPANOVA models measure differences over time between two groups as a whole and at the individual level within those groups, while t-tests indicate whether or not the means of two groups are statistically different.

other important factors that might have a significant impact on cultural attitudes, motivations, or L2 use.

3.3. Intervention

After the first survey was administered to the participants, the ESL instructor began an intervention in which the two sections of the same course were given different types of cultural teaching. As previously mentioned, the two courses had a similar student make-up and were using the same curriculum. In this intermediate ESL course, there is a heavy focus on academic reading and writing. As such, the learners read and engage with a variety of written passages on a regular basis. They wrote about the passages at home and in class, as well as participated in discussions about the content in class in order to develop their critical reading and writing skills. The passages that were read inherently included some aspects of culture, since they were selected from authentic historical and contemporary English literature written by native or near-native English speakers who come from a wide variety of cultural backgrounds. Therefore, cultural content was present in each English language course. However, the ways in which it was taught differed, with one section (Class A) only addressing culture implicitly, while the other (Class B) incorporated an explicit focus on culture. The terms *explicit* and *implicit* are used here in the same way that they are frequently used in language pedagogy to differentiate between varying methods of grammar instruction (e.g., Long, 1991). Within this framework, e*xplicit* instruction involves directing learner attention to specific topics in a structured format, while *implicit* instruction involves exposing learners to concepts within course materials without deliberately drawing attention to those concepts. This intervention throughout the second

half of the semester allowed for an analysis of the ways in which the participants' cultural

attitudes, social motivations, or language usage patterns were affected by differing modes

of cultural instruction. An explanation of each method of cultural instruction is provided

below.

3.3.1. Explicit cultural instruction

In the class with an explicit mode of cultural instruction (Class B), learners were

actively encouraged to think about and discuss elements of culture that they encountered

in their regular course materials or intercultural interactions that they had outside of class.

As such, lessons were constructed in such a way that learner attention would be carefully

directed to cultural issues, including through the use of structured activities involving a

focus on culture. This cultural focus was not part of every class session, but it did appear on

a regular basis, woven into the written assignments or course discussions about the

reading materials. The goal in these types of cultural discussions was to have the Class B

learners actively engaging with issues of intercultural contact or conflict.

To illustrate, one of the reading passages for the course was an autobiographical

narrative written by a Native American. When discussing this passage, an explicit cultural

lesson involved questions about the role of minorities in American culture and the

differences between traditional Native American culture and other cultures present in the

United States or around the world. Learners were asked to think about the ways that

minorities are treated and how they represent themselves in different areas of the world.

They were also encouraged to share their own experiences as visitors to the United States,

discussing the ways they have been treated, or sharing positive or negative experiences they have had.

Another reading passage involved an American Chinese author describing experiences her family had in the past in China. To reflect on this passage, the study participants discussed the author's perspectives, and also considered whether or not the paragraph provided an accurate portrayal of Chinese and of American culture. This discussion also included a conversation about whether or not the learners felt that Americans understand other cultures, Chinese or otherwise, and extended to issues of identity and heritage for those who have multiple nationalities, such as Chinese Americans. Additionally, learners in this class were asked to write a paragraph outlining some of the differences between Chinese culture (or their own culture, for those who were not Chinese) and American culture.

In addition to this cultural focus in class activities, the instructor added more explicit cultural instruction in Class B by regularly asking learners before and after class if they had had any interesting or confusing cultural interactions with other students on campus or in response to stories they had read or seen on television. The learners were regularly encouraged to consider and ask questions about elements of American culture that they had observed, whether they were related to current events or to individualized experiences. For example, after the midterm elections, the learners were given the opportunity to ask any questions they had as well as share what they knew about American politics based on their interactions with American students. In another instance, when a student protest was occurring on campus, the participants raised many questions before class about the concerns and opinions of the student protestors. In response to these

discussions, the instructor was able to provide explicit explanations of American culture and ask the learners to share how things compare in their own cultures.

This explicit focus was intended to promote introspection regarding the intercultural experiences that the learners were having throughout their first semester at the university, potentially impacting the ways in which they thought about culture or the ways in which they approached interactions with others from different cultural backgrounds. Having an increased understanding of cultural differences could lead the Class B participants to become more curious about American culture, inspiring them to interact with American students more frequently. It could also help them overcome some of their prejudices or misunderstandings about cultural differences. Alternatively, it could lead them to disliking US culture more than they had previously, causing them to have less of a desire to interact with Americans. Since the students' cultural attitudes and social motivations may be significantly linked to the ways in which they use English outside of class, this intervention is a key element of this study.

3.3.2. Implicit cultural instruction

In contrast, in the section of the course with an implicit focus on culture (Class A), learners read the same materials and participated in similar academic exercises, but the cultural elements of each reading were not directly targeted. The learners were exposed to different aspects of culture through the reading passages, and these elements were often discussed in class when the students brought them up or asked questions. However, the instructor did not construct lesson assignments that were designed to specifically draw learners' attention to culture unless these issues were a core element of the piece. Instead,

the class discussions and homework assignments were related to other aspects of the passages, and learners were exposed to any cultural issues in the materials without receiving explicit explanations or being asked to engage in activities that targeted those issues directly.

For example, the autobiographical piece by the Native American author mentioned previously contained strong themes of pursuing dreams and overcoming obstacles. Instead of focusing the class discussion on issues of culture, the Class A learners were encouraged to think of and discuss dreams that they had and what it might take to make those dreams a reality. Some of the class discussion also involved comparing the author's story to those of other individuals who faced challenges yet were still successful. Similarly, for the passage written by the Chinese American author, learners in Class A were encouraged to discuss and write about elements of the passage not directly related to culture. This particular passage was a descriptive essay, so the learners focused primarily on the ways in which the author used language to construct an image. They discussed the family relations described in the essay and the reasons that the protagonist felt an inflated sense of security and comfort upon moving to her new father-in-law's extravagant mansion. Elements of culture were touched upon occasionally, especially with this particular writing passage, due to the fact that many learners were interested in the author's depiction of their own Chinese culture. The difference in this implicit mode of instruction, though, is that culture was not a central focus and was not specifically highlighted by the instructor.

The learners in Class A engaged in similar critical reading and writing exercises as those in Class B, but in this section the activities were centered mainly on topics other than culture. In other words, the academic expectations and goals were the same in each section,

but the topics for discussion or for writing assignments were often different. The learners

in Class A did not have as many assignments that encouraged them to directly engage with

issues of comparing cultures or analyzing intercultural interactions, although they were

still be exposed to and they did learn about various elements of culture indirectly through

the reading material and related discussions. Additionally, the instructor was always

available to answer questions that the learners asked about American culture in Class A,

but they were not regularly directed to ponder, discuss, or share the specific cultural

experiences that they were having as international students.

3.4. Writing Prompts

To supplement the quantitative data gathered through the survey, qualitative data

were also gathered from ten journal entries that each learner wrote on a near-weekly basis

in response to targeted writing prompts. A regular part of the particular ESL course in

which the learners were enrolled for this study was a requirement to complete regular

written journal entries. The journals were completed online as a homework assignment,

and the learners were given a period of three days to complete the task each week. This

allowed them to take as much time as they wanted to process the prompt and complete the

task, without it being a stressful or rushed process. The purpose of these weekly journals

was two-fold. On the one hand, they were a way for learners to reflect on their language

development or their general experiences as international students. This could help them

recognize challenges they were facing or successes they had had and could provide the

instructor with feedback on how to tailor the course lessons to the learners' particular

needs.

Additionally, the weekly journals allowed the learners to spend time writing freely in order to increase their fluency in writing. As such, the journals were graded purely on a completion basis. The learners were told that they could write without worrying about accuracy or organization, because the point was simply for them to write and put their ideas down in words. As long as the journals had met the required length and were on topic, the learners received full credit. For the purposes of this study, the fact that these assignments were graded on a completion basis removed the pressure for the learners to guard what they wrote; rather, this should have encouraged them to write whatever came to mind without excessive worrying about form or accuracy. It was hoped that this type of free writing would have provided for the collection of more complete and representative qualitative data.

In order to keep the journals relevant and interesting, the course instructor assigned a carefully designed prompt each week for the learners to respond to. The prompts were usually related to topics that had been discussed recently in class or that were of general interest among the learners or at the university in general. In each case, however, the learners were encouraged to connect the content to their own experiences. On occasion, the learners were also asked to reflect on their experiences, positive or negative, in the course or difficulties that they were having in the English language studies. Additionally, some journal prompts were related to difficulties that the learners were having as they adjusted to living in a new culture and attending a university. In order to facilitate the free flow of ideas for the learners as well as to give them the opportunity to write about aspects of the topic that were most interesting to them, the prompts were targeted, yet relatively open-ended. As such, each prompt usually included multiple related

questions; the learners could respond to any or all of the questions. A complete list of the ten writing prompts used for journal entries in this study is included in Appendix 3.

The data gathered through learners' responses to journal prompts were analyzed qualitatively, based on the coding procedures explained by Corbin and Strauss (2008). The data were analyzed inductively, with any major themes being noted throughout the body of writing responses. Any phrases or sentences that related to cultural attitudes, motivations for using English socially, and general interactions in English outside of class were coded and analyzed in comparison with the rest of the data. The data were analyzed individually to note any changes in attitudes throughout the semester, and general themes that were found among multiple participants were also noted. Analyzing the responses to these writing assignments provided valuable in-depth information regarding the participants' experiences and attitudes, allowing for a greater understanding of any correlations found in the quantitative analysis of the survey results. The rich data obtained through this coding of the participants' responses offered useful insights into the mechanisms of how the various factors analyzed in this study may have impacted learners' ultimate patterns of intercultural L2 usage throughout the semester.

Chapter 4: Results

From the data collected in the pre- and post-intervention surveys, it was possible to obtain descriptive and inferential statistics related to many different aspects of language use, cultural attitudes, and motivations for using the target language socially. While there were many observable differences among individual learners and between the two separate classes included in the intervention study, inferential statistics revealed that the impact of the intervention was minimal, at best. Additionally, analysis of the qualitative data gathered in the form of journal entries throughout the course of the semester did not reveal many differences between the two classes. Despite the general lack of significance of the intervention, several interesting patterns were revealed within the data. The sections below first present the results of the quantitative analysis, including descriptions of learners' English language use, relationships with native speakers, and attitudes and motivations. These statistical results are followed by analyses of the qualitative data, which supplement the insights gained through the quantitative data.

4.1. Out-of-class Target Language Use

Analysis of the survey data revealed several interesting patterns regarding the learners' out-of-class target language use. When the initial survey was administered midway through the semester, the majority of learners in both classes reported speaking English outside of class seven days a week, as illustrated in Figure 1, with 9 out of the 15 students (60%) in Class A, the class with implicit instruction, and 12 out of 17 (71%) in Class B, the class with explicit instruction, providing this response. A few participants reported that they did not ever use English outside of class at this point, with two in Class A

Figure 1. Reported number of days per week of speaking English outside of class
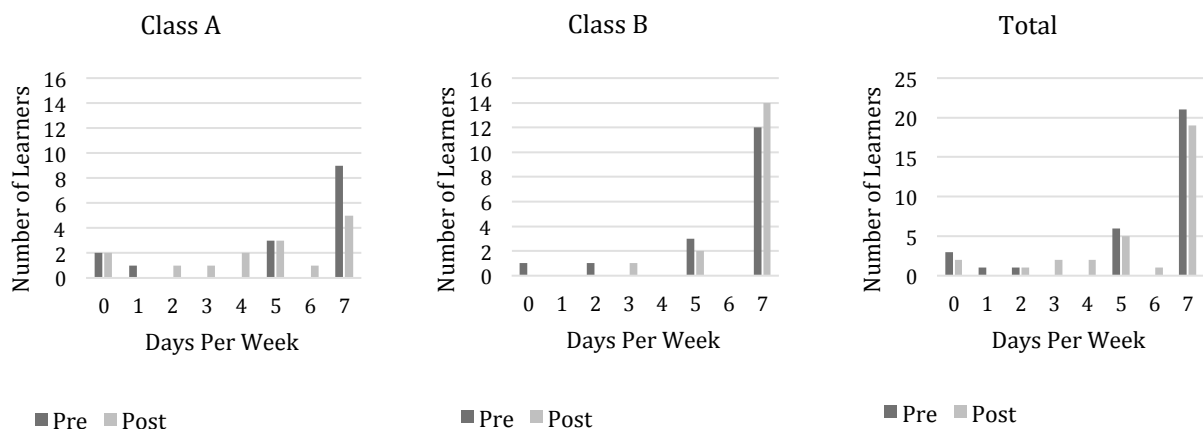
Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey.

and one in Class B giving an answer of zero days per week, and those remaining provided answers that fell within these two extremes. At this point in the semester, the learners in Class A had a reported average of using English approximately 5.3 days per week, compared with 5.9 days per week for Class B students. Taken as a whole, 21 of the 32 learners enrolled in both classes, or 65%, reported using English daily before the intervention, and 3, or 9%, reported never using it outside of class. The total average of out-of-class usage for both classes combined was 6.3 days per week.

When the second iteration of the survey was administered at the end of the semester, the reported number of days that English was spoken outside of class decreased for Class A and increased for Class B. The number of learners who reported using English every day of the week fell from 9 (60%) to 5 (33%) in Class A, while the number who reported using it zero days per week remained the same at 2 (13%). This brought the average days per week speaking English out of class for Class A down to 4.6. In contrast, the number of learners reporting seven days per week of out-of-class English usage for Class B

rose from 12 (71%) to 14 (82%). Only three participants in Class B reported fewer than seven days per week, and none reported fewer than three days per week. By the end of the semester, the Class B students had an average of 6.5 days per week in which English was spoken outside of class. While there were differences in the number of days reported by learners in each class throughout the course of the study, the average number of days per week for the entire group as a whole remained nearly constant at 6.3 days per week. Between the two classes as a whole, more participants provided responses in the middle of the spectrum on the second survey, with only 19 (59%) reporting seven days per week and only 2 (6%) reporting zero days per week.

In addition to measuring out-of-class English usage in days per week, participants completed a free-response item in which they provided estimates of what percentage of their total speaking was in English, as opposed to their native or another language, on an average day. These percentages do not provide information about the actual amount of time that English was spoken by the learners, but they do allow for comparisons based on the ratio of first and second language use by each learner. The percentages reported by the

Table 2. Reported percentage of speaking in English on an average day

		Mean	**Median**	**Mode**	**Range**
Class A	*Pre*	34.3	30	20, 30	10 - 80
	Post	33.1	30	20	10 - 80
Class B	*Pre*	45.2	50	30	0.1 - 98
	Post	41.1	40	40	8 - 90
Total	*Pre*	40.1	32.5	30	0.1 - 98
	Post	37.3	40	20	8 - 90

Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey. All numbers listed are percentages given as estimates of total speaking that is conducted in English on an average day.

learners varied widely, as displayed in Table 2. On the initial survey, one participant

reported using English for only 0.1% of his or her speaking, while on the opposite end of

the spectrum, another reported using it for 98% of his or her speaking; in other words, the

first participant reported almost never using English to communicate, while the second

reported using it almost exclusively. On the final survey, in contrast, the numbers were

slightly less extreme, with the lowest reported percentage at 8% and the highest at 90%.

These extreme points were both reported by learners in Class B (the class with explicit

cultural instruction), and the range for Class A (the class with implicit cultural instruction)

was narrower, with results falling between 10% and 80% in both the initial and the final

survey. The mean, median, and modes for Class A were lower than those for Class B in both

iterations of the survey, meaning that Class B learners used a higher proportion of English

outside of class than Class A learners throughout the duration of the study. Although there

were differences between the two classes, independent t-tests comparing the means from

each class indicated that these differences were not statistically significant, as indicated in

Table 3.

Table 3. Results of independent t-tests regarding percentages of speaking in English

		Percentage of speaking in English (Mean)	Standard Deviation	Difference Between Means	t-value	p-value
Pre	*Class A*	34.3	18.3	-10.9	-1.32	0.197
	Class B	45.2	26.8			
Post	*Class A*	33.1	19.6	-8.0	-1.06	0.295
	Class B	41.1	22.4			
Change	*Class A*	-1.2	13.6	2.9	0.71	0.485
	Class B	-4.1	9.6			

Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey. *Change* refers to the difference between the pre and post results for each individual class. None of the results was significant.

Although there were a few high percentages reported, the majority of participants in both classes indicated that they did not use English as their primary language on an average day, as illustrated in Figure 2. The overall mean percentage reported for the two classes combined was below 50% in both surveys (40.1% in the initial survey, and 37.3% in the final survey). As seen in Figure 2, only seven learners reported using English for more than 50% of their speaking in both the initial and the final survey; two of these were in Class A (the class with implicit instruction), and five were in Class B (the class with explicit instruction). One additional learner in Class B indicated using English for the majority of his or her speaking in the initial survey, but had dropped to a rate of below 50% on the final survey. By the end of the semester, only 4 learners in Class A (27%) and 4 in Class B (24%) reported an increase in the percentage of speaking that was conducted in English on a daily basis. In contrast, 6 in Class A (40%) and 3 in Class B (18%) indicated no change, and the remainder – 5 in Class A (33%) and 10 in Class B (59%) – reported a decrease.

Even though a few learners did have a substantial increase in the percentage they reported for how much of their speaking on an average day was in English, there was a general trend of reporting constant or lower percentages of English usage at the end of the semester. As a whole, only 25% of learners indicated using a higher percentage of English for their speaking at the end of the semester than in the middle, while 28% remained constant and 47% indicated a lower percentage of English use. Due to these decreases, the means for the group as a whole decreased by 2.8%, from 40.1% to 37.3%. It is also worth noting that there was a larger decrease in Class B, which had higher means overall, than in Class A; the Class B percentage decreased by about 4.1%, while the Class A percentage

Figure 2. Reported percentage of speaking conducted in English on an average day
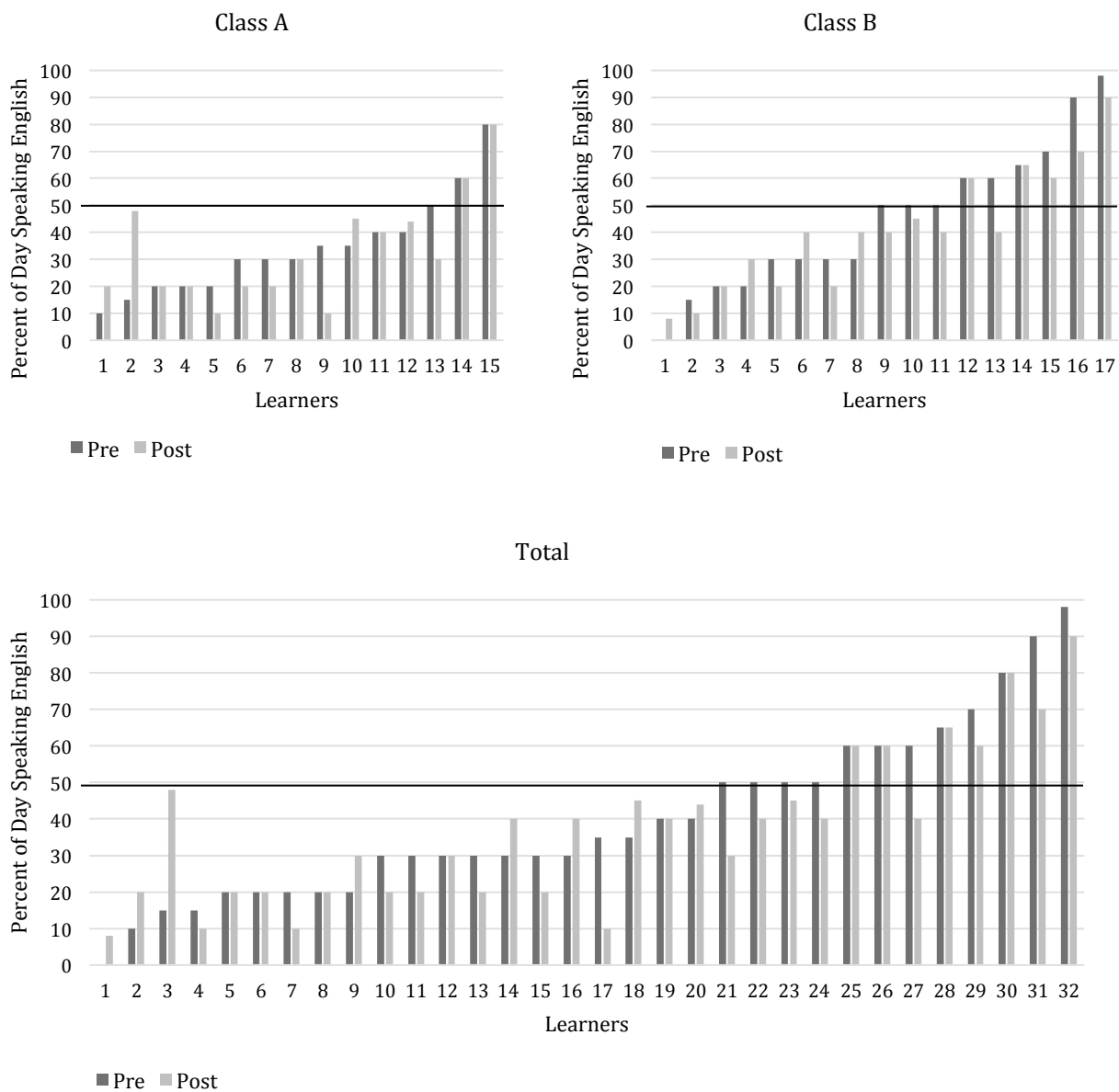
Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey.

decreased only by 1.2%. Although the mean percentage of daily speaking in English

decreased more for Class B than for Class A, this difference in the size of the decrease was

shown to be statistically insignificant. A mixed between-within subjects analysis of

variance (SPANOVA) assessing the impact of type of cultural instruction on percentage of

English used showed no significant interaction between type of cultural instruction and time, Wilks' Lambda = .98, F (1, 30) = .499, p = .49, partial eta squared = .016. There was no substantial main effect for time, Wilks' Lamda = .948, F (1, 30) = 1.654, p = .208, partial eta squared = .052. The main effect comparing the two types of instruction was also not significant, F (1, 30) = 1.529, p = .226, partial eta squared = .049. As such, there were no significant differences in mean percentages of daily English use either between the classes or over the duration of the study.

In addition to exploring potential differences between the two classes, the data contain patterns regarding language use and nationality. Of the seven learners who reported using English for more than 50% of their speaking, three (43%) were non-Chinese. Since there were only six non-Chinese participants included in the study, this means that half (50%) of the non-Chinese learners reported using English more often than another language, while only 4 out of 26 Chinese nationals (15%) reported similarly high rates of English usage. Additionally, out of the four study participants who were neither Chinese nor Korean, only one reported using English less than 50% of the time. Because there were only six non-Chinese participants, as compared with 26 Chinese, it is not possible to determine whether there are statistically significant differences between the two groups. However, there were observable differences in the reported English use, with the non-Chinese indicating that they used English, on average, for 48% of their speaking in the pre-intervention survey and 43% of their speaking in the final survey. These results are both higher than those reported by the Chinese participants, who had a mean of 38% on the initial survey and 36% on the final survey. However, the percentage of English speaking

decreased more for the non-Chinese than for the Chinese participants, with decreases of 5% and 2%, respectively.

4.2. Relationships with Native Speakers

Information about the types of relationships that the learners had developed with native English speakers during the course of their studies in the United States was gathered in both iterations of the survey, as illustrated in Table 4. In the initial survey administered midway through the semester, 14 of the 32 participants (44%) reported having close friends who were native English speakers; 10 of these were in Class B, and 4 were in Class A. This number had increased to 17 (53%) by the end of the semester, with 11 in Class B (class with explicit cultural instruction) and 6 in Class A (the class with implicit cultural instruction). Thus, Class A learners reported fewer close intercultural friendships than Class B learners at both points in the semester, with only 27 to 40% of Class A reporting

Table 4. Reported relationships of varying types with native speakers

		Close Friends	Friends	Acquaintances
Class A	**Pre**	4 (27%)	7 (47%)	9 (60%)
	Post	6 (40%)	12 (80%)	13 (87%)
	Change	*2 (13%)*	*5 (33%)*	*4 (27%)*
Class B	**Pre**	10 (59%)	13 (76%)	16 (94%)
	Post	11 (65%)	16 (94%)	16 (94%)
	Change	*1 (6%)*	*3 (18%)*	*0 (0%)*
Total	**Pre**	14 (44%)	20 (63%)	25 (78%)
	Post	17 (53%)	24 (75%)	29 (90%)
	Change	*3 (9%)*	*4 (12%)*	*4 (12%)*

Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey. *Change* refers to the difference between the pre and post results for each group. Each category (*Close Friends*, *Friends*, and *Acquaintances*), refers to the number and percentage of students who reported having at least one relationship of the indicated type.

close intercultural friendships with native L2 speakers throughout the course of the study, compared with 59 to 65% of Class B. However, a SPANOVA test assessing the impact of type of cultural instruction on number of close friends showed no significant differences in this area. There was no significant interaction between type of cultural instruction and time, Wilks' Lambda = .92, $F(1, 30) = 2.48$, $p = .126$, partial eta squared = .076. There was no substantial main effect for time, Wilks' Lamda = .99, $F(1, 30) = .054$, $p = .818$, partial eta squared = .002. The main effect comparing the two types of instruction was also not significant, $F(1, 30) = 1.639$, $p = .210$, partial eta squared = .052.

When the initial survey was completed midway through the semester, a majority of the participants had only been in the United States for a few months, and it could be reasonable to assume that many would not have had time to develop close friendships at that point. However, there was no substantial difference in the percentage of learners who reported close friendships among those who had recently arrived and those who had already had longer experiences in the US. Out of the 14 learners who reported close friendships in the initial survey, 4 had been in the US for at least two years. Since there were only 9 learners who had similarly extensive experiences, this means that 4 out of 9 learners with longer stays, or 44%, reported close friendships with native English speakers in the pre-intervention survey. In comparison, the remaining 10 learners with close friendships at that point constituted 43% of the 23 participants who were recent arrivals to the US. Regardless of length of stay in the US, therefore, just under half of the participants indicated that they had close friendships at the start of the study.

Additionally, participants reported slightly higher levels of friendships with native L2 speakers, as opposed to close friendships. In Class B, 13 out of the 17 learners (76%)

reported having native English speaking friends at the time of the initial survey, and 16 (94%) reported the same at the end of the study, for an increase of 18 percentage points. In Class A, the numbers were lower, but there was a much larger increase throughout the course of the study; 7 participants (47%) in the initial survey and 12 participants (80%) in the final survey indicated that they had native L2 friends, an increase of 33 percentage points. However, a SPANOVA test assessing the impact of type of cultural instruction on number of friends showed no significant interaction between type of cultural instruction and time, Wilks' Lambda = .944, F (1, 30) = 1.770, p = .193, partial eta squared = .056. There was no substantial main effect for time, Wilks' Lamda = .938, F (1, 30) = 1.991, p = .169, partial eta squared = .062. The main effect comparing the two types of instruction was also not significant, F (1, 30) = .610, p = .441, partial eta squared = .020.

When asked about native English speaking acquaintances, defined as people the learners see occasionally but do not know well, there was an additional increase in reported percentages. In Class B, 16 out of the 17 learners (94%) reported having L2 acquaintances in both iterations of the study, meaning that there was no change but that nearly everyone in the class could think of at least one L2 acquaintance. The rate was slightly lower in Class A, with 9 (60%) reporting acquaintances in the initial survey and 13 (87%) in the final survey. However, a SPANOVA test assessing the impact of type of cultural instruction on number of acquaintances showed no significant interaction between type of cultural instruction and time, Wilks' Lambda = .936, F (1, 30) = 2.050, p = .163, partial eta squared = .064. There was no substantial main effect for time, Wilks' Lamda = .997, F (1, 30) = .085, p = .773, partial eta squared = .003. The main effect comparing the two types of instruction was also not significant, F (1, 30) = 2.669, p = .113, partial eta squared = .082.

In summary, a majority of study participants reported having close friends, friends, and acquaintances who were native English speakers by the end of the semester. Although Class B had higher numbers of reported relationships at each level than Class A, each type of relationship for both classes experienced growth throughout the course of the study, with the exception of acquaintances in Class B, though the number reported for this group was close to ceiling levels at 96% on both surveys and left little room for growth. This increase in all three categories was also observed within the group as a whole. However, the increases in each category were not shown to be statistically significant, and there was no significant difference in the number of close friends, friends, or acquaintances between the two classes. Furthermore, when analyzing the participants individually, all participants in both classes reported knowing at least two native English speakers whom they considered close friends, friends, or acquaintances by the end of the study (one reported 0 in all three categories initially, but reported 2 acquaintances on the final survey). The pattern in both classes was to have higher numbers of friends reported at more distant social levels; participants reported the highest numbers of acquaintances, followed by friends, and finally by close friends.

The survey data also provided insights into how learners met their native English-speaking friends. Participants were asked to indicate where they had met friends, without distinguishing between different types of relationships. For this survey item, the learners provided information about whether they had met friends due to being roommates or dorm-mates, in classes, through their major or program of study, through mutual friends, at extracurricular activities, or in another way. Information regarding how many friends had been met in each particular way was not collected; the survey item simply allowed for

Table 5. Methods of forming relationships with native target language speakers

	Pre			Post		
	Class A	**Class B**	**Total**	**Class A**	**Class B**	**Total**
Classes	12	13	**25**	12	16	**28**
Dormitory	7	11	**18**	10	12	**22**
Major / Program of Study	7	7	**14**	6	8	**14**
Mutual Friends	2	12	**14**	4	10	**14**
Extracurricular Activities	4	1	**5**	3	4	**7**
Other	2	3	**5**	1	4	**5**

Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey.

indicating if at least one relationship had been formed in each particular way. As indicated in Table 5, the most common way to form relationships with native target language speakers was through academic classes, followed by living arrangements in a dormitory; these responses were selected by 88% and 69% of participants, respectively. Meeting people due to being in the same major or through mutual friends was less common overall, but each of these options was still selected by nearly half (44%) of all respondents. Relationships formed through extracurricular activities or other means were the least frequent responses, chosen by only 22% and 16% of learners at the end of the study.

There were few substantial differences between the two classes in either iteration of the survey, with one exception: learners in Class B (the class with explicit cultural instruction) indicated meeting native English speakers through mutual friends at a much higher rate than did those in Class A (the class with implicit cultural instruction). In the pre-intervention survey, only 13% of Class A selected this option, compared with 71% of Class B. In the post-intervention, the difference was less pronounced but still present, with 27% of Class A and 59% of Class B. This may indicate that Class B learners tended to have

more dense relationship networks than those in Class A, with more interconnectedness among their various friendships. In addition to the five options provided on the survey regarding relationship formation, participants were able to indicate any additional ways in which they had found friends or acquaintances. Responses provided by participants included social networking and the internet, fraternities, student orientation, being neighbors (for a student who lived off-campus), and meeting on the streets or in public.

Although relatively few learners reported forming relationships with native English speakers through extracurricular activities, the majority indicated that they did participate in these types of events at least occasionally. As depicted in Figure 3 and Table 6, all but 8 learners (25%) in the initial survey and 10 (31%) in the final survey reported participating in extracurricular activities to some degree. Some participated rarely, less than once per month, but 12 learners (38%) in both surveys indicated participating somewhat frequently – between one and three times per month – and 6 (19%) in the first survey and 4 (13%) in the final survey indicated participating frequently – once a week or more. There were no substantial differences between the two classes, and both had a general pattern of decreased participation over time. The number who indicated participating once per month or less increased from 18 (56%) initially to 25 (78%) in the final survey, while those who indicated participating at least 2-3 times per month decreased from 14 (44%) to 7 (22%). The extracurricular activities that learners reported participating in included: special interest organizations such as a geology club, a music group, an alumni program, and a conversation group; athletic activities such as bowling, ice skating, dance, and Judo; university-sponsored events such as traveling tours, festivals, and parties in the student center; and cultural organizations such as a Chinese association and a Korean association.

Figure 3. Frequency of participation in extracurricular activities

Class A

Class B

Total

Frequency of Extracurricular Participation
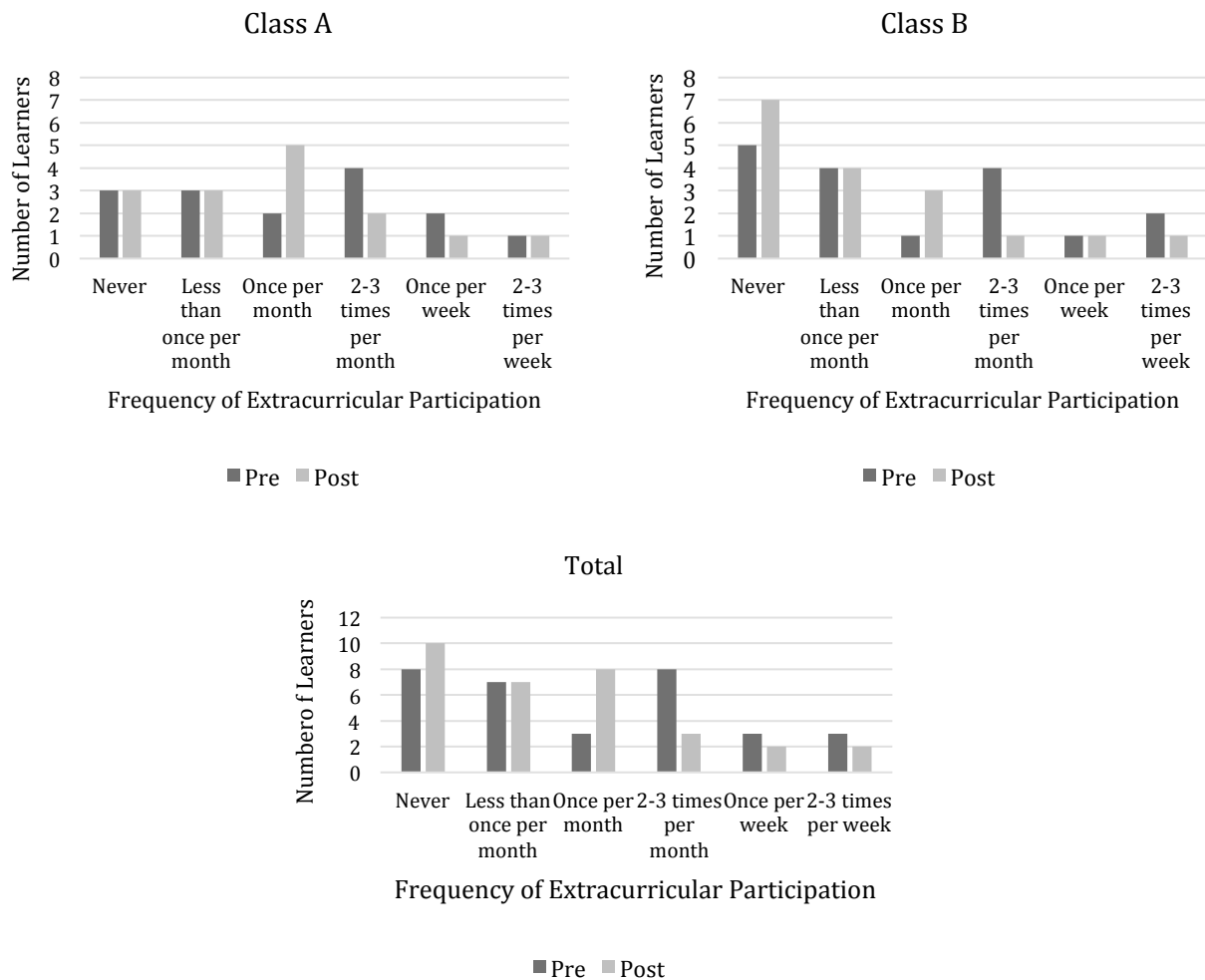
Table 6. Frequency of participation in extracurricular activities

	Pre			Post		
	Class A	**Class B**	**Total**	**Class A**	**Class B**	**Total**
Never	3	5	**8**	3	7	**10**
Less than once per month	3	4	**7**	3	4	**7**
Once per month	2	1	**3**	5	3	**8**
2-3 times per month	4	4	**8**	2	1	**3**
Once per week	2	1	**3**	1	1	**2**
2-3 times per week	1	2	**3**	1	1	**2**

Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey.

4.3. Attitudes and Motivations

The final section of the survey, consisting of 22 Likert items, provided information

regarding the learners' attitudes towards intercultural interaction and their motivations

for using English socially out of the L2 classroom. On both the initial and the final surveys,

the data seem to indicate that the participants generally have positive cultural attitudes

and are interested in using English to interact socially. On a scale from 1 to 7, with 1

representing the most negative attitudes or motivations and 7 being the most positive, the

average score for an item was 4.9 on the first survey and 5 on the second. However, there

was a wide range of individual variation. A total score for the 12 items related to cultural

attitudes was calculated for each learner. Since the lowest possible score for each item was

1 and the highest 7, the total score for the 12 items could range from 12 – 84. Among the 32

study participants, individual scores on the cultural attitudes scale varied from 30 – 76

initially and from 32 – 79 at the end of the study.

When these scores were converted into percentages (by dividing the total score for

each individual by the maximum 84 points) to allow for comparison, as displayed in Table

7, this means that cultural attitude scores were as low as 36% and as high as 94% for

individual learners throughout the course of the study, with higher percentages

representing more positive attitudes and percentages below 50% representing negative

attitudes. Most scores were more moderate and tended towards the positive end of the

spectrum. The total cultural attitude scores for individual learners were averaged to result

in the mean cultural attitudes score, on a scale from 12 – 84, for the entire group. In the

initial survey, the mean score for both classes was 58 (69%), and it was 59 (70%) in the

final survey; both of these means are on the positive end of the spectrum, but still closer to

the neutral 50% than to an overwhelmingly positive 100%. Total scores for the 10 social

motivation items, calculated on a scale from 7 – 70, also varied, though to a lesser degree.

Table 7. Percentage scores regarding cultural attitudes and social motivations

		Mean	Median	Mode	Range
Cultural Attitude Scores					
Class A	*Pre*	67	70	70, 74, 80	36 – 80
	Post	68	70	70	38 – 83
Class B	*Pre*	71	68	68	56 – 90
	Post	72	70	70	57 – 94
Total	*Pre*	69	69	68, 70, 74	36 – 90
	Post	70	70	70	38 – 94
Social Motivation Scores					
Class A	*Pre*	68	69	69	56 – 83
	Post	74	76	60, 76, 84, 86	60 – 86
Class B	*Pre*	76	77	74, 83, 86	63 – 86
	Post	82	81	70, 77, 80, 83	70 – 99
Total	*Pre*	72	74	59, 74, 83	56 – 86
	Post	78	79	70, 84	60 - 99
Combined Scores					
Class A	*Pre*	67	68	-	51 – 81
	Post	70	73	77	53 – 84
Class B	*Pre*	73	73	71, 76, 81	59 – 87
	Post	77	76	79	63 - 96
Total	*Pre*	71	70	66	47 – 85
	Post	74	75	75, 77, 79 ,81, 82	53 – 96

Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey. *Total* refers to Class A and Class B as a group. Combined scores are cultural attitude and social motivation scores together. All scores are represented as percentages (for the sake of comparison) based on data ranging from 12-84 for cultural attitudes, 10-70 for social motivation, and 22-154 for combined scores. The higher the percentage, the more positive the attitudes towards intercultural interaction and using the L2 for social purposes.

The total social motivation scores for each individual ranged from 39 – 60 (56 – 86% when the scores are calculated as percentages out of the maximum 70 possible points). When the individual total scores were averaged, the mean for both classes was 52 (74%) on the pre-intervention survey. On the final survey, the individual scores ranged from 42 – 69 (60 – 99%), with a group mean of 55 (79%). None of the social motivation scores was on the negative end of the spectrum (below 50%), although some were more moderate than others.

A SPANOVA test assessing the impact of type of cultural instruction on social motivation scores showed no significant interaction between type of cultural instruction and time, Wilks' Lambda = 1.000, $F (1, 30) = .003$, $p = .956$, partial eta squared = .000. There was a substantial main effect for time, Wilks' Lamda = .547, $F (1, 30) = 24.856$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .453. The main effect comparing the two types of instruction was also significant, $F (1, 30) = 10.315$, $p = .003$, partial eta squared = .256. Follow-up independent t-tests comparing the pre- and post-survey means for each class verified that Class B had significantly higher social motivation scores, on average, than did Class A at both time periods. The difference in mean social motivation scores between the classes was significant at the $p \leq 0.005$ level in the initial survey and at the $p \leq 0.05$ level in the final survey. Over the course of the semester, the mean social motivation score increased substantially in each class, but there was no significant difference in the change in scores between the classes, meaning that there was an increase of the same rate in both classes in spite of the intervention. However, the growth in average social motivation scores for the group as a whole was significant at the $p \leq 0.005$ level.

Furthermore, there was no significant difference in the cultural attitude scores between the two groups. A SPANOVA test assessing the impact of type of cultural instruction on cultural attitude scores showed no significant interaction between type of cultural instruction and time, Wilks' Lambda = 1.000, $F_{(1, 30)}$ = .003, p = .956, partial eta squared = .000. There was no substantial main effect for time, Wilks' Lamda = .983, $F_{(1, 30)}$ = .514, p = .479, partial eta squared = .017. The main effect comparing the two types of instruction was also not significant, $F_{(1, 30)}$ = 1.384, p = .249, partial eta squared = .044.

Table 8. Results of t-tests regarding cultural attitudes and social motivations

		Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Difference in Means	t-value	p-value
Cultural Scores (Pre)	*Class A*	56.2	9.9	-3.5	-1.123	0.27
	Class B	59.7	7.8			
Social Scores (Pre)	*Class A*	47.2	5.8	-6.2	-3.071	**0.005
	Class B	53.4	5.5			
Cultural Scores (Post)	*Class A*	56.8	10.8	-3.6	-1.129	0.268
	Class B	60.4	7.1			
Social Scores (Post)	*Class A*	51.5	6.7	-6.2	-2.824	*0.008
	Class B	57.7	5.8			
Change in Cultural Scores	*Class A*	0.6	4.8	-0.1	-0.058	0.954
	Class B	0.7	5.3			
Change in Social Scores	*Class A*	4.2	4.6	-0.1	-0.055	0.956
	Class B	4.3	5.0			
Total Cultural Scores	*Pre*	58.0	8.8	-0.7	-0.734	0.469
	Post	58.7	9.1			
Total Social Scores	*Pre*	50.5	6.4	-4.3	-4.081	**0.000
	Post	54.8	6.9			

Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey. *Change* refers to the difference between the pre and post results for each class, and *Total* refers to Class A and B combined. The first six tests reported here are independent t-tests, and the final two are paired t-tests. Asterisks indicate statistical significance, with one (*) when p≤0.05 and two (**) when p≤0.005.

These findings were confirmed with follow-up independent t-tests, as displayed in Table 8.

Although the cultural attitude scores in Class B were slightly higher than those in Class A at

both points in the study, the differences were not statistically significant. There was also no

significant difference in the change for each class throughout the course of the study;

rather, there was a slight increase in cultural attitude scores, with the same rate of growth

in each.

The average change in cultural attitude scores for both classes was 0.6, which is an

increase of only 0.7% on the scale from 12 – 84. As seen in Figure 4, even though some

learners had large increases in cultural attitude scores, with the largest being a rise of 14

points (17%), many also had significant decreases, with the largest being a decline of 8

points (-9.5%). Overall, 18 of the 32 learners (56%) had increased cultural scores, while 13

(41%) had decreases and the remaining 1 learner (3%) remained constant. Of those whose

scores decreased, 6 were in Class A and 7 were in Class B. Due to the wide range of

variation, the overall average change in cultural attitude scores was relatively small and

therefore was not statistically significant. In contrast, nearly all of the learners experienced

a growth in social motivation scores, and the mean scores for the group as a whole

experienced a rise that was statistically significant at the $p \leq 0.005$ level, with an average

rise of 4.3, or 6.1% on the scale from 7 – 70. The change in social motivation ranged from

15 (21%) on the high end to -6 (-8.5%) on the low end. Only two learners in Class A

experienced a decreased social motivation score, along with three in Class B. As such, while

cultural attitude scores were relatively stable throughout the study, social motivation

scores changed quite substantially.

Figure 4. Change in cultural attitude and social motivation scores over time
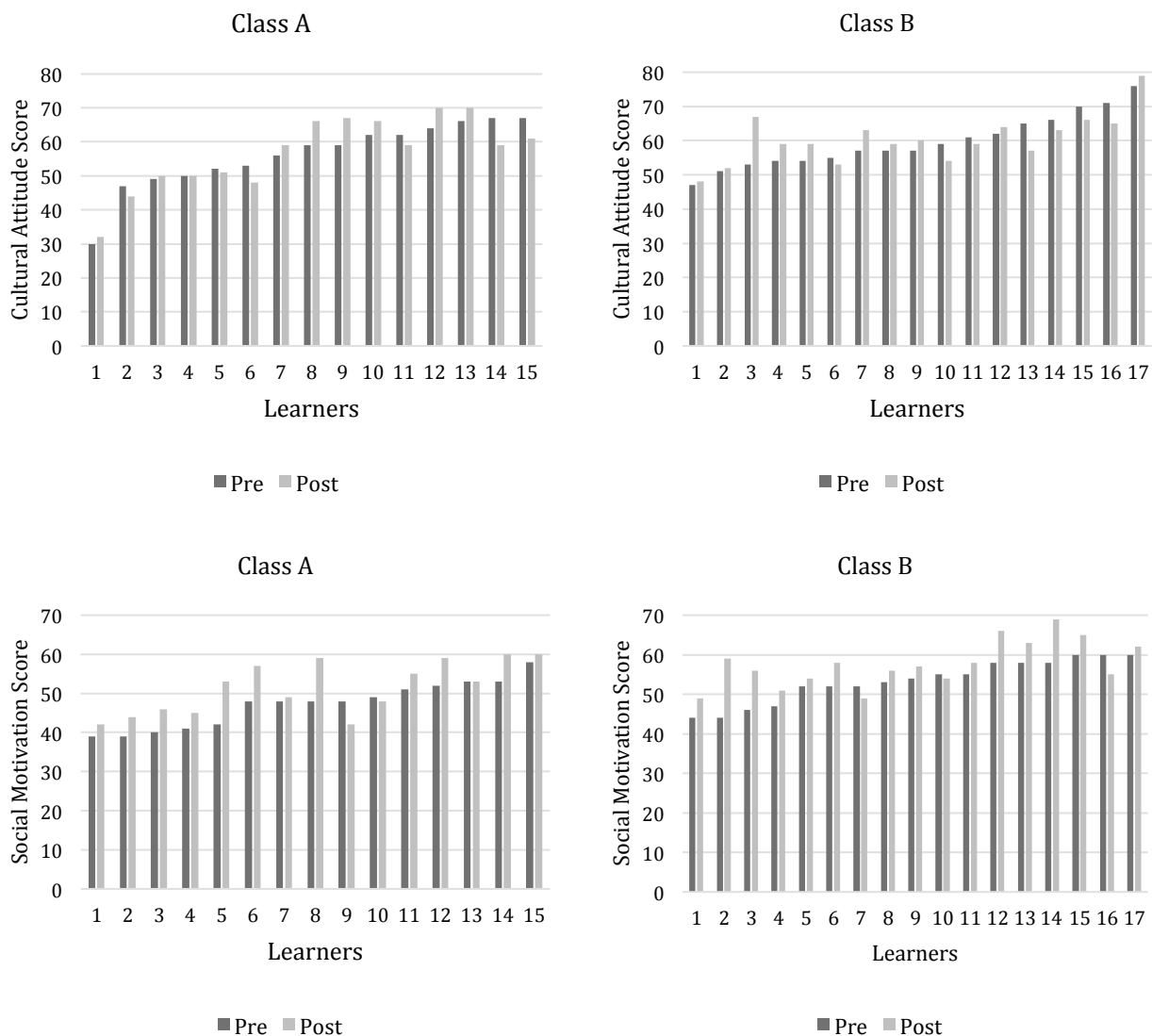
Class A

Class B

Class A

Class B

Note: *Pre* refers to the results from the initial survey, and *Post* to those from the final survey.

Based on these quantitative analyses, the class in which a learner was enrolled, and thus the learner's exposure to explicit as opposed to implicit cultural instruction, does not seem to have had a significant impact in most aspects of language use, cultural attitudes, or social motivations. Class B tended to have higher rates of language use and higher attitude and motivation scores throughout the course of the study, but these differences were not

statistically significant. From the time of the pre-intervention survey to that of the post-intervention survey, reported percentages of language use decreased in both classes, while cultural attitude scores rose very slightly and social motivation scores increased to a significant degree. There were no statistically significant differences regarding the rates of change between the two classes, suggesting that the intervention had no impact.

4.4. Insights from Learners

Analysis of the qualitative data gathered through learners' journal assignments provided valuable insights into their attitudes and opinions regarding their experiences as international students. Since this data was gathered on a weekly basis throughout the course of the study, some longitudinal observations about how perspectives changed over time may be drawn. However, each weekly journal entry was focused on a different prompt, meaning that the learners did not necessarily return to the same topics in multiple entries. As such, it is not always possible to form conclusions regarding changes in individual beliefs and perspectives over time, and the majority of the observations here instead relate to general themes that were reported by the learners throughout the semester. The data were coded in order to reveal common themes among the learners as a whole and within each of the two classes. In general, there were no substantial differences in the themes reported in Class A, the class with implicit cultural instruction, and in Class B, which received explicit instruction.

The topics covered in the journal entries were quite varied, but there were a number of common themes that appeared for learners in both classes. For instance, many learners wrote about forming friendships with Americans, with some reporting that it was

easy to meet people, and others feeling that it was difficult to develop close friendships

across cultures. Common obstacles to relationship building that were reported included

perceptions of superficiality, differences in cultural practices, and discomfort with

American forms of socialization. Despite these obstacles, however, the learners described

their desire to build relationships in order to adapt to their new environment, learn about

culture, and develop their language skills; some also described wanting friends with a

shared cultural background to help them through difficult times. Additionally, the journals

provided insights into learners' social and academic motivations for improving their

second language skills, their interest in extracurricular activities, and their overal cultural

learning. Specific examples and analysis for each of these topics as discussed by learners in

both classes is provided below; names of all learners have been changed.

4.4.1. Making friends

In general, the learners in both Class A and Class B reported many positive

impressions of US culture, and one prevelant theme was that the learners felt that the

Americans they met were very friendly. For example, Robert (Class A) wrote, "*I thought the*

[American] students in college are more friendly than Chinese student," and Emily (Class B)

said, "*One thing I admire about American culture is that people are just so nice to each other*

even though they do not know who they are. People here say hi to anyone and to everyone.

They are really friendly." This sentiment was echoed in several other journal entries, such as

when David (Class B) wrote, "*Whenever I walk in the campus, so many people I have never*

met before will come and say 'hi' to me and it really makes me feel warm." In addition to

being impressed with the common greetings given by American students, many learners

interpreted other social rituals, such as holding doors open for others, as signs of friendliess. For example, Tom (Class A) said, "*One thing that I really like about American culture is that people are so warm and polite here. Even you don't know someone, he or she would open the door for you.*" Similarly, Celeste (Class B) said that "*I was surprised that American holds the door for the next person. I noticed that is the basic manner because the most Americans hold the door when they leave. It means that Americans caring other people even if they do not know each other.*"

In part due to the perceived friendliness among American students at the university, some learners in both classes reported that it was easy to form intercultural relationships. Kyle (Class A), for example, wrote that "*American students are easy to make friend with because they are always enthusiastic and generous to others. Therefore, we can easily communicate with others and through this way we can know each other well.*" Jerry (Class B) had a similar opinion, explaining that because the Americans he met spoke freely and interacted more openly than people did in his home country, it was not difficult to meet new friends; he wrote that "*I think it is more easier to make friends in America. I think American people are more outgoing and easy to talk with. In China, we might not make new friends as easy as America. For instance, some Chinese students in the same class seldomly talk.*" A few other learners shared examples of meeting Americans who reached out to them, inviting them to events and showing interest in forming relationships. As one example, Luke (Class B) shared his experience of being welcomed into a group of Americans, including his roommate, by saying "*I have to say get friends here is not that difficult. . . . I have a great American roommate, and his friends and other Americans all treat me really good, they taught me a lot of things about American culture. And most of them are*

more friendly and warmer." Other learners described similar stories of meeting people through their classes, dorm rooms, dining halls, or university events, and it appears that many from Class A as well as Class B were successful in making friends.

4.4.2. Obstacles to forming intercultural relationships

Some learners expressed that while the Americans they met were outwardly friendly, it was difficult to form close relationships. This was discussed by multiple learners in both classes, but the majority of comments on this topic came from Class B learners. The journals contained several instances of complaints that while Americans greeted them happily at first and were always kind in passing, the friendliness seemed superficial and often did not last beyond the start of the semester. It appears that many learners were confused to have Americans treat them as friends, especially when first meeting, but to not have a lasting friendship follow fom these initial interactions. Leah (Class B) stated that "*My roommate and I were the only 2 Chinese living in our floor, and when we moved in the first time, people said hello all the time and acted very friendly to us. However, a month later, most of them were tired of being as friendly as we met the first time. We just pass by each other as if we were invisible. I don't know what happened.*" From Class A, Sammy shared similar thoughts, explaining that people in her dormitory were "*familiar to each other,*" but that they did not form meaningful friendships and that *"it is awkward to say hi over and over again. We do not have much to talk."* It seems that these learners were disappointed over time when the friendships they may have anticipated early on did not materialize.

Others were also confused at how their American peers acted. For example, Dana (Class A), wrote that she did not have many friendships with Americans because she *"only*

like[s] to have close friends," and she did not observe this type of close relationship among her American peers. Similarly, David (Class B), stated, "*I know that American students are usually kind but sometime they act like your best friend even though you are not so close.*" Harrison (Class B) provided additional insight by saying that "*In China . . . I don't make lots of friends, so all my friends are my real close friends. In America, I feel like people make friends with everyone, but they never take their friends seriously unless that person becomes his or her true friend. I don't like American idea, because I think if I call someone a friend, I would take care of that person seriously.*" Like Harrison, other learners explained that they were accustomed to fewer friendly interactions between strangers or acquaintances in their home countries, but that they took the relationships they did form there more seriously, as opposed to the wide but shallow networks of friendships that they frequently observed among their American peers. Another Class B learner, Eva, summarized this sentiment by stating that "*It's very superficial, when you meet someone you can have fun with him or her, but that's all. . . . That's why you can say that in one hand it's easy to make friend with American people . . . but it's the American definition of 'friends.' So if you want to make good or deep friends like in France, it's not so easy.*" Based on these and other journal entries from many learners, these cultural differences regarding types of social interaction were frustrating to many learners.

Other learners from both classes reported that, although they were able to form intercultural friendships, differences in cultural background prevented those relationships from becoming close. Dana (Class A) expressed this bluntly when she said that the main reason why she had few American friends was because "*we are too different when we think to become a close friend,*" and Leah (Class B), said, *"There are a plenty of differences that*

make us think in different ways and the biggest difference is our culture background. We are

forming our thinking pattern according to the environment since we were born." Based on

these explanations, it seems that these learners may believe part of the problem in forming

intercultural friendships stemmed from different worldviews based on different cultural

experiences. Other comments revealed that, in addition to having divergent ways of

thinking, some of the learners felt that they had a difficult time connecting with their

American peers due to different interests. As Tom (Class A) explained, "*It is pretty hard to*

be real friends with American kids. I think that's because the culture is just so different that

we don't have enough common topics." Several other learners in each class mentioned that

they had different preferences from their American peers, and some said that their lack of

American cultural knowledge regarding topics such as music, television, religion, and

politics made it difficult to connect. An additional aspect of culture that some Class B

learners blamed for their lack of intercultural relationships was humor. Julia (Class B), for

example, stated that "*I think the biggest different between America friends and me is the*

sense of humor. These things happened many time that when I could not get what they were

laughing at. We have different sense of humor, so it is awkward when I cannot get the point of

their joke." Annie (Class B) made a similar comment, explaining that "*Since the remarkable*

culture difference, I cannot understand the punch line of my roommate's joke. . . . It seems like

that the values of most American are different with most Chinese, we treat things differently,

we joke differently, so it's difficult for us to get along." Clearly, many of the learners in this

study felt that forming close relationships with Americans was a challenge due to a lack of

cultural understanding.

Additionally, many learners in both classes reported feeling uncomfortable with the party culture that was pervasive at the university. They wrote about not understanding why their American peers stayed up late to party; it seems that the parties held at the university were quite different from the types of socialization that these learners had been used to in their home countries, so they struggled to adapt. Willa (Class B), for example, wrote, "*Another thing making me confused is that why people always like parties. . . . Here, parties are just like a daily meal that people will attend at least three times a week and they are hold for people to talk, dance and drink or eat something. They seem not fun at all.*" Danny (Class A) shared this sentiment, saying that "*Everything goes on well except that I still can not get accustomed to the parties in dorm.*" Furthermore, some of the learners clearly felt that the behavior of their American peers was disrespectful or impolite. For example, Caitlyn (Class A) said, "*American never obey the rules and neglect constraints. You can see people come back to the dorm from parties in the midnight, and speak and laugh loudly like there is no one else.*" Similarly, Jerry (Class B), wrote that he did not like that Americans *"have party too late and play music too loud which might disturb others,"* and Sara (Class A) said that "*In my residence hall, I noticed that American students often stay overnight at others' room and having party and shouting loud at 3 o'clock in the morning, and they think it is very common. Unlike American students, Chinese students may think it is uncomfortable to have guest to stay overnight, and it is impolite to make noise after midnight.*" Similar feelings were expressed by other learners in both classes, with several reporting frustration that they were not able to sleep well at night because of the noise from parties.

In addition to not understanding American parties, a few learners from each class shared experiences of feeling like they had not made friends because they did not attend

enough parties. Leah (Class B) shared an experience in this regard, saying, "*Last Friday night when I'm about to sleep, the people live next to my room ask me to play outside, and I said I'm too sleepy to go. He seems kind of do not understand me why I need to go to sleep that early on Friday night and I do disappointed him.*" Later on in the semester, this same learner wrote about struggling to make friends with Americans, and one of the reasons that she offered was that "*they have invited us several times to parties, and we said no because it was our time to sleep. In my hometown, I don't think people will not become friend if they miss some parties.*" It seems that, although this learner wanted to make friends, her choice to follow her custom of going to bed relatively early instead of attending parties made it more difficult for her to connect with the other students in her dormitory. Annie, also from Class B shared similar thoughts, writing that "*The way we making friends is completely different. American are more prone to make friends through clubs, parties or other social activities, but we more like the traditional ways. For examples, new friends are usually introduced by our old friends.*" From Class A, Danny wrote that it was hard for him to understand how people make friends in the United States, but it seemed to him that "*Americans enjoy holding parties with their friends, while we Chinese tend to stay in our room, playing video game and connecting with friends online.*" Based on these examples, it appears that differences in how American and international students socialize may be a factor influencing learners' success in forming intercultural relationships while studying abroad.

4.4.3. Desire for friendships

Despite the fact that many learners expressed frustrations regarding making friends at the university, it was clear that there was a general desire among the learners in each

class to form relationships with Americans as well as with other international students. Throughout their journals, the learners frequently made comments such as "*I would like to have more American friends*" (Haley, Class A), "*I do not have many American friends. I wish I had more*" (Dana, Class A), "*I think it is super necessary and helpful for us to make more American friends*" (Zach, Class B), and "*Making more American friends can be my goal and my wish in this semester*" (Natalie, Class B). Some learners in each class wrote about feeling like outsiders in their new environment, causing them to hope for American friends who could help them adapt to US culture. This sentiment was expressed by Sara (Class A) when she wrote, "*As an international student, the most dominantly emotional challenge is that I always feel different.*" She went on to say that she was the only "*Asian or nonnative speaker*" in some of her classes, and she hoped to befriend some of her classmates so she would not feel so different.

Annie (Class B) was another learner who felt similarly, stating, "*The last challenge for me is to enlarge my friend network, especially with local American. Although America is a melting pot of diverse cultures, I could feel the mainstream cultures and of course I'm not one of them.*" Others also wrote about how forming intercultural relationships could help them adapt, such as Tanya (Class A), who said that having more friends would help to "*give me the sense of belonging*," and Natalie (Class B), who explained, "*I think I can fit in the new life in the USA by making more American friends who are more familiar with American culture. Many things here are different from China, so having someone can help you fit in must be a happy thing.*" It seems that many of the learners in each class wanted to integrate into their new cultural environment and felt that forming friendships would help them in doing so.

Additionally, learners from both classes discussed the value of intercultural interaction for the sake of increasing cultural understanding in general. Several journal entries discussed the idea that interacting with people from around the world can "*expand the vision and widen the horizon*," as Caitlyn (Class A) stated. Julia (Class B), for instance, wrote that even though it can be difficult to build intercultural relationships, she wanted to have "*more American friends and friends from other countries*" because "*it seems important for to know more about the people around the world. Communicating with diverse people can open my eyes.*" Other learners focused on the fact that, while there were many things they valued in their own cultures, they appreciated being able to learn important lessons from the positive characteristics exemplified by other cultures. Dana (Class A) described how her experiences interacting with friends in the US had taught her to "*always have positive attitude in any situation*" and went on to say, "*Not only having American friends, but having many different kinds of cultural background friends is incredible. It gives you another perspective of the world.*" Matt (Class B) had a similar perspective, stating, "*It is important to make friends with people from different cultures. It helps me to realize the real world instead of the world I imagined when I was in China. . . . The part of culture that I think is better than my country could help me to find out the solution or just wrongness in my culture.*" From these statements, it is evident that learners in both Class A and Class B valued interacting with others from different cultural backgrounds due to the cultural knowledge and understanding that they could obtain.

Another benefit of forming intercultural relationships that was often referenced in the journals of learners in both classes was related to language; many shared their desire to befriend Americans in order to improve their English skills. For example, learners wrote

that having American friends would provide "*more chance to speak English*" (Sara, Class A),

the opportunity to improve "*oral English speaking*" (Natalie, Class B), and the ability to

"*improve my English speaking, learn other slang words, and learn American style gestures*"

(Celeste, Class B). It seems that the learners wanted to develop their skills and knew that

interacting in English when possible would allow them to do so. Luke (Class B) shared that

even though his schedule was so busy that he often didn't have time to go out with friends,

he was able to talk to friends in the dining hall. In that setting, he said that "*each of us know*

we have time to talk unlike just greeting when we meet," providing him with the opportunity

to develop his speaking skills in addition to "*learn some American culture.*" Similarly, Robert

(Class A), wrote about the advantages of having American friends, saying that "*We can*

learn diverse culture knowledge. Meanwhile, I can also practice my English speaking and

study how to communicate with others." As such, it appears that learners in both classes

valued their intercultural friendships for the practical purpose of being able to develop

their language skills in addition gaining social and cultural benefits.

    A final benefit of friendship that was discussed in many journals was that having

good friends was important for dealing with the unique challenges that study abroad

students face, such as culture shock, loneliness, and homesickness. Interestingly, even

though many learners wrote about their desires to form friendships with Americans, a few

from each class also mentioned that it was easier to form friendships with those from a

shared cultural and linguistic background and that those friendships were beneficial to

them. For example, Sammy (Class A) wrote, *"Before I came to America, I am afraid of being*

alone. However, I made a lot of Chinese friends there." This learner went on to explain that

she *"really want[ed] to have more American friends,"* but that she often spent time with

people from her home country because it was easier to form relationships without having

to overcome "*the language problems [that] make us have some difficulties in*

communication." Denise (Class B) had a similar opinion, saying that making friends "*is very*

important, because it is very common to feel lonely. They will need a friend to share their

frustrations and joys. Having friends from their hometown is also very helpful. Although this

may not help they practice their English, sometimes is good to have someone to share the

difficulties without the language barrier." For these students, having friends from their same

background seemed to be helpful because it provided support and an escape from the

stress of communicating in the second language.

A few other students also explained that they appreciated having friends who

understood their perspective and interests. Tom (Class A) wrote about the benefits of being

able to form close friendships with classmates who shared his background, writing that

"We can often find common hobbies and we like to hang out after classes." Annie (Class B)

added her thoughts on this topic by explaining that having friends from the same

background could be especially beneficial when dealing with stress or difficult challenges.

She said that it was important to "*try your best to communicate with local students*" to learn

about the culture and to practice speaking, but she also said that international students

"*should make friends from your own country. Those friends would help you when you feel*

nostalgia, homesick, and upset about the culture difference. Their suggestions and

consolations might more suitable for you since they know you better." She explained what

she meant by giving an example of a time when she had a disagreement with her mother

and was able to receive comfort from her friends because, "*having same cultural and same*

roots with me, they could readily empathy with me." Based on these examples, it seems that

some learners from each class relied on their friends who had common backgrounds in order to have enjoyable experiences during their time in the US and to overcome the unique struggles they faced as international students.

4.4.4. Second language use

Aside from providing insights into the learners' perspectives on forming friendships while on study abroad, the journal entries also contained information on how they felt about using English. In general, it appears that the learners from both classes had two overarching motivations for wanting to improve their language skills: to help them socially and to allow them to succeed academically. A common thread throughout the journal entries, especially in the early portion of the study, was that learners often had a difficult time communicating with native L2 speakers because they struggled to understand rapid natural speech and because they lacked casual, as opposed to academic, vocabulary and structures. For instance, Robert (Class A), said that one of the main reasons why *"it is difficult for me to make friends with Americans"* was the *"language problem which I often can not completely understand their meaning if they talk too fast or use some words that I do not know."* Similarly, Annie (Class B) wrote, "*Language is also an impediment for me. Since my oral English is not good enough, I cannot completely understand conversations that include a large number of slangs and idioms. When I chatting with my roommate, I feel extremely jittery because I cannot completely understand what she exactly talking about.*" Even though all of the learners had studied academic English for many years, many from each class expressed their difficulties of being unable to converse easily in casual conversations.

Some learners from each class also shared stories of feeling embarrassed due to their lack of social language, indicating that they found themselves feeling uncomfortable when they did not understand or know how to respond to somebody. Zach (Class A), for example, stated, "*I found that there are still many obstacles when I talking with an Americans, especially with those . . . who speak so fast that I even can't understand what he or she was talking about. When meeting those trouble, I felt super upset and embarrassed.*" Similarly, Luke (Class B) said, "*When I first met my roommate, he said 'what's up,' I was frozen when I heard it. What does the 'what's up' mean? I have never learned it in high school class, how should I respond? That is embarrassing right?*" Because these situations made them aware of their linguistic weaknesses and because they wanted to form relationships with native English speakers, many learners were motivated to improve their speaking and listening skills. Importantly, some reported that interacting became easier over time as their skills improved and as they recognized that people were generally forgiving of their linguistic weaknesses. Towards the end of the semester, Sara (Class A) wrote that she now felt confident speaking with American students "*since they will never pick my grammar mistake,*" and Annie (Class B) stated that she learned to "*have courage to chat with my roommates and ask questions in classes.*" Over time, the learners in both classes tended to report fewer instances of feeling embarrassed and struggling to understand.

In addition to wanting to improve their English to build relationships, learners in each class also discussed their need to develop academic skills to succeed in their classes. Many reported struggling to understand their professors, feeling that they were not able to perform on the same level as native English speaking classmates, and having to spend extra time studying to understand the material. Sara (Class A) explained, "*In psychology class,*

there are more than 100 students in one classroom, and the professor speaks very fast and

unclear. So, it is very hard for me to catch up every single word while taking notes. . . . I need

to spend a lot of time to memorize those main points after class, since there are too many

academic vocabularies." Tanya (Class A) also commented, saying, "*I really want to be better*

at writing and reading, and I really want to do good for my papers like the American students

do." Others struggled with participating in classes, worried that they would not be able to

express themselves well enough in English. For example, Leah (Class B) said, "*Sometimes I*

found people in my class can speak better English than I do, I will hesitate to speak."

Fortunately, it appears that many learners received significant support from their

professors and teaching assistants, which helped them succeed in their classes. Many

reported that talking with their professors "*was easy and helpful to do*" (Tom, Class A), and

Leah (Class B) shared her experience of being motivated by a professor who "*said he liked*

when I spoke up in class. I felt so thankful. It also encourages me a lot. Since then, I do not

hesitate to speak up in class, rather it is right or wrong. I am eager to participate in class

now." In sum, learners from both classes felt challenged by the prospect of undertaking

their education entirely in English, but they did seem to gain confidence over time as their

skills developed and due to the support of encouraging mentors and professors.

4.4.5. Extracurricular activities

Several of the learners in each class mentioned participating in extracurricular

activities throughout the course of the semester. Some of the main reasons given for

participating in these activities were to meet new friends and to practice English. Allison

(Class A) explained that "*the school activities enriched my college life. . . . At these activities, it*

is easy to meet people who have the same interest as I do and it is easy to make friends." More specifically, Robert (Class A) said that it was difficult to make friends with Americans because "*we always stay in a circle that come from the same country*" and that he wanted "*to go to some events and activities to practice [English]*." Additionally, some learners wrote that attending events and activities was a good way to deal with loneliness. For example, Denise (Class B) wrote that it is important *"to always have something to do during the weekend, can be a party, a university event or just a walk with friends. . . . The weekends can be pretty lonely. Be engaged in events can make them deceive loneliness while they are not totally comfortable in their new city."* Similarly, Robert (Class A) explained that participating in "*group activities instead of stay in the dorm*" helped to "*decrease my homesick feeling*," and Kerry (Class A) wrote that involvement in organizations helped to provide "*relief from the homesick*." Although many mentioned their extracurricular involvement throughout the study, Willa (Class B) mentioned that her participation in these types of activities decreased towards the end of the semester because she had become much busier with her academic workload. She said, "*Two months ago, I am still interesting in every new things such as group activities, field trips and so on but now, I have to go away from these because I do not have any time to do them. Much homework, essays, projects just devastated my life.*" In sum, it can be assumed that many of the learners in both classes did enjoy participating in extracurricular activities to make friends and avoid loneliness, as long as their schedules allowed.

4.4.6. Cultural learning

The learners' journal entries also provided insights into whether or not they felt that their English course had helped them learn more about culture. Many learners in both sections of the class indicated that they had been able to gain additional cultural understanding in addition to developing their language skills throughout the course of the semester. In particular, these learners referenced the reading materials and the regular class discussions as sources of cultural information. For instance, Liz (Class A) wrote at the end of the semester that the class "*not only improved my English, but also gave more broad understanding of American culture. By reading articles from [the textbook], I learned many things about American culture. I also had time to think about difference and similarities between Asian and American culture.*" Similarly, Luke (Class B) said, "*I regard this English class not only a language class, but also a culture gate for me. . . . Discussion is always a great way to study, every passage we read, every topic we have and every paragraph we wrote, I have learned amount of unique culture things in US from this class.*"

Although these sentiments of having learned a great deal about culture in the course were common throughout the journals, a few learners wrote that they did not learn much about American culture because they had spent a significant period of time in the US previously. Additionally, one learner, Matt (Class B), wrote that he did "*not think this course help me to understand American culture more*" because the articles only introduced topics briefly, and he felt that "*there are a lot more needed to know compared to the information on the [textbook]."* Taken as a whole, however, it appears that many learners did feel that they had increased in cultural understanding by participating in their English class throughout the semester, regardless of whether they were given implicit or explicit cultural

instruction. These qualitative results contrast with the results of the quantitative analysis, which showed only a negligible increase in cultural attitude scores throughout the study; while learners in both classes reported in their journals that they learned about culture, they did not appear to have more positive attitudes towards intercultural interaction as a result. This may point to the fact that that increased cultural knowledge does not necessarily correspond with more positive attitudes, and further research may be beneficial to determine if some types of cultural learning may be more conducive to improving attitudes than others.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1. Out-of-class Language Use

The analysis of this data indicates that the majority of learners in this study do use English outside of class on a regular basis, although some may not do so at all or to a very limited extent. Since it may be assumed that there would be many opportunities for interacting with native English speakers in this immersion context, it is not surprising to see that 65% of participants reported using English seven days per week even at the beginning of the study. However, the fact that a substantial minority (16%) reported never using it outside of class or using it only a few days per week suggests that not all learners in this environment were able to take full advantage of the rich linguistic resources surrounding them. Additionally, even though many learners reported using English daily, relatively few (22%) reported using the second language for the majority of their speaking on an average day. This indicates that, despite being immersed in an English-speaking environment, most of the learners used other languages more frequently than they used English, corresponding with Trentman's (2013a) finding that American study abroad participants learning Arabic in Egypt used the L2 less often than their native language. This result may lend support to the notion that when learners have access to speakers of their native language while on study abroad, they are not forced to use the target language for a majority of their speaking and may therefore may spend far less time using it than is often assumed.

It is also noteworthy that overall English usage decreased throughout the course of the semester. It could be that the learners were more prone to over-reporting the first time they took the survey, perhaps due to a desire to suggest that they were making the most of

their time on study abroad while the experience was still relatively fresh. By the end of the

semester, they may have become more realistic about what is expected of them and what is

possible to manage with their busy schedules. It is also possible that the learners made

more of an effort to find opportunities to use English outside of class earlier in the

semester, but lost the motivation to continue over time. This could have happened if they

felt that their earlier efforts had been unsuccessful, or if the interactions had been too

mentally or emotionally taxing. At the start of the semester, when they were first meeting a

large pool of new acquaintances, they could have worked to initiate relationships with the

native English speakers they encountered in their dormitories and classrooms, but then

gradually used less and less English if those relationships failed to solidify. In order to

gather more information about this issue in future research, it could be useful to include a

survey item regarding self-perceptions of how out-of-class language usage changed over

time.

Alternatively, if learners had begun to form strong relationships with others who

shared their native languages, they may have eventually settled into routines in which they

no longer desired or felt a need to branch out and find opportunities to interact with native

English speakers. In particular, this could have been the case for Chinese learners, who

reported less English use than non-Chinese learners. Since the majority of international

students at this university are Chinese, a situation that is increasingly common at US

universities (Institute of International Education, 2013), it is relatively easy for these

individuals to form social circles with others from the same national and linguistic

background. Busy schedules at the end of the semester, when the final survey was

administered, could also have caused the learners to report lower percentages of English

use at that time, since they may have been balancing an exceptionally heavy academic

workload and had less time for socializing in general. The data indicated that there was less

participation in extracurricular activities towards the end of the semester, and this could

have contributed to the declining L2 usage since it has been suggested that engagement in

cultural and social activities may be an important factor in target language usage for study

abroad participants (e.g., Hernández, 2010).

5.2. Intercultural Relationships

It is encouraging to see that the reported numbers of relationships with native

English speakers increased from the initial survey to the final survey, indicating that many

learners were successfully developing relationships throughout the course of the semester.

It is impossible to know from this data specific details about the closeness and intensity of

the relationships reported in the surveys, but the fact that more than half of learners

indicated having close friends and three-quarters indicated having friends at the end of the

semester suggests that the majority of learners in this study interacted with native English

speakers regularly enough to consider them friends or close friends. However, there was

still a substantial minority, about 25%, that ended the semester without any friendships

with native L2 speakers. This finding aligns with previous research indicating that many

study abroad participants struggle to form intercultural friendships, despite a desire to do

so (e.g., Bataller, 2010; Gareis, Merkin, & Goldman, 2011; Ward & Masgoret, 2004). It also

closely mirrors the finding from Gareis et al. (2001) that 24 percent of learners at a New

York City university did not form friendships with native L2 speakers while studying

abroad.

For the learners in this study who did develop intercultural friendships, the most common places where these relationships were formed were in classes and dormitories, confirming the value of having study abroad participants enroll in courses with and room with native English speaking students. Learners reported relatively few relationships formed through participation in extracurricular activities, but most did report participating in them. Further research might be useful to determine whether learners attending extracurricular events in this type of university setting spend a significant amount of time interacting directly with native English speakers or if they tend to socialize mainly with others from the same linguistic background attending the same events, since simply placing learners in proximity with native speakers does not necessarily ensure that they will have meaningful interactions (Trentman, 2013b). With the high numbers of international students attending US universities, attendance at an extracurricular event does not necessarily guarantee in-depth interactions with native L2 speakers, although it can provide excellent opportunities for intercultural encounters. The fact that extracurricular participation declined overall by the end of the semester could be due to increasingly busy schedules, as was confirmed by one learner in the qualitative analysis, or due to declining interest in the activities after an initial period of exploratory participation.

5.3. Cultural Instruction Intervention

Based on the quantitative analysis performed in this study, it appears that the intervention, in which Class A received implicit cultural instruction and Class B received explicit cultural instruction, did not significantly impact attitudes towards intercultural interactions or motivations for using the L2 socially. Explicit cultural instruction did not

lead to higher percentages of speaking in English outside of class, as the average use of the L2 among Class B learners decreased more than that of Class A learners. It also did not lead to more positive cultural attitudes or motivations for using English socially; the scores for these attitudes and motivations increased equally throughout the course of the study in both classes. Since Class B reported higher percentages of English usage, more relationships with native English speakers, and higher scores for cultural attitudes and using the L2 socially than Class A at each point in the study, it is possible that the difference between the classes modulated the outcome of the intervention study. With Class B learners already more disposed to using the L2 and interacting with native speakers more often than those in Class A, explicit instruction may not have had the same impact on them as it might have had for a different group of learners.

Additionally, other individual differences among the learners could have impacted the ways in which participants responded to the two different modes of instruction. Some learners inevitably entered the classroom with more positive attitudes towards American culture or intercultural interaction in general than others, and the learners all had unique perspectives and goals regarding their English language development. As was the case in Isabelli-Garcia's 2006 study, individual learners' tendencies for ethnorelativism or ethnocentrism, regardless of which class they were in, may have impacted their motivation to engage in intercultural interaction as well as their receptiveness to cultural instruction. Furthermore, some learners in Class A might have been naturally inclined to think about culture or to relate their own experiences to the readings and assignments that they completed for class, despite the fact that they did not receive explicit cultural instruction.

Regardless of the lack of a clear connection between explicit cultural instruction and attitudes towards culture and using the L2 socially in this study, it is not possible to conclude that such a connection could not exist, particularly since prior studies have suggested that there is a positive relationship between direct cultural instruction and learners' willingness to engage in intercultural interaction (e.g., Baker-Smemoe et al., 2014; Gareis et al., 2011). One important point is that the English classes in which this study was conducted were advanced composition courses in which the learners were highly proficient in the second language and engaging with intercultural themes on a regular basis through their normal reading and writing assignments. Discussion of cultural issues arose naturally in both classes, despite the fact that lessons were planned to engage more directly with them in the section with explicit instruction. Since the learners in both classes were reading authentic materials and naturally connecting them to their own experiences as study abroad participants, they often raised issues that dealt with intercultural interaction explicitly in their class discussions. They were also asked to consider issues related to culture in their weekly journal assignments, meaning that all learners were directed to engage with these topics to some extent; being required to write about their experiences in these journals may have had an impact, as Kinginger (2011) suggested that the use of writing and reflection may assist learners as they deal with the cultural and social factors of a study abroad experience.

As such, it could be the case that discussions and reflections regarding cultural issues, which learners in both classes participated in, did have a positive impact on attitudes and motivations, but this effect might not be visible in this intervention study due to the nature of the coursework; despite the effort to provide more explicit cultural

instruction in one course, learners in both sections regularly engaged with these topics. This could imply it may not be necessary to incorporate explicit cultural instruction in courses such as this one, in which the use of authentic materials naturally sparks cultural discussions. It could also be possible that explicit cultural instruction could have more of an impact in a lower-level course in which the focus is more on basic language skills rather than on advanced reading and writing, which naturally involves engaging with higher-level topics. An additional consideration could be the fact that the intervention was only about six weeks long. Further research in which a similar intervention is undertaken over a longer time period may provide useful insights into the impact of explicit cultural instruction in the second language classroom.

5.4. Cultural Attitudes and Motivations for L2 Use

It is important to note that even though there were no differences in the rate of change of cultural attitude and social motivation scores for the two classes, there were slight increases in both classes. While the intervention itself may not have contributed, the learners' attitudes towards cultural interaction and their interest in using English socially did increase throughout the course of the study, with a stronger effect for social motivations. This indicates that by the end of their first semester at the university, this group of learners had, on average, more positive feelings towards interacting with native English speakers than they had had midway through the semester. This may indicate that the learners had had successful intercultural encounters with their native English-speaking peers throughout the semester and were interested in having more. It could also signal that they felt a stronger desire to learn more about the L2 culture or that they recognized the

value of interacting with native L2 speakers to help improve their own language skills. If some had struggled with their language abilities in classes or social situations, or if they had been disappointed with their social experiences in their first semester, they may have felt a stronger desire to interact more in the following semester. In any case, these results do seem to be favorable in that they indicate an increasing level of positivity towards intercultural interaction and social use of the L2 over time, something that could help the learners make the most of the many cultural and linguistic opportunities available to them while on study abroad.

5.5. Analysis of Qualitative Results

From the analysis of qualitative data in this study, it appears that the intervention study did not have an observable impact on the learners' perceptions of culture or their thoughts regarding social interaction with native English speakers. There were many common themes that appeared throughout the semester in the journal entries from learners in both the section with explicit instruction and the one with implicit instruction; these themes covered topics such as forming new friendships, dealing with obstacles to successful intercultural communication, being motivated to develop L2 skills, participating in extracurricular activities, and gaining cultural knowledge through language courses. There were a few minor differences between the classes, such as the fact that more Class B learners criticized what they perceived to be the superficiality of American relationships and that no Class A learners mentioned cultural differences related to humor, but it is difficult to draw conclusions in these instances due to the open-ended nature of the prompts for each journal entry. The finding that there were no substantial differences in

the journal entries between the two classes supports the conclusion drawn from the quantitative analysis that the intervention did not significantly impact the learners' overall cultural attitudes or motivations for using English socially.

However, the qualitative analysis did reveal interesting insights that could help explain the learners' overall L2 use, their types of intercultural interaction, and their attitudes and motivations regarding L2 use. In general, the qualitative analysis revealed that many learners in both classes had relatively positive attitudes towards American culture and interacting with Americans. Although there were many frustrations and concerns reported in the journal entries throughout the semester, there were also many instances of describing Americans as being friendly and welcoming. The learners were divided regarding the difficulty of making friends with Americans, however. While some seemed to feel it was easy to meet new friends and build relationships, others were struck by what they interpreted as the superficiality of many Americans' behavior towards them. As explained by Carbaugh (2005) it is considered polite the United States to offer greetings to strangers or acquaintances when meeting them for the first time or when seeing them briefly in passing; it is also polite to engage in small talk about insignificant matters when interacting with people in instances such as before a class or event begins. These exchanges are common even among people who are not close friends and who may not intend on seeing each other again.

As seen in the learner journals in this study, however, these routine forms of polite interactions can often appear superficial to those from different cultural backgrounds, a finding also described by Carbaugh (2005). If study abroad participants come from a background in which these types of polite greetings and small talk are not routinely

exchanged among strangers or acquaintances, it could be easy to interpret them as being indicators of a deeper friendship than what truly exists. When the learners have Americans greet them cheerfully on several instances, but then never follow up with additional friendly conversations or invitations, they may feel that the individuals in question were being fake or insincere, although the true motivation may simply have been a desire to be polite. However, due to differences in routine social conventions and standards of politeness between cultures, these types of exchanges appear to have led to frustration and difficulties in communicating for many learners. This struggle to form close relationships due to a perceived superficiality among American nationals corresponds with prior research, such as a report from Carbaugh (2005) involving Finns and Germans as well as a study from Trice and Elliott (1993) involving Japanese learners of English; in both of these cases, the international individuals believed that their interactions with native English speakers in the US were superficial, making it difficult to develop deep personal connections.

Other cultural differences also seemed to pose significant problems for many learners. Some wrote about the gap of cultural knowledge between themselves and their American peers, sometimes implying that it would be nearly impossible to form real or deep relationships due to their different backgrounds. Many felt that they could not relate to Americans since they did not understand references to current events or popular culture, or because they did not have the same sense of humor. It could be that the learners felt out of place when they did not understand something in a group of Americans, leading them to simply find other friends who shared the same background instead of working to overcome the culture gap. The tendency among the learners in this study to feel that

forming friendships within their native culture and linguistic background was easier than reaching out to native English speakers aligns with the finding from Gareis et al. (2011) that many study abroad participants grouped together because they felt they were able to connect with each other better than with host country nationals. This issue could perhaps be addressed by providing more opportunities to learn about popular culture in second language courses for study abroad students, as well as by encouraging learners to pursue intercultural friendships even if they face cultural differences or do not always understand each other. It also could be the case that some American students are more accepting of differences than others, so efforts to encourage domestic students to be more accommodating may also be useful.

Differences in expectations for social behavior such as attendance at parties also seemed to create difficulties for learners who wanted to form relationships with Americans. Many of the learners expressed that they were accustomed to going to bed early, and they did not understand why their American classmates stayed out late. Party culture is a very large and visible part of the college experience for many in the United States, and it is very common to go out with friends at night, particularly on the weekends. If international students chose to remain in their dorm rooms instead of socializing, Americans could interpret this as a lack of interest in forming relationships, creating a barrier to establishing friendships in other venues. Furthermore, learners who struggle to accept or understand cultural differences – whether they relate to worldviews, social behaviors, or general interests – may be resistant to integrating in the host culture, as was suggested by Kinginger (2013)

Additionally, it is generally easier to initiate new relationships at the start of a semester at a university, when many new students are looking for friends simultaneously. Once initial friendships and social groups have been established, it may be less common for others to receive additional invitations to parties or events. Since international students face additional adjustments when they first arrive at the beginning of a semester, they may tend to initially group together with those who share their same background and have less mental or emotional energy to change their customs and join social gatherings such as parties on the weekends. As such, however, they may miss those early opportunities to form friendships and may struggle to join social groups with American students later on in the semester.

It is encouraging that, even though many learners struggled with knowing how to befriend American students, they wanted to form intercultural friendships to help them fit in, to learn more about culture in general, and to develop their speaking and listening skills in English. Many also wrote about the benefits of participating regularly in extracurricular activities. This indicates that the learners are generally positive towards and recognize the benefits of intercultural interaction and that they understand the value of interacting in English from a language development perspective; this finding corresponds with research from Dewey (2007) and Pellegrino (1998) indicating that study abroad participants highly value the opportunities that they have to use the target language outside of the classroom.

Despite this desire for intercultural friendships, it is notable that a few learners discussed the benefits of having friends from the same cultural and linguistic background on study abroad. Traveling to a completely new country and culture comes with many unique challenges, and it is not difficult to see how having friends who understand those

challenges could help learners feel less isolated. Since being overwhelmed emotionally or mentally is not conducive to learning and development, linguistic or otherwise, it seems reasonable that having friendships from within the same culture could be beneficial. However, further research is needed to verify whether any potential benefits of having friends from the same background outweigh the lost opportunities of interacting with native speakers of the target language, since the social, cultural, and linguistic benefits of interacting meaningfully in the second language, particularly while on study abroad, have been well documented (e.g., Baker-Smemoe et al., 2012; Hernández, 2010; Pan, 2013; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). If having support from friends with similar backgrounds were shown to be beneficial, the challenge would then be in helping learners to find a balance between having friends from the home culture without using them as a crutch to avoid interacting in the second language and culture.

Additionally, the analysis showed that the learners had both instrumental and integrative motivation to improve their English skills in all areas, either for developing relationships or for succeeding in the classroom. They were faced with the challenge of learning casual spoken language and slang to interact with native speakers, something that was difficult because many seemingly had never been taught slang or reduced forms, and they also needed to develop their academic skills for tasks such as reading lengthy college-level articles, giving presentations, and writing formal essays. Although many learners reported struggling with understanding their peers and keeping up in class towards the end of the semester, these reports of frustrations were much less common over time, indicating that many were gaining the skills they needed and were adapting. The fact that so many learners reported that their professors and teaching assistants were willing to

provide them with the support and encouragement that they needed to perform well in their classes also indicates that the university in general, at least on the level of the faculty and staff, succeeded in being welcoming and supportive of international students.

Finally, it is important to note that many learners in both Class A and Class B wrote that their understanding of American culture had improved through their participation in the second language course. This indicates that, despite the use of more explicit teaching in one section through the intervention study, the nature of the course materials and structure led to cultural learning in both sections. Learners in both classes reported that the reading materials caused them to consider cultural issues and differences and that they appreciated being able to discuss these topics in the classroom. This confirms the quantitative findings from the survey indicating that cultural understanding may have increased for the group of learners as a whole, with no significant differences between the classes. As previously mentioned, this could also indicate that it is not necessary to plan an explicit focus on culture in this type of advanced reading and writing class, as such topics will arise naturally. Further research could be useful in determining whether an explicit focus on culture could be more effective in a lower-level second language course, since a connection between direct cultural instruction and attitudes towards using the L2 socially and cross-culturally has been suggested previously (e.g., Baker-Smemoe et al., 2014).

5.6. Limitations

As has been mentioned previously, one of the major limitations of this intervention study is the fact that it was impossible to eliminate all explicit discussion of culture in the section of the class that was intended to focus only on implicit cultural instruction. Since

learners in both sections naturally connected their assignments to their experiences as

international students immersed in a new culture, they often raised questions and

comments related to cultural issues in class regardless of the instructor's lesson design

involving an implicit or explicit approach. The relatively short timeframe of the

intervention must also be taken into account; since cultural competency is quite complex

and can take many years to develop, it is possible that six weeks of instruction was not

enough to make a significant difference and that a longer intervention might have a very

different outcome. As such, it is difficult to draw any firm conclusions from the lack of an

observable effect from the intervention in either the qualitative or quantitative analysis in

this study. It could be the case that including an explicit focus on culture does not impact

cultural attitudes and social motivations any differently than implicit instruction, or it

could be that this is true only in this specific situation involving international students in a

high-level university language class throughout the course of a six week period.

An additional limitation relates to the measure used to assess learners' out-of-class

second language usage. Two survey items were used for the analysis in this study, one in

which learners reported how many days per week they used English outside of class, and

one in which they estimated how much of their speaking, on an average day, was in English

as opposed to another language. Because there was no way to calculate objective time

measurements regarding how many hours English was used per day or per week, it is

difficult to compare this data across participants. This is particularly true because the

participants may have interpreted the items differently; what "an average day" entailed in

the mind of one learner could be different from that of another, and one learner could have

interpreted the question differently at each of the two points in the semester when the

survey was administered. As such, it is important to not draw conclusions from this data

regarding exact amounts of time that English was spoken.

Finally, the self-reported data both on the surveys as well as in the journal entries

could have been impacted by the fact that the learners were enrolled in a for-credit

language course taught by an American instructor who was also the researcher of this

study. Steps were taken to minimize the impact of this factor: the learners knew that the

data collection process in no way impacted their grades and that the survey data would be

anonymized, and the surveys were distributed without the instructor present. However, it

is possible that some may have felt pressure to respond in particular ways in order to not

jeopardize their standing in the class or to present a particular image of themselves.

Additionally, although the learners were told that they could write freely in their journals

since these assignments were graded purely for completion, the fact that they knew their

American instructor would be reading and responding could have impacted what they

were willing to divulge. The instructor worked to establish an open environment that

welcomed all points of view in class, but some may still have been hesitant to share any

criticisms of American culture out of fear of offending their instructor, which could have

impacted the qualitative data collection and analysis.

5.7. Additional Implications for Further Research

The data gathered through this study are rich and could provide the possibility for

further exploration and analysis. One area that may prove fruitful could involve conducting

an individual analysis of the learners' L2 usage, attitudes and motivations, and perspectives

on intercultural communication. For example, those learners who had particularly high or

low rates of out-of-class English usage or who had very high or low numbers of reported

friends could be examined to determine if there were any patterns regarding their attitudes

and motivations in the quantitative survey, or their perspectives as expressed in the

quantitative portion of the study. If there were any common factors within the subgroups

of learners at either end of the spectrum, it could provide insights into why some learners

appear to be more successful at using the L2 socially while studying abroad, which is

significant due to the connections found between L2 usage and overall linguistic

development (e.g., Baker-Smemoe et al., 2012; Dewey et al., 2013; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006).

Similarly, the qualitative data could be analyzed on an individual basis to determine if there

were any contributing factors that could explain particularly significant positive or

negative changes in L2 usage, cultural attitudes, or social motivation throughout the course

of the semester.

Future studies could also include additional self-reflection from learners regarding

their own perceptions of their L2 usage over time. By soliciting learners' own thoughts on

how and why their L2 usage may have changed over the course of the semester, additional

insights into the factors that could have led to differences could be gained. For example, it

would be useful to know if learners felt that their usage had decreased due to a lack of

success in relationship building, increasingly busy academic workloads, or other factors.

This self-reflection could be gathered either through a final journal entry or with open-

ended questions on a final survey, allowing for more specific interpretation of changes in

L2 usage at the individual level.

It could also be beneficial to explore the impact of factors such as baseline levels of

L2 usage, cultural attitudes, and social motivations on learners' overall experiences. For

example, preliminary exploratory analyses appeared to reveal patterns suggesting that

when learners are divided into two categories based on their levels of L2 usage, those who

reported using English greater than or equal to the average (median) level at the beginning

of the study ultimately had greater increases in their cultural attitude and social motivation

scores. This may indicate that those learners who began their study abroad experiences

with more frequent L2 usage and who therefore may have had more interaction with

native L2 speakers had the greatest positive change in attitudes and motivations. It could

be valuable to explore the impact of these initial levels of L2 usage on other variables, in

addition to conducting similar analyses by dividing the learners into high and low

categories based on their initial attitudes and motivation scores or their reported numbers

of friendships and then measuring the effect of those differences on factors such as L2

usage and changes in attitudes and motivations over time.

Additionally, it could be useful to conduct a similar study that tests for different

types of motivation in addition to social motivations for L2 use. While it may seem intuitive

to assume that a desire to use the L2 to interact with those from different backgrounds

could lead to increased engagement in the L2 outside of the classroom, alternative types of

motivation could also impact learners' patterns of L2 use. For example, a learner who is

primarily concerned with improving the L2 in order to perform better academically and

who has low levels of interest in building meaningful long-term relationships with other L2

speakers could still recognize the linguistic benefits of using the L2 to communicate with

classmates and friends outside of class. This learner might seek out opportunities to

practice the L2 despite a general lack of interest in social engagement, and as such, it could

prove useful to analyze the ways in which different types of motivation, in conjunction with

attitudes towards intercultural interaction, might impact the quality and quantity of
learners' L2 use.

Other avenues for further research could involve exploring the types of interactions
that the learners had in the L2, including analysis of the quality of interactions in addition
to the quantity of L2 use. This could include examining whether those learners who had
more close friends or friends who were native L2 speakers, and therefore presumably were
more likely to have more frequent in-depth and truly meaningful conversations in the L2,
had any significant patterns with regards to cultural attitudes and motivations. It could also
be beneficial to explore the types of L2 interactions that learners had with other non-native
L2 speakers; in a setting such as a large university in the US, it is to be expected that
learners will regularly encounter other international students from either the same or a
different first language and cultural background. It could be informative to explore how
learners' experiences interacting in the L2 with native and non-native L2 speakers differ
and how those interactions may impact overall L2 usage, attitudes, or motivations.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

A major goal of this study was to determine the effects of an intervention involving differing types of cultural instruction on learners' L2 usage, cultural attitudes, and social motivations. Additionally, this study explored general patterns regarding the learners' frequency and types of L2 interactions and their perspectives regarding intercultural communication. Quantitative analyses revealed that most of the learners use their L1 more frequently than the L2 and that overall levels of L2 usage decreased throughout the semester, but also that learners reported higher numbers of native L2 speaking friends by the end of the study. Furthermore, analyses indicated that the learners as a group had moderately positive cultural attitudes and social motivations that increased over time, though there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups. Analysis of the intervention study revealed that there was no difference in outcomes based on type of cultural instruction, although there may have been a difference in effectiveness on an individual level regarding changes in social motivation scores. Qualitative analysis of learners' journal entries also did not reveal substantial differences between the two classes, but it did provide useful information regarding patterns in the learners' perspectives as a group. For instance, it indicated that they were interested in forming more relationships with native L2 speakers but that they struggled to overcome obstacles such as cultural differences, the language barrier, and the tendency to gravitate towards same-culture relationships due to the relative ease of interaction in these associations.

The findings of this study suggest that it may not be necessary for instructors to implement explicit cultural instruction in their second language classrooms, particularly at the advanced level in which learners are regularly engaging with authentic materials. Since

cultural topics arise naturally in these types of settings, a focus on explicit cultural instruction may have no differences in outcome than using only implicit cultural instruction. The findings also indicate, however, that cultural attitudes and social motivations among learners increased over the course of the semester, indicating that they had more positive views of intercultural interaction and were more motivated to use the L2 socially at the end of their semester of study abroad than they had been initially. This is encouraging since it signifies that the study abroad experience, regardless of the type of cultural instruction that was provided, may have offered social and cultural benefits to the learners. Insights gained from the qualitative data also can inform instructors of which types of cultural knowledge might be most helpful to provide to their study abroad participants; for example, many learners were confused about social behaviors such as politeness routines and party culture. Despite the fact that the intervention was not significant in this study, the results provide an increased understanding of the L2 usage patterns and the perspectives of international students at this US university, which could help study abroad instructors better understand and teach their learners.

Appendix 1:

Survey Text

Language Contact Profile

Part 1: Background Information

1. Gender: Male / Female

2. Age: _____

3. What country were you born in? _____

4. What is your native language? _____

5. At which of these levels have you studied English in the past? (Check all that apply.)

    ___ 1.   Elementary school
    ___ 2.   Junior high (middle) school
    ___ 3.   High school
    ___ 4.   University/college

6. <u>Besides your native language and English,</u> how many other languages do you speak? (For this study, it doesn't matter how well you speak them.) (Circle one)

    None   *One*   *Two*   *Three or more*

7. If you speak languages other than English and your native language, which languages do you speak? _____

8. How long have you been in the United States? (Circle one)

    Less than 4 months   5-8 months   9-12 months   1-2 years   More than 2 years

9. a. Have you ever lived in another English-speaking country? Yes / No

    b. If yes, how long did you live there? (Circle one)

    Less than 4 months   5-8 months   9-12 months   1-2 years   More than 2 years

10. What year are you in school? (Circle one)

    Freshman   Sophomore   Junior   Senior   Graduate   Other

11. What is your major? _____

12. Which situation best describes your living situation while studying here?

    a. I live with only native English-speaking roommates.
    b. I live with some native English-speaking roommates.
    c. I live with only non-native English-speaking roommates.
    d. I live with my own family and we mostly speak in my native language.
    e. I live alone.

13. How many native English speakers do you know that you would describe as:

    a. close friends that you see often _____
    b. friends that you know well but don't see often _____
    c. acquaintances that you see occasionally but don't know well _____

14. If you have friends who are native English speakers, how did you meet them? (Check all that apply)

    ___ 1.   roommates or lived in the same dormitory
    ___ 2.   classmates
    ___ 3.   in the same major
    ___ 4.   in a club or extracurricular group (e.g., sports team, music group, etc.)
    ___ 5.   through other friends
    ___ 6.   other: _____

15. How often do you participate in extracurricular activities (clubs, sports, university activities, etc.)? *This question refers to participating on a team or club, not attending sports or other events.* (Circle one)

    a. never
    b. less than once a month
    c. once a month
    d. 2-3 times a month
    e. once a week
    f. 2-3 times a week
    g. daily

16. If you do participate in extracurricular activities, which ones do you participate in?

_____

_____

_____

Part 2: Language Contact Profile

1. How many days per week do you speak your native language outside of class? _____

2. How many days per week do you speak English outside of class? _____

3. On an average day, what percentage of your speaking is in English, your native language, or another language? (The percentages should add up to 100.)

<div align="center">

English:	_____%
My native language:	_____%
Another language:	_____%
Total:	**100%**

</div>

For the following items, please specify:
(i) How many *days per week* you typically use English in the situation indicated, and
(ii) on average how many *hours per day* you did so.

Circle the appropriate numbers.

Outside of class, how often do you speak *in English* to:

a. teacher(s) or teaching assistants
    Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

b. roommates who do not share your native language
    Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

c. friends who do not share your native language
    Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

d. classmates who do not share your native language
    Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
    On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

How often do you:

a. try deliberately to use things you were taught in the classroom (grammar, vocabulary, expressions) with native or fluent speakers of English outside the classroom?
   Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
   On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

b. read e-mail or Internet web pages *in English?*
   Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
   On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

c. read newspapers, magazines, or novels, or listen to movies, TV, or music *in English?*
   Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
   On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

d. read newspapers, magazines, or novels, or listen to movies, TV, or music *in your native language*?
   Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
   On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

e. read e-mail or Internet web pages *in your native language*
   Typically, how many *days per week?*   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
   On those days, typically how many *hours per day*?   0-1 1-2 2-3 3-4 4-5 more than 5

For each of the statements below, please place an 'X' in the chart to indicate how much you agree or disagree, with 1 being "completely disagree" and 7 being "completely agree."

		disagree---------------agree						
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
ex.	*The weather in this city is very challenging.*						X	
1	I enjoy getting to know people who come from different cultures.							
2	Improving my ability to read and write for my classes is more important than improving my social communication in English.							
3	I want to learn about US culture so I can have better relationships with Americans.							
4	The more I learn about Americans, the more I like them.							
5	Making friends with Americans is very difficult.							

		disagree----------------agree						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I don't look for opportunities to use English outside of class because it is difficult or I don't know where to find them.							
7	It is important for me to make friends with Americans while I am studying in the US.							
8	I am not interested in getting know Americans better.							
9	I don't need to speak in English when I am not in class.							
10	The Americans I have met here have seemed interested in getting to know me.							
11	Learning about American culture and traditions is not interesting to me.							
12	Having American friends is important because it helps me improve my English.							
13	Overall, Americans are friendly, warm-hearted, and good people.							
14	I don't need American friends since I have many friends from my home country here.							
15	I have had good experiences working with Americans in my classes.							
16	I want to improve my English so I can have better relationships with Americans.							
17	In general, I would rather spend time with people from my own country than with Americans.							
18	I have a hard time working with Americans on group assignments.							
19	I am interested in finding new ways to interact with Americans, such as joining organizations or clubs on campus.							
20	American culture emphasizes selfishness, materialism, and insincerity.							
21	I would like to spend more time speaking in English outside of class.							
22	The main reason I want to improve my English is to do well in my classes.							

Appendix 2:

Survey Items for Attitudes and Motivations

The following twelve survey items were used to measure <u>cultural attitudes</u>:

Positively worded

1. Overall, Americans are friendly, warm-hearted, and good people.

2. I enjoy getting to know people who come from different cultures.

3. The Americans I have met here have seemed interested in getting to know me.

4. I have had good experiences working with Americans in my classes.

5. I want to learn more about American culture so I can have better relationships with Americans.

6. The more I learn about Americans, the more I like them.

Negatively worded

7. I am not interested in getting know Americans better.

8. I believe there are many problems with American culture.

9. Learning about American culture and traditions is not interesting to me.

10. I have a hard time working with Americans on group assignments.

11. In general, I would rather spend time with people from my own country than with Americans.

12. Making friends with Americans is very difficult.

The following ten survey items were used to measure <u>motivations for using English socially</u>:

Positively worded

1. I want to improve my English so I can have better relationships with Americans.

2. It is important for me to make friends with Americans while I am studying in the US.

3. I am interested in finding new ways to interact with Americans, such as joining organizations or clubs on campus.

4. Having American friends is important because it helps me improve my English.

5. I would like to spend more time speaking in English outside of class.

Negatively worded

6. The main reason I want to improve my English is to do well in my classes.

7. I don't need American friends since I have many friends from my home country here.

8. Improving my ability to read and write well for my classes is much more important than improving my social communication in English.

9. I don't need to speak in English when I am not in class.

10. I don't look for opportunities to use English outside of class because it is difficult or I don't know where to find them.

Appendix 3:

Writing Prompts

On a regular basis, the learners were given a series of questions as a prompt for their weekly journal assignment. The instructions for each journal were as follows:

> This journal is a space for you to write freely, without worrying about grammar or the rules of academic writing. This will allow you to practice writing quickly and fluently. For this week's journal assignment, please respond to any or all of the questions listed below. You should write at least 20 sentences and try to write for about 10-20 minutes. This assignment will be graded for completion.

The ten writing prompts used throughout the semester are listed below:

1. What are the biggest differences between your culture and American culture? What things have been most surprising to you or most difficult to adjust to since you arrived in the US? What do you admire about American culture, and what do you not like?

2. How is your semester going so far? What have been the best or worst parts? Do you like your classes? Which are interesting or challenging for you? How do you feel about [this English course]? Do you have any suggestions or questions?

3. If you had two weeks to travel anywhere in the world, where would you go? What are your reasons? (Try to use modals in your writing!) Do you enjoy traveling? Why or why not? What are the advantages or disadvantages of traveling?

4. Are there any differences between relationships (families, friends, dating, etc.) in your culture and in American culture? Is it easy or difficult to make friends with Americans? Explain your answer. Do you wish you had more American friends? Do you think it is important to have friends from different cultures?

5. Now that we are getting towards the middle of the semester, how are things going for you? Do you have any comments or feedback about [this English course]? (You can share positive or negative comments that you have so that we can continue making the class as good for you as possible.) What advice would you give to new students starting out here? What are the essential tips to follow if you want to have a good experience as an international student here?

6. What different types of motivation are there? What do you think is your greatest motivation for school, for learning English, or for something else that you are pursuing? Explain. What types of motivation are not as important for you? Explain your answer.

7. In class this week, we talked about how languages can merge and adapt when there are large groups of people who speak different languages coming into contact with each other. For example, Spanglish has developed in the United States due to the contact between English speakers and Spanish speakers. Aside from linguistic changes, in what other ways are societies impacted by contact between different cultural groups? Try to think of different aspects of society that might be impacted either positively or negatively.

8. For your homework this week, you are reading about some of the effects that emotions can have on us. In light of this topic, please answer the following questions: Even if we do not have emotional personalities, all of us have to deal with difficult challenges. What are some of the emotional challenges that you currently face or have faced as an international student? Do you have any strategies for helping yourself overcome the challenges you have encountered this semester? If so, what are they? If not, do you have any ideas about something that might be useful in the future?

9. In class this week, we talked about life sentences and the prison system in the United States, and we discussed the point that this is a very controversial issue. We have also discussed other controversial topics throughout the semester, such as poverty, caring for the elderly, video game violence, and immigration. What makes these kinds of topics so controversial? Do you think you generally agree with your American colleagues on these or other controversial topics? What are some of the biggest differences or similarities between how you (or people from your culture, in general) and Americans usually think about these or other topics?

10. Now that you have nearly completed one semester here, how do you think your thoughts or feelings about being here have changed? (For example, has it been easier or more difficult than you had expected? Have your interactions with other students affected your perceptions of US culture? / Do you think that being in an English class has been useful to you for (a) improving your language skills and (b) learning more about American culture? Explain your answers for each of these areas.

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Vita

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