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Does study abroad make a difference? An investigation of linguistic and motivational outcomes

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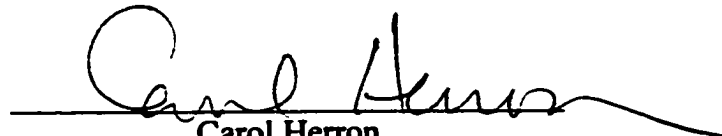
Heather Willis Allen

Does Study Abroad Make a Difference?
An Investigation of Linguistic and Motivational Outcomes

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An Abstract of
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Abstract

The purpose of this mixed-methodology study was to investigate linguistic and affective outcomes of summer study abroad (SA) participation by 25 college French students. This investigation sought to determine if significant changes occurred in two linguistic factors, oral and listening French skills, and two affective factors, integrative motivation and language anxiety, after SA. This study also investigated whether pre-SA affective differences existed for SA participants versus non-SA peers. Findings were interpreted in relation to Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (1985) which posits that success in foreign language learning depends not only on aptitude by also on learner perceptions of native speakers and learner willingness to identify with aspects of linguistic and non-linguistic behavior that characterize native speakers. Results demonstrated that significant improvements occurred in French linguistic skills and significant decreases took place in classroom and non-classroom language anxiety after SA. Integrative motivation levels of the SA group were unchanged after the experience; however, integrative motivation levels of students with more than two years of college French (n=12) were significantly improved. Pre-SA affective differences did not exist between SA participants and non-SA peers. Analysis of interviews and program evaluations suggested that participants faced two sources of language anxiety while abroad: linguistic insecurities and cultural differences. Many students reported disappointments in terms of cultural misunderstandings (especially within host families) and lack of contact with native speakers. Implications of this study include 1) the need for greater pre-SA emphasis on "non-academic" factors by administrators, 2) the necessity for SA programs to include contact with native speakers as part of in-class as well as informal learning, and 3) the

imperative for FL teachers to infuse the curriculum with cultural competence by integration of authentic materials, technological resources, and contact with native speakers.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Study abroad (SA) is an integral part of many students' academic experience. Freed defined SA as a period of residence in another country or province combined with classroom-based language and / or content area study (1995a). The SA experience has been called a "living laboratory" that forces students to be involved in the learning process on many levels—intellectual, psychological, and emotional—and offers them learning opportunities both formal and informal, interactive and passive (Laubscher, 1994; Yager, 1998). Research has generally suggested that SA experiences produce higher levels of world-mindedness, independence, self-esteem, tolerance for ambiguity, and empathy for others (Carlson & Widaman, 1988; Laubscher, 1994). In addition, students may gain important cross-cultural skills and knowledge as well as an appreciation for cultural differences critical in today's global community (Carlson, Burn, Useem, & Yachimowicz, 1990; Chieffo & Zipser, 2001; Laubscher, 1994). In a 2000 speech, President Clinton explained "the United States needs to ensure that its citizens develop a broad understanding of the world, proficiency in other languages, and knowledge of other cultures" (Chieffo & Zipser, p. 79, 2001).

Empirical findings have shown that SA participants demonstrate significant gains in language proficiency after their programs (Carlson et al., 1990; Freed, 1995a). Further, in comparison to students who do not choose to study abroad, participants are more proficient in at least some aspects of language proficiency (Freed, 1995b, Lafford, 1995; Matsumura, 2001; Yager, 1998).

Research has begun to address challenging aspects of the SA experience. Day (1987) reported that study abroad participants in shorter programs may have superficial

contact with the host culture, inadequate language practice, a group orientation that may isolate them from the host culture, and a vacation mentality that works against an academic atmosphere. Recent findings on SA support the notion that students arrive in the host country with cultural and linguistic assumptions that may lead to less interaction in the foreign language and negative experiences with native speakers (Wilkinson, 1998, 2000). Wilkinson concluded that exposure to cultural differences during SA does not necessarily translate into cross-cultural understanding (2000). This idea is in opposition to general beliefs on SA benefits and the notion that many "appropriate attitudes and motivations for greater second language gain may come about naturally in the study-abroad situation just from increased contact with the second-language culture" (Yager, 1998, p. 909).

This increased contact for SA participants with the target language and community has been called "a prolonged opportunity for an ideal mix of focus on form and focus on meaning ... a natural communicative context ... an ideal form of comprehensible input" (DeKeyser, 1991, pp. 116-117). Comprehensible input is part of the fundamental principle of Krashen's theoretical framework for second language acquisition, which states "people acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input 'in'. When the filter is 'down' and appropriate comprehensible input is presented (and comprehended), acquisition is inevitable" (p. 4, 1985).

The affective filter Krashen refers to is a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing comprehensible input (1983, 1985). It is said to be "up" when the acquirer is unmotivated, lacking in self-confidence, on the defensive, or anxious

(Krashen, 1985). Anxiety in foreign language learning is characterized by the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using the language (MacIntyre, 1999). Foreign language anxiety has been shown to negatively influence academic achievement, cognitive processing, and social interactions (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Price, 1991). The affective filter is said to be "down" when the acquirer is not concerned with the possibility of failure and when he or she considers himself or herself to be a potential member of the group speaking the target language (Krashen, 1985). Other researchers have elaborated upon this type of motivation as the idea of "club membership," or considering yourself to be a potential member of a group (Young, 1992). In the context of second or foreign language learning, this concept has been called integrative motivation (Clément, Smythe, & Gardner, 1978; Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Integrative motivation has been investigated in second and foreign language-learning situations and found to positively influence student participation and achievement (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gliksman, Gardner, & Smythe, 1982; Svanes, 1987).

The relevancy of comprehensible input as defined by Krashen (1985) to the SA context has been acknowledged in SA research (DeKeyser, 1991; Freed, 1995a; Yager, 1998); however, Freed (1995a) cited the need for future research on the role of comprehensible input during foreign language study in the target language community and the positive aspects of the SA experience that can be replicated in the classroom. In essence, research has not yet been able to explain how foreign language learners' attitudes and motivations influence their SA experience, both in the formal classroom

setting and during informal contacts with target language community members. Because language anxiety and integrative motivation are important factors in obtaining comprehensible input and acquiring a foreign language, this study focused on their roles in the SA context.

Statement of the Problem/Rationale

Although the general benefits of participation in a SA program are understood to include greater foreign language proficiency and increased cross-cultural awareness, the process of how students' attitudes and motivations influence their SA experience and, perhaps, evolve through it are not yet fully understood. There is a need to reconcile the general, positive results of SA experiences on students' foreign language proficiency with the specific and sometimes challenging aspects of SA participation to better understand and structure SA experiences. Although previous studies have led to positive evidence regarding gain in foreign language skills after participating in a SA program, there are still many unanswered questions to matters regarding the process of SA and attitudes and motivations brought to and changed from the experience of engaging with "the foreign" in both communication and culture (Malloy, 2001). This study investigated linguistic outcomes of participation in SA and the non-linguistic, affective aspects of the SA experience.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate linguistic and affective changes after participation in a six-week SA program by university students. This study focused on two linguistic components, oral and listening skills, and two non-linguistic / affective components, language anxiety and integrative motivation. Although both foreign

language anxiety and integrative motivation are understood to influence persistence and achievement in the classroom setting, previous research on attitudinal and motivational factors in the SA context has not yielded conclusive results. To extend this line of inquiry and offer a more complete explanation of how one's language anxiety and integrative motivation are influenced by SA, this study addressed the following questions:

1. Is there a change in classroom language anxiety after participating in a SA experience?

2. Is there a change in French use anxiety (i.e. anxiety outside the classroom) after participating in a SA experience?

3. Is there a change in state anxiety related to linguistic evaluation in the foreign language after participating in a SA experience?

4. Is there a change in integrative motivation after participating in a SA experience?

5. Is there a change in oral French skills after participating in a SA experience?

6. Is there a change in listening French skills after participating in a SA experience?

7. Prior to SA, is there a difference between integrative motivation and language anxiety levels between SA participants and students who do not choose to participate in SA?

8. What are the roles of language anxiety and integrative motivation during SA?

To answer these questions, I conducted an empirical investigation of linguistic and non-linguistic factors before and after participation in a six-week SA program. This

investigation involved a mixed-methodology design that incorporated both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Creswell, 1994).

Significance of the Study

This investigation adds an important component to existing literature on SA. In this study, the focus was on not only cognitive outcomes but also on affective factors and how SA participation influences both cognitive outcomes and attitudes about the target language community and language learning. In addition to adding a contribution of theoretical value to existing literature, this study represents a timely response to current national interest in the phenomenon of SA and its role for students. By analyzing and sharing the results of this empirical study, the researcher hopes to provide data that will facilitate a more clear understanding for administrators and researchers of how SA influences foreign language acquisition.

Limitations and Delimitations

In the case of SA, like most educational settings, random selection of participants by the researcher was not possible. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be readily generalized to the population of university-level SA participants, and the researcher was alert for the influence of extraneous variables that could have confounded study results or caused threats to validity (Dörnyei, 2001; Johnson & Christensen, 2000). Causal interpretations from this research design were limited (Shavelson, 1995). This study investigated only two linguistic aspects of study abroad, listening skills and oral skills; reading skills and writing skills were not addressed. Because SA is an opportunity for immersion by participants in the target culture and learning takes place in the community as well as in the classroom, listening and speaking are the skills most critical for

interacting and thriving during the SA experience (Davie, 1996). In addition to these two linguistic skills, this study investigated two non-linguistic factors, language anxiety and integrative motivation. These were the only affective factors incorporated in the study. I sought to clarify what is known about these two variables and how they relate to language acquisition in the SA context. This study combined both quantitative and qualitative approaches, because previous research has demonstrated that the complex phenomenon of language development in an immersion context may be impenetrable to a purely experimental approach (Liskin-Gasparro, 1998). Qualitative data served as a means of representing the perspective of the language learner and describing the linguistic, social, and cultural environment of the SA experience.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview of Affect and Language Learning

The foundation of the study of affective factors in language learning is a differential (as opposed to an experimental) approach to the subject of human functioning; this approach emphasizes differences between people and seeks to identify major ways in which people vary. Understanding individual differences in learning is important in answering why some people are more successful learners than others and in providing the most effective instruction possible for learners (Horwitz, 1995; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993).

There are numerous individual characteristics that influence foreign language learning, and researchers have categorized these variables in a number of ways. Gardner and MacIntyre (1992, 1993) reviewed the study of individual differences and second language learning and divided the characteristics into cognitive variables (which included intelligence, language aptitude, language-learning strategies, previous language training, and experience), affective variables (which included attitudes and motivation, language anxiety, self-confidence, personality attributes, and learning style), and a third miscellaneous category which included age and socio-cultural experiences. Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (2000) offered a similar scheme for organizing individual difference variables and used the categories of cognitive variables, affective variables, personality variables, and demographic variables. Oxford and Ehrman (1993) examined the contributions of various individual difference variables in second language learning and named aptitude, motivation, anxiety, self-esteem, tolerance of ambiguity, risk-taking, language learning styles, age, and gender to be among the most important.

In a study which sought to determine what factors best predicted foreign language achievement of 184 learners of French, German, Japanese, and Spanish, two out of 19 factors—academic achievement and foreign language anxiety—combined to explain approximately 22% of the variance in foreign language achievement (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). Gardner et al. (1997) conducted a similar study with 102 university-level French students and concluded that five individual difference factors correlated significantly with indices of second language achievement; these factors were self-confidence with French, language-learning strategies, motivation to learn French, orientation to learn French, and language aptitude. These findings support the notion that both cognitive and affective factors play important roles in language learning.

Why is the interplay of learner affect and the language-learning context such an important consideration for teachers and researchers? First, there is a major difference between most curriculum topics and language courses. Language courses require that the learner incorporate elements of another culture and its beliefs, customs, ideas, and customs (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Gardner, 1985). Gardner and Lambert (1972) described this as "much more than mere acquisition of a new set of verbal habits. The language student must be willing to adopt appropriate features of behavior which characterize members of another linguistic community" (p. 14). Second, affect is important in language learning because our self-identity is intermingled with language and communication in a language where one is unfamiliar with the syntactic, semantic, and phonological systems can be frustrating and even traumatic (Gardner, 1985; Horwitz, 1995; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Many students drop out of language programs as soon as requirements are met, because they find language learning to be an unpleasant

experience and they lack the motivation to persist in the effort (Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Young, 1999). Horwitz (2000) explained the importance of considering affective factors in language learning in the following way:

> Language teachers cannot change the incoming cognitive abilities of students, the student's native language, or the overall socio-cultural context of language learning in their communities. Thus, the affective domain stands out as an exceptional opportunity for the improvement of language instruction (p. 578).

By adding to existing foreign language acquisition research on how affective factors function in both the classroom and during second language contexts such as study abroad, educators may be able to enhance the language acquisition experience and encourage persistence in language-learning efforts. This review will examine two affective variables in depth—foreign language anxiety and integrative motivation. Both of these are emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence responses to the learning situation (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). However, foreign language anxiety negatively influences the language-learning experience while integrative motivation enhances it (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Young, 1991).

Foreign Language Anxiety

Foreign language anxiety is not a general construct but one that is specific to the language acquisition process and relates to second and foreign language achievement (Gardner, 1985; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre, 1999; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Young, 1992). Although the genesis of foreign language anxiety is the state anxiety resulting from difficulties in learning and communication, after repeated occurrences of

state anxiety, the student comes to associate anxiety arousal with the situation of language learning (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Situation-specific anxieties involve the disposition of an individual to become anxious consistently in a given situation; in addition to language anxiety, some other types of situation-specific anxieties that have been researched are test anxiety, stage fright, social anxiety, and math anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; Kowalski, 2000; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993). Foreign language anxiety is defined as the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a foreign language—usually a language with which the learner is not fully proficient (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre, 1999).

The question of why the context of language learning generates anxiety has been explained by a number of researchers. Gardner (1985) cited the intermingling of the learner's self-identity with language as a reason for language class being "an interesting if not traumatic experience" (p. 167). Arnold and Brown (1999) offered a similar explanation for anxiety production as "vulnerability involved in trying to express oneself before others in a shaky linguistic vehicle" (p. 9). Horwitz et al. (1986) spoke of the difference between the learner's "true" versus "limited" self: A learner's self-perception of genuineness in presenting himself or herself to others may be threatened by the limited expression that can be communicated in the second or foreign language (p. 31). Horwitz (in Young, 1999) made the following comparison between the difficulties experienced in second language learning and the discomfort experienced when wearing unflattering clothing: "We know that the particular clothing does not represent us well, but the people we meet do not. Clothing can be easily changed; our ability to communicate in a second language cannot" (p. xii).

Associated with foreign language anxiety are numerous physical, verbal, and psychological indicators on the part of the learner. Physical signs include squirming, fidgeting, sweating, playing with hair or clothing, crouching in the last row, lack of eye contact, nervously touching objects, clown-like behavior, headache, and tight muscles (Horwitz et al., 1986; Oxford, 1999; Young, 1992). Verbal manifestations of foreign language anxiety entail forgetting the answer, low level of verbal production, lack of volunteering, stammering or stuttering, monosyllabic responses, and nervous laughter (Oxford, 1999; Young, 1992). Psychological indicators include social avoidance, perfectionism, conversational withdrawal, hostility, image-protection behaviors, excessive competitiveness or self-effacement, forgetfulness, and difficulty concentrating (Horwitz et al., 1986; Oxford, 1999).

There are two major positions on how language anxiety develops and where its fits into the language acquisition process—as either a cause or a consequence of language learning problems. The first position on how language anxiety develops and fits into the language acquisition process is the deficit model. This position assumes that variation in learning and performance is a result of cognitive differences in skills and aptitude (Tobias, 1986). In second and foreign language learning, this position was represented as the Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis (LCDH) (Ganschow & Sparks, 1996; Sparks & Ganschow, 1993, 1995). According to the LCDH, anxiety does not play a causal role in problems with foreign language learning; foreign language learning difficulties are based in native language skills and facility with language codes (Sparks & Ganschow, 1995). The validity of the LCDH was disputed by MacIntyre (1995) and Horwitz (2000) who responded that the LCDH omits the role of affective and behavioral

variables and discounts substantial empirical evidence as well as the experiences of teachers and learners regarding foreign language anxiety. Horwitz (in Young, 1999) explained that although some anxiety reactions are, as the work of Sparks and Ganschow illustrated, "a reasonable response to learning difficulties rooted in native language skills ... true anxiety reactions are based on an unrealistic reaction to one's ability in the target language" (p. xi).

The second position on how language anxiety fits into the language learning process, the interference model, posits that anxiety interferes with learning and can significantly affect performance (Tobias, 1986). The interference model is consistent with Spielberger's (1966) conception of cognitive appraisal of a threat followed by a state anxiety reaction if the appraisal is one of danger followed by defensiveness or avoidance behavior. Arnold and Brown (1999) summarized this position with the following explanation:

> Anxiety makes us nervous and afraid and thus contributes to poor
>
> performance; this in turn creates more anxiety and even worse
>
> performance. The feelings of fear and nervousness are intimately
>
> connected to the cognitive side of anxiety, which is worry. Worry wastes
>
> energy that should be used for memory and processing on a type of
>
> thinking which in no way facilitates the task at hand (p. 9).

A cyclical relationship is seen to function between aptitude, cognition, anxiety, and language learning behavior whereby aptitude can influence anxiety, anxiety can influence performance, and performance can influence anxiety (MacIntyre, 1995; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). According to Tobias (1986) the interference can affect the

learner at three stages: input, processing, and output; at input, some information may not be absorbed or initially processed; during processing, the rehearsal of new information may be altered; and at the output stage, anxiety may interfere with retrieving previously learned information causing the learner to "freeze" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

The interference model is reflected in Krashen's affective filter hypothesis which posits that language acquisition is either enhanced or blocked by one's receptiveness to comprehensible input, and that receptiveness is conditioned on anxiety level, motivation, and self-confidence (Krashen 1983, 1985). Schumann (1994) explained that the affective filter operates "when motivation is lacking, anxiety is high, and self-esteem is low, the filter is up and input will not become intake (i.e. input will not be processed so as to produce learning)" (pp. 232-233). Stevick (1999) discussed the concept of "clutter," or using up a learner's processing capacity and keeping the data we are interested in from being efficiently processed; this is another interference model concept similar to the affective filter.

The sources of foreign language anxiety are varied. Most universal seems to be the fear of speaking in the target language in front of peers (MacIntyre, 1999; Price, 1991; Young, 1992). Other classroom-related sources are pronunciation errors, limited means of expression, classroom procedures, instructor-learner interactions, and language testing (Phillips, 1992; Price, 1991; Young, 1991). Learner and instructors beliefs about language teaching and language learning are also sources of language anxiety (Young, 1991). Other sources, most relevant in second-language learning contexts, are language shock and culture shock—both resulting from the disorientation of entering a new culture (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993).

The current conceptual model of foreign language anxiety as a situation-specific anxiety unique to language learning is anchored in the major classroom sources of language anxiety cited above. Horwitz et al. (1986) were the first to elaborate upon this model; they posited that foreign language anxiety is related to communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. These three factors are made manifest when learners experience frustrated or aborted communication because of an immature command of the target language, when they worry over written or oral tests, and when academic or personal evaluations are made based on their performance and competence in the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991). Although communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation are the basis of Horwitz et al.'s conception of foreign language anxiety, it is important to remember that these factors were described as "useful conceptual building blocks for a description of foreign language anxiety" and Horwitz et al. asserted that "foreign language anxiety is not simply the combination of these fears transferred to foreign language learning ... [but] a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 31, 1986).

Measurement of Foreign Language Anxiety

The measurement of foreign language anxiety in early research was marked by inappropriate use of instruments not designed for the language-learning context. Young (p. 426, 1991) characterized early research as "scattered and inconclusive" and Phillips labeled this research as "perplexing, presenting some conflicting evidence and illustrating that anxiety is a complex, multi-faceted construct" (p. 14, 1992). MacIntyre and Gardner

(1991) called the effects of language anxiety "notoriously difficult to demonstrate" (p. 86).

The first measure of anxiety concerned specifically with second language learning, the French Class Anxiety Scale, appeared in 1975 in a study by Gardner and Smythe (as cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Measurement of anxiety in the 1980s was marked by the development of both subscales and a major scale directly concerned with foreign language anxiety (Gardner, 1985; Horwitz et al., 1986). These situation-specific instruments began to meet the assumption of specificity required to consistently measure foreign language anxiety that was not always met in earlier investigations (MacIntyre, 1995). In the Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) anxiety was measured with two subscales of ten items each, the French Class Anxiety Scale and the Classroom Anxiety Scale (Gardner & Smythe, 1981). The Classrom Anxiety Scale was later replaced by the French Use Anxiety Scale (Gardner, Smythe, & Clément, 1979). However, only 20 of more than 130 items on the AMTB related to language anxiety; it was an instrument designed to investigate the entire domain of attitudes and motivation in language learning.

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz et al., 1986) was developed to provide investigators with a standard instrument to measure an individual's response to the specific context of the foreign language classroom. It contains 33 items scored on a Likert scale that address communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation in the foreign language classroom context (Horwitz, 1991; Horwitz et al., 1986). This scale has been shown to be reliable and valid

in numerous assessments of its properties (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1991; Horwitz et al., 1986).

Research Results on Foreign Language Anxiety

Numerous studies that have measured foreign language anxiety have revealed that it is one of the best predictors of foreign language achievement and that it plays a very important role in the process of language learning (Gardner, 1985; Horwitz, 1991). In fact, about one third of university-level foreign language learners in the United States have been found consistently to have moderate to severe levels of foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, 2000). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) demonstrated the severity of this form of anxiety in a study wherein college students ranked foreign language classes as more anxiety provoking than either math or English class anxieties (which received quite similar rankings as anxiety provoking situations). In an early study using the FLCAS, 38% of subjects endorsed the item "I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes" (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Horwitz (1991) and Aida (1994) demonstrated that higher levels of anxiety as measured by the FLCAS are associated with lower final course grades in the foreign language. Researchers have also shown that learners demonstrating higher levels of anxiety study *more* than their low-anxiety counterparts, but their level of achievement often does not often reflect that effort (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991).

A moderate negative relationship has been found between foreign language anxiety and various measures of language achievement (Aida, 1994; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, 1994; Mettler, 1987; Phillips, 1992; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Young, 1986, 1991). In addition, research has

demonstrated that foreign language anxiety is negatively related with self-esteem (Price, 1991), identification with the target culture (Young, 1992), participation in certain classroom activities (Koch & Terrell, 1991) and instructor-learner interactions (Horwitz et al., 1986; Koch & Terrell, 1991; Price, 1991).

Language anxiety has been shown to correlate with second language measures of performance but not with native language measures of performance (Gardner, 1985; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1994). This finding lends support to the argument of Horwitz et al. (1986) that foreign language anxiety, although incorporating three anxieties related to speaking, negative evaluation, and test-taking, is unique to the language learning context and not merely the transfer of other general anxieties.

The most anxiety-provoking foreign language activity appears to be speaking in the target language (MacIntyre, 1999; Price, 1991). In Horwitz et al.'s survey of introductory-level Spanish students, 49% agreed with the statement "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class" (1986). Phillips (1992) determined that language anxiety correlated significantly with oral examination grades. Although she also concluded that ability was a better predictor of oral achievement, interviews with high-anxiety and low-anxiety learners also pointed to a significant psychological role played by anxiety (Phillips, 1992). In a qualitative investigation of sources of classroom language anxiety, Price found that learners most frequently cited a fear of speaking as the major source of their language-learning problems (1991). Her interviews revealed that learners feel great concern for speaking in front of peers in the target language, fear of

being laughed at or making a fool of themselves, worry over pronunciation errors, and a

yearning to develop native-like accent (Price, 1991).

Foreign language anxiety has also been investigated in relation to other individual

difference variables that are relevant to foreign and second language acquisition. Lalonde

and Gardner (1984) studied the possibility that personality traits contribute to language

aptitude, achievement, or self-ratings of proficiency but found few correlations. Trait

anxiety did not correlate with proficiency measures or indices of integrativeness,

motivation, or attitude toward the learning situation. In a final causal model based on the

study, Lalonde and Gardner posited that motivation and situational anxiety influence self-

perceptions of proficiency and that both anxiety and self-perceptions of proficiency

influence performance (1984). They concluded "the more motivated individual will feel

less anxious about the learning situation and therefore have more self-confidence in

his/her capabilities" (p. 235, 1984). Kitano (2001) investigated two sources of language

anxiety in oral Japanese practice for 212 students, fear of negative evaluation and self-

perceived speaking ability, and concluded that fear of negative evaluation correlated

positively with anxiety levels and self-perceived speaking ability correlated negatively

with anxiety levels.

Gardner et al. found that anxiety correlated negatively with motivation,

integrativeness, and attitudes toward the learning situation (1992). They posited that there

is "a tendency for subjects who are anxious about French to be less motivated to learn it

than those who are not anxious" (p. 211, 1992). It is interesting to compare the

conclusions reached in this study (Gardner et al., 1992) and the study by Lalonde and

Gardner (1984) previously discussed. The relationship between anxiety and motivation appears to be inverted; perhaps the path is a bi-directional one.

Clément and his associates have conducted numerous studies that have shown that highly anxious students tend to be less self-confident (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1977, 1980; Clément & Kruidenier, 1985). Horwitz et al.'s (1986) study of introductory-level Spanish students revealed that 47% of the participants rejected the statement "I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class." Clément et al. (1977) concluded that francophone middle-schoolers who learned English in school had more anxiety than those who learned it at home, and, in turn, those who learned English at home had more anxiety than those who learned it with friends.

In a study addressing the role of foreign language anxiety in the presence of other variables, Onwuegbuzie et al. sought to determine through regression analysis what cognitive, affective, and demographic variables contributed to the prediction of foreign language anxiety (1999). Seven variables were found to be significant predictors; these variables included the learner's age, academic achievement, prior history of visiting foreign countries, high school experience with foreign languages, expected course grade for current foreign language course, perceived scholastic competence, and perceived self-worth (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999).

A correlational study to determine what affective and cognitive variables predict foreign language achievement of university-level French students was undertaken by Gardner et al. (1997). From 34 variables, the following five factors emerged: self-confidence with French, language-learning strategies, motivation to learn French, language aptitude, and orientation to learn French (Gardner et al., 1997). In addition,

measures of language anxiety, self-confidence, and "can-do" ratings of proficiency correlated highly with objective measures of French achievement but not as well with course grades in French (Gardner et al., 1997).

The ability of cognitive, affective, personality, and demographic variables in predicting second language acquisition was addressed by Onwuegbuzie et al. through correlational and regression analysis of 18 variables (2000). The best predictor of achievement was academic achievement as measured by GPA average (explaining 11.5% of the variance) followed by foreign-language anxiety (explaining 10.5 percent of the variance). Studies such as this one illustrate Gardner's point that "[u]ndoubtedly many factors operate in the development of L2 proficiency" (p. 83, 1985).

<div align="center">Integrative Motivation</div>

Research on attitudes and motivations and their relation to foreign language learning has been dominated by a social psychological viewpoint (Dörnyei, 2001; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993). The founders of this line of inquiry, Gardner and Lambert, hypothesized that:

> success in mastering a foreign language would depend not only on intellectual capacity and language aptitude but also on the learner's perceptions of the other ethnolinguistic group involved, his attitudes toward representatives of that group, and his willingness to identify enough to adopt distinctive aspects of behavior, linguistic and nonlinguistic, that characterize that other group. The learner's motivation for language study, it follows, would be determined by his attitudes and

readiness to identify and by his orientation to the whole process of learning a language (p. 132, 1972).

Gardner and Lambert were the first to depart from what Horwitz called "a purely cognitive view of foreign language aptitude" and argue through theoretical models and empirical evidence that the feelings of the language learner toward the target language and culture and the learner's reasons for learning the language influence achievement levels in the foreign language (p. 574, 1995). Dörnyei called this discovery "the most important milestone in the history of second language motivation research" (p. 519, 1994b).

This view of language and society as interdependent and related to behaviors, attitudes, and motivations is consistent with a social-psychological perspective (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985). The social component is particularly important in the language-learning context because the process of language acquisition entails more than mastery of a subject—it also involves social and culture elements of another society (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985, 2001). A prime mediator in this process of language learning is motivation (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Gardner (1985) defined *motivation* as "the combination of effort [motivational intensity] plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (p. 9). Thus, motivation includes a behavioral component (motivational intensity), a cognitive component (desire) and an affective component (attitudes toward learning the language) (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a). It is the combination of these three components that must coexist to reflect true motivation (Tremblay & Gardner,

1995). Dörnyei described Gardner's definition of motivation as "a kind of central mental 'engine' or 'energy centre'" (p. 49, 2001).

Gardner explained that attitudes and motivation are important because they determine the extent to which an individual actively involves himself or herself in language learning (1985). Motivation is a chief component of his *Socio-Educational Model* of how various individual difference factors influence second language learning (Gardner, 1985). The Socio-Educational Model, which first appeared in the late 1970s, has evolved and appeared with revisions throughout the last 20 years (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992, 1993; Gardner et al., 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

The first versions of the Socio-Educational Model hypothesized that motivation is influenced by aptitude as well as two types of affective factors: integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation (Gardner, 1985). These two classes of variables were later linked to form one construct, Attitudes toward the Learning Situation (Gardner et al., 1997). Further, Gardner proposed that a distinction must be made between formal and informal learning contexts; he hypothesized that aptitude has a direct influence in formal situations while motivation plays a role in both formal and informal contexts (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Skehan, 1991). Revised versions of the Socio-Educational Model have included a role for antecedent factors to motivation as well the inclusion of variables such as goal salience, valence, self-efficacy, and attributions (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992, 1993; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Common to all versions of the model is the general framework which hypothesizes that the socio-cultural milieu and cultural beliefs influence individual cognitive and affective differences which, in turn,

influence language attainment in formal and informal contexts which, in turn, produce linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes (such as changes in skills, attitudes, or motivations) (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992).

An important concept upon which Gardner's research has focused is *integrative motivation* (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a). The notion of integrative motivation is based upon the theoretical premise that foreign and second language acquisition is much more than the acquisition of a new set of verbal habits; in fact, success in language learning also involves the willingness to adopt appropriate features of behavior which characterizes members of another linguistic community (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Gardner and Lambert explained that the idea of integrative motivation grew out of Mowrer's concept of "identification"; identification involves a child's first-language acquisition and the role played by parents in the process of rewarding and reinforcing through communication (1950, as cited in Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Integrative motivation involves a complex interplay of self-concept, attitudes, and motivation rather than a simply construct (Gardner, 1985, 2001). Integrative motivation was defined by Gardner (1985) as involving three components: an integrative orientation to language learning (reasons that suggest that the individual's interest in the language reflects a goal to learn about or interact with the target language community), motivation to learn the language (attitudes, desire, and motivational intensity), and a number of attitudes related to the target language community, other language communities, and the specific language learning context.

Krashen (1983) hypothesized that learners with higher levels of integrative motivation reach higher levels of second language achievement than learners not as

integratively motivated. He also explained in Young (1992) that integrative motivation is related to the concept of "club membership" wherein an individual who considers himself or herself to be a potential member of a group subconsciously acquires the aspects of the group's behavior that mark individuals as member. Integrative motivation is also relevant to the concept of ethnolingual relativity which is based upon a perspective that is not limited by one's own cultural and linguistic experiences but is open to the cultural and linguistic patterns of other people (Citron, 1995).

Integrative motivation differs from integrative orientation (sometimes called integrativeness) because the orientation reflects a goal that may lack motive power (Gardner, 1985). Dörnyei (2001) described Gardner's concept of orientations as similar to that of goals in self-determination theory; both orientation and goals are hypothesized to be motivational antecedents. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) defined integrative orientation as "an open and positive regard for other groups and for groups that speak the language" (p. 506). Skehan (1991) described an integrative orientation as

> typical of someone who identifies with and values the target language and community ... Such an individual is thought to have a more internal, more enduring motivation for language study and is therefore more likely to make the cumulative effort that is necessary to achieve language-learning success (p. 282).

Measurement of Integrative Motivation

Because the concept of integrative motivation is unique and specific to the language-learning context, its measurement has been limited to one major instrument that contains integrative motivation as a primary component, The Attitude/Motivation Test

Battery (AMTB). Apart from the AMTB, integrative motivation has been measured in other scales as part of larger frameworks designed to investigate various orientations or motivations for language study.

Ely (1986) asked university students taking Spanish why they were studying the language and used seventeen factors based on the students' responses in designing a "type of motivation" scale. This was administered, along with a "strength of motivation" scale, and data analysis revealed two motivational clusters that bore a resemblance to integrative and instrumental orientations (Ely, 1986). In 1987 Svanes designed a 20-statement questionnaire for university students studying Norwegian to determine what the students' reasons were for learning Norwegian and studying in Norway. The questionnaire items included reasons related to integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, and "neither"; a number of items were taken from Gardner & Lambert (1972). A new instrument for assessing language learners' motivational orientations from a self-determination perspective was presented by Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000). Their questionnaire, the Language Learning Orientations Scale, contained three sections: one about different orientations to language study; one dealing with intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation; and the last on antecedents and consequences of self-determination. A number of new scales to measure language-learning motivation have been introduced by Dörnyei (2001) and his associates; these scales have included integrative motivation items and have incorporated some AMTB items from Gardner (1985). Although many of these scales incorporating integrative motivation as part of a larger framework have used AMTB items and items from Gardner and Lambert (1972), it is important to point out that without measuring

integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation, Gardner's definition of integrative motivation as the composite of these three components is not measured.

The genesis of the measurement of integrative motivation occurred in the early 1970s when Gardner and Lambert (1972) published a collection of their research on motivational and attitudinal aspects of second and foreign language learning in Canada, the United States, and the Philippines. The battery of questionnaires used in these studies contained a number of motivational and attitudinal measures related to integrative motivation. However, the concept of integrative motivation was not the focus of these studies and its operationalization was not fully developed. A more-developed conception of integrative motivation was presented in the AMTB developed in the late 1970s and published by Gardner in 1985. This battery of questionnaires was designed to measure "the entire attitudinal domain ... relevant to second language acquisition" with over 130 Likert, multiple-choice, and semantic-differential format items (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Smythe, 1981, p. 512). The ATMB has been shown to have very good psychometric properties including construct and predictive validity and, to date, it is the only published, standardized test of second-language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985; Lalonde & Gardner, 1985; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

Five groups of variables are assessed with the AMTB: integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, language anxiety, and other attributes (Gardner et al., 1997). Integrative motivation is operationalized as the composite of (a) integrativeness, (b) attitudes toward the learning situation, and (c) motivation. These three sub-components of integrative motivation are indexed as the sum of scores of (a)

Attitude toward French Canadians, Attitude toward European French People, Interest in Foreign Languages, Integrative Orientation; (b) Evaluation of the French Course, Evaluation of the French Teacher; and (c) Motivational Intensity, Desire to Learn French, and Attitude toward Learning French (Lalonde & Gardner, 1985). These scales include Likert-type items, multiple-choice items, and semantic-differential items (Gardner, 1985).

An introduction to these scales leads to the question of how one might effectively use the AMTB outside francophone Canada. For researchers of foreign language acquisition in the United States, this is an important issue to recognize and resolve. AMTB items regarding attitudes toward French Canadians are not, in general, appropriate for use with American foreign language learners; this might not be the case in limited cases for those learners living in states in close geographic proximity to francophone Canada. In short, researchers must use care when using it in contexts for which it was not originally designed. Gardner and Smythe (1981) cautioned "It is not ... a simple matter to translate the items if they are to be used with another language group, or simply to change the wording of some items to make them appropriate to another setting" (p. 512). In reference to the present study, Gardner recommended, "it would probably be necessary to adapt the scales ... and ... try to have 10 items per scale" (personal communication, March 2, 2001).

Current and future research seeking to measure integrative motivation through new scales should be certain to define what integrative motivation is and how it is being operationalized. Gardner and Tremblay (1994a) suggested a possible direction for future measurement in motivation would be scales that address state motivation. Existing scales such as the AMTB, the scale developed by Ely (1986), and scales used by Dörnyei

(2001) address the relatively stable characteristics of an individual's motivation rather than the actual manifestation of motivation in a specific learning situation (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a). Another possibility for the measurement of integrative motivation is the creation of a "mini-AMTB" currently under consideration by Gardner and his associates (Gardner, 2001). Such an instrument would take less time to administer and would be useful in contexts such as Computer Assisted Language Learning.

Research Results on Integrative Motivation

Research has demonstrated that motivational factors play an important role in second and foreign language acquisition (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Yager, 1998). Motivation is relevant to the language-learning process because it determines the extent to which students involve themselves in the process and, in a longitudinal sense, it is related to persistence in language study (Clément et al., 1978; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Smythe, 1981). In addition, motivation has been shown to be important not only in formal contexts (such as classroom language study) but also for informal contexts where voluntary efforts to practice the target language are related to one's motivation to enter the situation (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Lalonde and Gardner found that several personality traits correlated with motivation; individuals who are highly motivated to learn a language also tend to be high on achievement, breadth of interest, organization, responsibility, self-esteem, and social desirability (1984).

Research regarding integrative motivation has demonstrated that it is a predictor of persistence in language study, student participation in the classroom, and language proficiency (Clément et al., 1977; Clément et al., 1978; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991;

Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gliksman et al., 1982; Svanes, 1987). Most studies of integrative motivation have been conducted in second language contexts and have addressed the role of integrative motivation in the presence of many other affective variables such as attitudes, anxiety, ethnocentrism, and personality factors. Some researchers have disagreed with the primacy of integrative motivation in language learning (Horwitz, 1995; Noels et al., 2000; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993) or asserted that its role may be more important in second language learning contexts than in foreign language learning contexts (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). This point of view is supported by some research that has concluded that integrative motivation was not a causal factor or a consistent predictor in language acquisition (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Oller, Hudson, & Liu, 1977; Strong, 1984; Svanes, 1987).

A limited number of studies have addressed how integrative motivation affects an outcome such as language acquisition, specific language-learning skills, or classroom participation. Some of these were experimental studies carried out in the classroom or in a laboratory setting (Bedford, 1981; Gardner et al., 1992). The laboratory analog procedure was described by Gardner et al. (1992) as a highly controlled environment where participants are given several trials to perform a task on a personal computer; participant behavior is measured and recorded in addition to scores on the task-related instrument. In addition, Ely (1986) conducted a survey study wherein students reported reasons for language study; these reasons were used in forming a questionnaire that addressed various motivations for study. Findings indicated the existence of two motivational clusters that bore a resemblance to integrative and instrumental orientations.

This was an important conclusion because the motivational clusters were developed from student responses rather than constructed on prior theory (Ely, 1986).

The results of studies that have focused on integrative motivation in relation to a specific outcome have provided some evidence that it is a facilitator of language acquisition (Gardner et al., 1992; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gliksman et al., 1982). In a study of 149 high school students learning French in Ontario, Gliksman et al. found that students who are integratively motivated tend to volunteer more answers in the classroom, are more correct in their responses, and are more satisfied and rewarded for their participation (1982). Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) investigated the effects of integrative and instrumental motivations on the French vocabulary learning of 92 college students in Canada and determined that both types of motivations facilitated learning. The authors suggested that integrative motivation has a long-term influence on language learning and use while instrumental motivation tends to relate only to the attainment of specific goals (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991). In addition, results of the study showed that integratively motivated participants learned more than those not integratively motivated. This study was conducted in a laboratory setting and none of the participants were enrolled in French classes although they had all received prior formal instruction in French (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991).

A follow-up study was conducted by Gardner et al. (1992) that addressed the roles of both language anxiety and integrative motivation for vocabulary acquisition in a laboratory setting. Although the authors determined that the anxiety manipulation was not successful, they concluded that subjects higher in integrative motivation reached higher levels of vocabulary acquisition than those with lower integrative motivation (Gardner et

al., 1992). One component of the study discussed yet unresolved was the relationship between language anxiety and integrative motivation. Gardner et al. hypothesized that

anxiety and motivation are two separate dimensions with overlapping behavioral consequences ... This would imply that integratively motivated students are less anxious in second language contexts but that integrative motivation and anxiety would influence behavior in their own right. The causal sequence cannot be determined from the current data (p. 212, 1992).

In this study as well as in Bedford (1981) an experimental study was not able to assess the effects of a variable under investigation. Whereas Gardner et al. (1992) were not able to induce the anxiety condition by videotaping participants, Bedford (1981) determined that the integrative motivation condition was not met because "the materials used for the experimental group were not shown to promote integrative motivation as compared to the control materials, therefore the hypothesis was not truly tested at all" (p. 587). Perhaps the complications associated with investigating attitudes and motivations by experimental study have precluded the flourishing of this type of investigation.

A second type of studies addressing the role of integrative motivation in second or foreign language acquisition has incorporated it as a variable in the presence of other affective variables. These studies have been overwhelmingly factor analytical and correlational studies that often included a secondary component of creating structural models and analyzing the relationships among variables and their roles in the language learning process. Seminal studies of this type were reported in Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Gardner (1985). Gardner and Lambert conducted investigations of attitudes,

motivation, intelligence, and aptitude in language learning for three American settings (Louisiana, Maine, and Connecticut) and found that different a different attitudinal basis was evidenced in the three settings (1972). The integrative motive played the biggest role in the Maine setting (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Gardner (1985) reviewed various factor analytic and multivariate studies of the integrative motive and concluded "this motivation is associated with an interest in continued language study as well as proficiency in the language" (p. 83). He also asserted that "[n]ot all studies demonstrate these relations ... but the bulk of evidence presented here suggests that there are very real relationships" (Gardner, 1985, p. 83).

Clément et al. (1977) conducted a study to determine what motivational factors predict second language proficiency in French high school students learning; they concluded that one's motivation to learn a second language is dependent on favorable attitudes toward the second language community (an integrative motive). Further, a relationship was found between integrative motivation and persistence in language study although self-confidence with English was more closely related than integrative motivation to second language proficiency (Clément et al., 1977). A similar investigation was carried out by Clément et al. (1978) to find out which factors best predicted persistence in the language learning of 4,741 middle school and high school students of French in Canada. The authors concluded that one's motivation to learn French was a better predictor of persistence in language study than either aptitude or prior achievement (Clément et al., 1978). Gardner and Smythe (1981) also concluded that integrative motivation is closely associated with persistence in language study while aptitude is associated more strongly with objective measures of achievement. In 1980, Clément et al.

found a relationship between integrative motivation and fear of assimilation: for those individuals who felt learning a second language involved the loss of the native language and culture, integrative motivation was not related to achievement. The authors also found that second language achievement was more strongly related to self-confidence with English than to integrative motivation (Clément et al., 1980).

In a study of how numerous motivational factors such as attitudes, orientations, anxiety, performance expectance, and language dominance influence achievement, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) concluded that a number of variables mediate the relationship between language attitudes and motivational behavior. Integrative motivation was operationalized as parts of both the attitudes and motivational behavior clusters; findings indicated that goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy mediate the attitude-motivational behavior relationship and achievement is influenced by language dominance and motivational behavior (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

MacIntyre and Charos (1996) investigated the role of personality, attitudes, and affect in predicting second language communication and discussed two findings of interest concerning the role of integrative motivation and its relation to other variables. First, path analysis revealed that the degree of integrativeness determined one's attitudes toward the learning situation. Second, a more interestingly, a significant path was obtained leading from emotional stability to integrativeness. MacIntyre and Charos (1996) explained that "this factor reflects a type of trait anxiety, and people who feel less anxious appear to be more disposed to interacting with members of the second language community" (p. 19). An earlier study on how personality influences second language acquisition found that nine personality variables were related to integrativeness: Those

with high levels of integrativeness also tended to score highly on achievement, breadth of interest, complexity, organization, responsibility, self-esteem, and social desirability (Lalonde & Gardner, 1984).

In 1997 Gardner et al. examined the role of numerous individual difference variables, both cognitive and affective, in the second language acquisition of French by anglophone Canadian students and evaluated the variables' respective contributions to a causal model. The structural model that resulted was the basis of their conclusion that "Language Attitudes is seen to cause Motivation, Motivation causes both Self-Confidence and Language Learning Strategies, and Motivation, Language Aptitude, and Language Learning Strategies cause Language Achievement" (Gardner et al., 1997, p. 353). Integrative motivation was operationalized by various measures that contributed to two of the five factors yielded during analysis. In addition, findings indicated that students with high levels of both integrative and instrumental orientations held favorable attitudes toward French Canadians (Gardner et al., 1997).

Future research should focus on how integrative motivation develops, how it relates to other motivational constructs such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, what contexts and activities can best encourage it, and if it is a stable motivation or subject to modification in learners (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 2001; Noels et al., 2000; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). In addition, although much of past research regarding integrative motivation has used statistical analysis of large data sets, future researchers might make use of mixed research designs that will incorporate not only quantitative measurement of variables but also the ideas and opinions of language learners on their experiences, attitudes, and motivations in formal and informal language contexts.

The Current State of Motivational Research in Language Learning

Although the social-psychological viewpoint has been the dominant paradigm in the study of attitudes, motivation, and language learning, some research has emerged that is closer to that of mainstream education and psychology. Studies that have explored models of motivation developed in education and psychology have brought about a motivational renaissance in foreign language motivation research during the past five to seven years (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994b). This movement began in the early 1990s as some researchers voiced their feelings on the gap between general motivational theories and second language motivational theories and called for the incorporation of cognitive constructs common in mainstream motivational psychology (Dörnyei, 2001, Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Skehan, 1991). The result of this desire to expand the framework of motivational research in second and foreign language learning led to a flourish of empirical studies and theorizing on the subject (Dörnyei, 2001).

These new directions came partially in response to the dominance of Gardner's work on motivation and attitudes that reflected a social-psychological viewpoint. Dörnyei characterized Gardner's framework as "self-contained and consistent to such an extent that there are no real gaps or openings in it which have offered obvious directions for improvements or further developments (p. 516, 1994b). In addition, some researchers have disagreed with the primacy of integrative motivation in language learning (Horwitz, 1995; Noels et al., 2000; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993) or asserted that its role may be more important in second language learning contexts (as opposed to foreign language-learning contexts). Second language learning contexts are characterized by living in the target culture and communicating in the target language as the main vehicle of communication

for most people; this can take place in either a bicultural milieu or a sojourn by learners

to a country or community speaking the target language (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Bedford (1981) explained that those who learn a language outside the target culture do

not experience the "cultural referents" of learning from and with native speakers.

Horwitz (1995) addressed the role of motivation for American students learning a second

language and claimed that

> American language students would seem to have little instrumental,
>
> integrative or assimilative imperative for language learning. For most
>
> English-speaking Americans, knowing a second language is not an
>
> essential life skill, and few career paths require foreign language
>
> proficiency ... Actually assimilating into another language group is
>
> probably beyond imagination for most American foreign language
>
> students (p. 575).

This point of view regarding the low value placed on knowing a second language

points to an important difference between the situation of language learning in the United

States and the priority accorded to it in Canada. Although the social dimension of

language learning is evident in Canada and the majority of the nations of the world which

are multicultural and multilingual, few foreign language students in the United States

have ever even encountered someone who is bilingual (Dörnyei, 1994a; Horwitz, 1995).

The current state of research in language learning motivation is characterized by diverse

and competing theories that seem to indicate that this field is "definitely coming of age"

(Arnold & Brown, 1999, p. 13). Questions that remain to be addressed by this broadening

field include: (a) the role of motivation in second language versus foreign language

contexts, (b) the relevance of self-efficacy, self-determination, and attribution theories, (c) the relation of integrative motivation to intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, (d) the existence of orientations not yet developed in current literature, and (e) the role for research beyond questionnaires using more open-ended and ethnographic techniques (Dörnyei, 1994a, 2001; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Skehan, 1991).

Affective and Linguistic Outcomes of Study Abroad

The study abroad (SA) experience is one that attracts many foreign language students. Ossipov (2000) found that 79% of 279 university French students planned to go to France or a French-speaking area. In fact, participation in study abroad programs in general has soared in the 1990s from about 70,000 in 1990 to 130,000 at the end of the decade (Altschuler, 2001; Wheeler, 2000). Most research regarding the experience of SA has focused more on outcomes than the actual experience of SA and the perspective of participants; existing research on outcomes has addressed linguistic gain more often than non-linguistic factors. However, some studies after the mid 1970s have incorporated affective variables into quantitative investigations of language immersion programs and SA experiences; these studies give us preliminary and sometimes conflicting evidence regarding the roles of such affective factors as anxiety and integrative motivation in second language contexts such as SA.

The importance of contexts such as SA as ideal settings for language acquisition is supported by theory (DeKeyser, 1991; Krashen, 1983, 1985; Yager, 1998). The context of SA is consistent with Krashen's statements that "real world input" is more valuable than language class input for advanced learners, and that natural, communicative situations best facilitate language acquisition (1983, 1985). In addition, he called input, or

messages given to learners in the target language, "the essential environmental ingredient" for language acquisition (1985, p. 2). Krashen also hypothesized that input was not sufficient for language acquisition but need be accompanied by a low affective filter on the part of the learner. The affective filter is Krashen's metaphor for anxiety; he posited that the affective filter would be "down" when the language learner is not preoccupied with failure, when he or she is learning in a low-anxiety situation, when he or she possesses self-confidence, and when he or she considers himself to be a member of the target language community (1983, 1985). He explained the relationship between motivation and acquisition in Young (1992): "When you consider yourself to be a potential member of a group, you subconsciously acquire all the aspects of the group's behavior that mark you as a member" (p. 167). Thus, Krashen not only stated a role for affective prerequisites in language acquisition, he also assigned major roles to language anxiety and integrative motivation. Morgan (1993) offered an extension of Krashen's metaphor of the affective filter to include attitudes: "Attitudes may equally ... function as high affective filters in shutting out information. The key factor here is the nature of the attitudes in the first place" (pp. 69-70). This idea of an "attitude filter" may be relevant to SA research and how learners adapt (or fail to adapt) to the target language culture and community.

Clément et al. (1978) elaborated a related hypothesis concerning the role of motivation in a study of motivational considerations and persistence in second-language learning. Although this study did not focus on immersion or SA programs, the authors concluded that

[T]he royal path to altering the individual's motivation is through attitude change. More specifically, increases in attitude toward the second language community and second-language course should have a definite impact on the individual's motivation and persistence through the elaboration of inter-ethnic contact programs, such as bi-cultural excursions and exchanges ... these special 'incentive' programs could have an impact, not only on the student's attitude toward the language community, but also on his motivation to learn the second language (p. 694).

Theoretical hypotheses also support the role of affective variables in contexts such as SA which are rich in opportunities for linguistic and cultural immersion (Clément, 1980; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Krashen, 1983, 1985). Yager (1998) explained "Students' attitudes toward the target language and culture, as well as their language learning expectations, may affect their language contact and how they benefit linguistically from that contact" (p. 898). Attitudes and expectations may be even more important during experiences such as SA than during classroom study, because immersion in the target cultural involves intellectual, psychological, and emotional involvement on the part of learner (Laubscher, 1994). Liskin-Gasparro (1998) called SA "the litmus test of their communicative proficiency, as well as the optimal setting in which to reach a level of skill that they and others consider 'fluent'" (p. 159).

Empirical investigations of study in the target language community have focused on two major contexts—immersion programs and SA experiences. Shapson et al. (1981) defined *immersion programs* as "a concentrated period of formal study of the second language along with opportunities for extensive use of this language beyond the

classroom" (p. 66, 1981). Immersion has typically been researched in programs that offer a linguistic and cultural immersion within one's home country yet many times in a community where the learners' second language is dominant. A great number of the studies investigating the effects of immersion programs have taken place in Canada.

In a study of an intensive summer program in French, Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet (1977) concluded that the motivation to learn French, French proficiency, and feelings of ease with the language were improved for secondary students in Ontario. Although neither the participants' attitudes toward French-Canadians nor their integrative orientation to learn French improved, they showed significant decreases in French classroom anxiety and significant improvements in motivation to learn French and reported opportunities to use French (Gardner et al., 1977; Gardner, 1985). This investigation also showed that short-term language programs have a significant effect on students' second language skills, particularly for the beginning students (Gardner et al., 1977). The authors asserted that "Five weeks of intensive second language training and use increases one's motivation to improve one's proficiency and removes much of the anxiety associated with learning or using the language" (Gardner et al., 1977, p. 252).

In 1979 Clément compared two types of intensive summer language programs, immersion (living with students at school and having formal instruction and structured cultural activities in French) versus residence (living with a family and having no formal instruction or structured cultural activities in French), and sought to determine if one or both were effective in improving attitudes and decreasing language anxiety. He suggested that both types of programs were successful in improving attitudes and decreasing language anxiety; in addition, he hypothesized that students in unilingual contexts would

benefit most from residence programs whereas students in bilingual contexts would benefit most from immersion programs (Clément, 1979). Gardner (1985) interpreted the results of Clément's study to suggest that "[w]here attention is directed to building competence and confidence in language use, anxiety is reduced. Where, however, the focus is on social-emotional relations with the other community, attitudes toward that group improve" (p. 101).

In a study addressing the attainment of French proficiency and knowledge of Franco-Canadian culture as well as the roles of attitudes, motivation, and anxiety during immersion programs in both French and English-speaking communities, Shapson et al. (1981) found that participation in both four-week summer immersion programs produced increased French proficiency, many improved attitudes toward French-Canadians, and increased knowledge of Franco-Canadian culture. In addition, students' anxiety about speaking French was lowered (Shapson et al., 1981).

In a qualitative investigation of the linguistic development of advanced Spanish speakers in a US immersion program, Liskin-Gasparro (1998) found that learners who had been abroad suffered fewer crises of confidence than those who had not. She also explained the importance of using qualitative research designs to address linguistic development in immersion contexts "from the perspective of the learner, which implies taking into account the complex linguistic, social, and cultural environment in which the learner is living" (Liskin-Gasparro, 1998, p.174).

After analyzing numerous studies of short-term immersion programs and their effects on attitudes and motivation conducted between 1975 and 1985, Gardner (1985) concluded attitude change does occur as a result of intensive language study. He also

hypothesized that changes are related more to the nature of the program rather than the nature of the setting—programs which address building linguistic competence and confidence (e.g. most academic programs) result in greater learner ease with the language while programs which focus on socio-emotional goals (e.g. exchange programs with families) result in changes in attitude toward the target language community.

The second context in which many empirical investigations of contact with the target language community have taken place is that of *study abroad* (SA). Freed (1995a) defined SA as a period of residence in another country or province combined with classroom-based language and/or content area study. Although the definitions of immersion and SA are similar, immersion research has involved high school and some college-level language students, whereas SA research has involved mainly college students. In addition, SA participation usually lasts from a semester to a year; immersion can last from a few weeks to a few months.

Research conducted on SA has taken a number of forms and has been dominated by comparison studies of skills outcomes of SA participants versus non-SA peers studying the same language at the home institution and case studies of SA participants' overseas experiences. Whereas in general, positive results are associated with participating in SA during language learning, there have been many conflicting results on specific linguistic and affective factors involved in the experience (Freed, 1995a). Kline explained that when researching SA, "the number and instability of variables interacting ... the complexity of the contexts encountered, and the vast amount that remains unknown about study abroad may impede the quick formulation of answers to nomothetically-oriented questions" (1998, p. 141).

Comparison studies of SA participants versus peers studying the foreign language at the home institution have produced mixed results; although many point to the SA context as more effective in developing linguistic competence, the results are mixed as to whether SA participation brings about significant change in attitudes or motivation.

In a comparison of 153 students who chose not to study abroad and 148 study abroad participants, Carlson et al. (1990) found that of 20 possible variables, the most salient factor differentiating the two groups prior to SA was "Cultural Interest". The major motivations for SA participation were the cultural and living experiences they expected during SA, language development, and, to a lesser degree, academic reasons (Carlson et al., 1990). After those participants who took part in SA returned from their year overseas, Carlson et al. (1990) observed there was not a significant mean difference in self efficacy levels between those who had studied abroad and those who did not; these findings led the researchers to conclude that "the findings seem to cast doubt on the hypothesis that self-efficacy can be enhanced through study abroad" (Carlson et al., 1990, p. 69). Carlson et al. (1990) also concluded that significant gains in language proficiency occurred after SA and the most improved areas were listening, speaking, and reading.

Freed (1995b) compared two groups of French students—one studying in France (n=15) and one studying in the United States (n=15) and found no significant differences in motivation or anxiety between the two groups and no correlation between the motivation and anxiety assessments and language gain during the semester. In addition, Freed also was unable to establish a significant difference in global fluency between the SA and non-SA groups; however, she did report the SA group made slightly more oral

progress and spoke both more and at a significantly faster rate than those who did not go abroad (1995b).

In a study that compared the pragmatic language competence of 97 SA participants learning English in Canada with the language competence of 102 of their peers who choose to not participate in SA, Matsumura (2001) determined that SA participants surpassed their non-SA peers in development of pragmatic competence. Lafford (1995) reached similar conclusions in her comparison study of 28 SA participants and 13 non-SA peers also studying Spanish. Those who had spent a semester in either Mexico or Spain as opposed to remaining in the U.S. classroom had a broader repertoire of communicative strategies, produced more words in a conversational context, and had more self-repairs than repeats in their speech (Lafford, 1995).

Many investigations of linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of SA have explored the role of informal contact with the target language and community and how it relates to the SA experience. There are many opportunities to use the target language during SA, because two-thirds of a student's time is spent in activities not directly related to classroom study (Laubscher, 1994). However, research regarding the benefits of informal contact has not produced conclusive findings (Freed, 1995a).

In an investigation of SA participants in Japan, Huebner concluded that both non-interactive and interactive forms of informal contact facilitate proficiency and greater volume of second language production (1995). A similar finding was reported by Regan (1995) who explained that the amount of contact with native speakers influenced the adoption of native speaker community speech norms by 6 yearlong SA participants in France and Belgium. In a study of SA participation in a shorter program in Canada,

Lapkin, Hart, & Swain also concurred that "the importance of frequent and sustained interactions with native speakers, it seems, cannot be overstated in achieving impressive linguistic gains in a three-month exchange" (1995, p. 93).

Yager (1998) investigated the effects of student attitudes and informal contact with Spanish during a summer semester in Mexico and found a) over all proficiency levels of participants, greater interactive contact (i.e. speaking Spanish with native speakers) with the language was related to greater overall language gain; and b) overall language gain for all proficiency levels was negatively correlated with only one of 19 items measuring attitudes and motivation. This item read, "I came to study at CEPE because it is a good way to satisfy requirements at my home institution" (Yager, 1998, p. 906). This correlation led Yager to conclude that greater integrative motivation and less instrumental motivation seemed to promote the acquisition of more native-like Spanish (1998).

In a study of adult ESL learners enrolled in an intensive 6-week course, Spada (1986) determined that those learners with qualitatively better informal contact with English performed better on speaking tests. However, no correlation was found between *amount* of contact and speaking scores. She concluded that "learners who live in what Krashen has referred to as 'acquisition-rich' environments and take advantage of such settings to use their communicative skills in the L2 also need opportunities to focus on the structural properties of the language and attend to form" (Spada, 1986, p. 197).

The role of affective variables during SA and the impact of a SA experience on participants' anxiety and motivation have not been widely researched. However, the results of some studies reveal preliminary insights into the role that affect plays in

shaping the overseas experience. In a study that addressed the role of integrative and instrumental motivation in predicting course grades of 167 college students studying abroad in Norway, Svanes (1987) found a weak positive correlation between integrative motivation and language proficiency and a negative correlation between instrumental motivation and grades. However, a better predictor of variance was cultural distance. Of interest is the fact that Svanes (1987) mentioned that European and North American students had "luxury motives for coming to Norway to study"—a reference to integrative motivation.

Wilkinson (1998) investigated communication in a different culture for study abroad participants and found that the seven participants' experiences were marked by cultural, not linguistic, misunderstandings; in addition, these misunderstandings (not a lack of motivation) led to increased reliance on the other American students for support as well as discouragement. In a later study, Wilkinson (2000) identified communicating with members of a host family as a source of anxiety for study abroad participants. These two studies by Wilkinson may be relevant to what Morgan (1993) called an attitude filter; he hypothesized that the attitude filter may well serve to block information received from members of the target language community. It is possible that the participants in Wilkinsons' studies (1998, 2000) held attitudes that were ethnocentric, or they were unprepared or unmotivated to adapt to the target language culture. It is of interest to note that the SA program in which those participants were involved did not have a faculty member present from the participants' university (Wilkinson, 1998, 2000). This may have been an anxiety-producing situation for the SA participants to not have an American faculty member to mediate their SA experience.

Two case studies have demonstrated that students who study abroad are more confident in their foreign language skills after the experience (Davie, 1996; Kitao, 1993). Davie's (1996) study of 14 SA participants who spent a semester to a year in Russia revealed that all of the respondents felt their overall knowledge of Russian had improved. Listening was named as the most improved skill followed by speaking whereas writing was named as the least-developed skill during SA (Davie, 1996). In a study of 34 Japanese students on a five-week SA program to the U.S., Kitao (1993) concluded from survey results that participants "perceived their English had improved, they had more motivation to study English, their image of the United States and of Americans was more positive, and they had more confidence in themselves" (p. 116).

Past research regarding SA has posed a number of intriguing questions that should be considered by current and future investigations. These questions include (a) What is the impact of SA on the linguistic development of students who participate in these programs at different stages of language learning? (b) Which positive aspects of SA can be replicated at home? (c) Can academic programs which address building linguistic competence and confidence enhance not only learner ease with the language but also changes in attitude toward the target language community? (d) How can we facilitate linguistic and cultural learning during SA? and (e) What kind of students benefit the most from education abroad? (Freed, 1995a; Gardner, 1985; Laubscher, 1994; Liskin-Gasparro, 1998; Wilkinson, 1998, 2000).

Discussion

Foreign language anxiety is one of the best predictors of foreign language achievement, and it plays an important role in the process of language learning (Gardner,

1985; Horwitz, 1991; Phillips, 1992). A moderate negative relationship has been found between foreign language anxiety and various measures of language achievement (Aida, 1994; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, 1994; Mettler, 1987; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Phillips, 1992; Young, 1986, 1991). In addition, research has demonstrated that foreign language anxiety is negatively related to self-esteem, identification with the target culture, participation in certain classroom activities, and instructor-learner interactions (Horwitz et al., 1986; Koch & Terrell, 1991; Price, 1991; Young, 1992).

Some research has disputed the importance of foreign language anxiety and held that it is an effect of native-language coding deficiencies (Ganschow & Sparks, 1996; Sparks & Ganschow, 1993, 1995). Most investigations of language anxiety have focused on its role in relation to speaking and test taking in the language classroom; very little research has addressed the role of anxiety in language use outside the classroom in contexts such as SA. At present, the researcher is not aware of any known study that included language anxiety as the focus of investigation in relation to student performance in the SA context.

Integrative motivation, or the willingness to adapt various cultural and linguistic features of the target language community, is a predictor of persistence in language study, student participation in the classroom, and language proficiency (Clément et al., 1977; Clément et al., 1978; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gliksman et al., 1982; Svanes, 1987). Some researchers have disagreed with the primacy of integrated motivation or asserted that it is more important in second language

learning contexts than in foreign language learning contexts (Horwitz, 1995; Noels et al., 2000; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Most research on integrative motivation has focused on its relation to persistence and proficiency in the classroom; very little research has addressed the relation of integrative motivation to student performance in the target language in contexts outside the classroom such as SA. Although some literature has addressed the role of integrative motivation in the context of short-term immersion programs, no study has included integrative motivation as the focus on investigation in relation to student performance in the SA context for American university-level language learners.

Most research on language anxiety and integrative motivation has been conducted in relation to formal classroom study of a second or foreign language within the native language community (e.g., an American college student studying Spanish). In foreign language contexts, students are normally surrounded by their own native language and must search out stimulation and input in the target language (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). By contrast, students in second-language contexts (e.g., an American student studying Spanish in Spain) are surrounded by visual and auditory stimulation and thus have many motivational advantages in comparison to those experienced foreign language contexts. The very different natures of these two types of contexts makes imperative the need to achieve a more clear understanding of how attitudes and motivations function in contexts such as SA.

The SA context is one that has been shown to provoke anxiety not only in formal classroom contexts but also during the real-life interactions with members of the target language community (Wilkinson, 1998, 2000). Levy (2000) explained that recurrent and

persistent questions arise during SA such as "What exactly are the rules of behavior and interpersonal relationships? Did I really understand that conversation? What could this menu item be? What is expected of me in this situation?" and can produce uncertainty and discomfort for participants (p. 76).

Gardner hypothesized that "the artificiality of the typical language class may offer ... one form of protection to many students. Because the communications in the second language are seldom true personal communications, it is just possible that this permits students a form of armour for themselves" (p. 168, 1985). This protection is not possible for language learners in SA, who must use the second language to meet needs, communicate everyday thoughts and feelings, and make requests in the target language. This process may produce even more anxiety than that produced in the foreign language classroom.

On the other hand, some empirical research has suggested that immersion experiences in the target language and culture reduce anxiety and increase feelings of ease with the target language (Clément, 1979; Gardner et al., 1977; Shapson et al., 1981). Research has not yet addressed how anxiety functions during SA or whether it is a stable disposition or one subject to change through experiences such as SA.

It is unclear whether SA participation enhances integrative motivation or attitudes toward members of the target language culture. Whereas some studies (Kitao, 1993; Shapson et al., 1981) support the role of SA in improving these attitudes, other research has shown that SA participants' attitudes toward target culture members worsen after the experience (Gardner et al., 1977; Wilkinson, 1998, 2000).

In addition, past research on motivation and anxiety has also produced a number of unanswered questions that should be addressed in relation to SA. These questions include (a) Are people who are less anxious more disposed to interact with members of the target language community? (b) Do people with higher integrative motivation interact more frequently with members of the target language community? (Clément et al., 1980; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996).

There are many questions to be answered about how language learners make the transition from studying in the classroom in the home country to both learning and living in the target language community. Future research must address how language anxiety and integrative motivation affect linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of SA and provide recommendations to educators based on empirical evidence of how positive aspects of SA can be incorporated into classroom foreign language study.

CHAPTER III
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study was grounded in the theoretical perspective that success in acquiring a

foreign language involves much more than one's intellect or language-learning aptitude.

In addition to those qualities, one's attitudes toward language learning as well as one's

motivation to identify with the target language community are important considerations

(Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Because, as Dörnyei explained, learning a second language

is a "deeply social event that requires the incorporation of a wide range of elements of the

L2 culture," this study investigated the effects of participation in a SA program on

language anxiety, integrative motivation, oral performance in French, and listening

performance in French (p. 46, 2001). The form this investigation took was a mixed-

methodology study. The principal researcher was not present during the six-week SA

program and had contact with the participants limited to pre-SA testing and post-SA

testing in most cases.

Participants and Setting

The participants in this study were 25 university students enrolled in a summer

program of study in Paris, France, and a comparison group of 21 elementary,

intermediate, and advanced level French students not enrolled in the SA program. In

regard to the SA participants, the researcher gained access through the faculty member

leading the SA program. All students in this program had completed a minimum of two

college semesters of French study. A table displaying the 25 participants' background of

language study, age, and major is included in Appendix A.

During the 6-week program of intensive study in Paris, France, students were

required to select two courses (8 semester hours) and could choose to enroll in a

maximum of three courses (12 semester hours). The courses from which they chose were Intermediate French, Practical Conversation, French History, French Theater, and Introduction to International Business. These courses were held each weekday for one hour each in a facility shared by a number of American university programs abroad. In addition, SA students participated in cultural excursions to museums, monuments, parks, plays, and other destinations. While studying in Paris, students chose to live either in private homes with French families or in a *pension de famille* with a teaching assistant from the students' home institution and other students. It is important to note that the sample used in this study was a convenience sample composed of those students who were willing to participate in the research study (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). Random selection of students by the researcher was not possible in this case. According to Dörnyei (2001) it is an acceptable practice to use convenience sampling when practical constraints preclude random assignment; however, the possibilities for making causal claims when using such samples are limited.

Instrumentation

This study measured participants' language anxiety, integrative motivation, oral French skills, and listening French skills before and after a six-week SA program in Paris, France. The following measures were administered in English to the participants:

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The purpose of using the FLCAS was to measure the degree of anxiety related to classroom study of a foreign language. The researcher used this 33-item scale as an intact instrument. The FLCAS has been shown to be reliable and valid, with an alpha coefficient of .93 and an eight-week test-retest coefficient of .83 (Horwitz, 1991; Horwitz

et al., 1986). Validity was established via significant correlations with communication apprehension (as measured by the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension) and with test anxiety (as measured by the Test Anxiety Scale). Aida (1994) administered the FLCAS in a study of students learning Japanese and reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .94. The FLCAS is included in Appendix B.

French Use Anxiety Scale

The purpose of using this scale was to measure the degree of anxiety felt when using the foreign language during everyday communicative situations; it does not pertain to classroom activities. The researcher used this 10-item Likert scale as an intact instrument. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .88. The French Use Anxiety Scale is included in Appendix C.

State Anxiety Questionnaire

The purpose of using this questionnaire was to measure the degree of anxiety experienced by participants in specific relation to the preceding task--that of completing oral and listening tests in French. This 3-item questionnaire was administered to each participant immediately after completion of the Oral Proficiency Test and Listening Proficiency Test. Two Likert-type items addressed the anxiety felt pertaining to the listening test as well as the anxiety felt pertaining to the oral test. In addition, one open-ended item asked the participant to describe briefly how he or she felt during these tests. This questionnaire was created by the researcher and is found in Appendix D.

Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)

The purpose of using the AMTB was to measure the integrative motivation of participants. The researcher made contact with the author of the instrument and secured

permission to modify the instrument. This modification was necessary because the AMTB was designed for use in a French Canadian context. The researcher incorporated the suggestions of the instrument's author in all modifications to the AMTB. The AMTB used in this study included eight scales of which two were multiple-choice format and four were Likert format. These scales measure Interest in Foreign Languages (10 items, α =.83), Attitudes toward French People (10 items, α =.91), Attitudes toward Learning French (10 items, α =.95), Integrative Orientation (4 items, α =.84), Motivational Intensity (10 items, α =.84), and Desire to Learn French (10 items, α =.87), Evaluation of My French Teacher (25 items), and Evaluation of My French Course (25 items) (Gardner & Smythe, 1981). These scales have been shown to be reliable, with six-week test-retest coefficients of between .68 and .86 (Gardner & Smythe, 1981). Validity of the AMTB was established via significant correlation with language aptitude, as measured by the Modern Language Aptitude Test (Gardner & Smythe, 1981). The AMTB is included in Appendix E.

Demographic/Language Contact Profile

The purpose of administering this questionnaire was to obtain detailed information on participants' reasons for studying abroad, their language and travel histories, and their contact with the foreign language. This questionnaire was constructed from components of several instruments. Questions concerning demographic information and participants' self-reports of communicative competence in the foreign language were taken from Carlson et al.'s (1990) questionnaire administered during the nationwide Study Abroad Evaluation Project. A small number of questions were taken from Svanes' (1987) motivation during SA questionnaire; these questions involved reasons for

participating in SA and reasons for studying the foreign language. In addition,

components of Yager's (1998) language contact profile were added to investigate how

often students participate in non-interactive and interactive contact activities (e.g.

reading, listening to the radio, watching television, spending time with people with whom

you live) in the target language as well as their native language while participating in SA.

This Demographic/Language Profile contained ranking scales, categorical scales, and

open-ended items; the Profile administered before participation in SA is found in

Appendix F. The Profile administered after participation in SA contained a number of

items added to investigate participants' opinions of their SA experience. These added

items are found in Appendix G.

French Oral Skills Test

This test consisted of two oral activities taken from previous oral testing

procedures used by Lafford (1995) and Herron, Morris, Secules, & Curtis (1995). The

first activity, a picture description, was based on a portion of the oral proficiency test

published in Herron et al. (1995). Each participant was asked to describe an image (a

restaurant scene) in French for up to five minutes. This description was recorded on an

audiocassette. The second activity, a role-play situation, was based on a portion of the

well-known Oral Proficiency Interview and was administered using the protocol found in

Lafford's (1995) study of language proficiency in a SA environment. For this activity,

each participant asked the interviewer a series of questions in French during a guided

conversation. This activity was also recorded on an audiocassette. This test and the

accompanying instructions are found in Appendix H.

French Listening Skills Test

This test consisted of 14 multiple-choice questions. Each participant was asked to view a short series of passages in French from a DVD-ROM and to answer the corresponding questions based on his or her comprehension of the passages. The passages were viewed two times. The Listening Skills Test and the accompanying instructions are found in Appendix I.

Study Abroad Interview Protocol

This interview consisted of open-ended questions on three topics—living in France, eating in France, and communicating with Parisians. The purpose of conducting this interview with eight primary informants was to obtain first-hand information from the students' points of view on the experience of studying and living in France. The researcher created this instrument. The Interview Protocol is found in Appendix J.

Data Collection

Data in this study were collected in three stages: pre-study abroad, study abroad, and post-study abroad. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used, although the quantitative component was the dominant paradigm. According to Merriam (1998) qualitative data consist of data conveyed through words whereas quantitative data consist of data presented in number form. Both types of data were collected through questionnaires, French proficiency tests, interviews, observations, and post-SA program evaluations. The purpose of incorporating limited qualitative inquiry was to provide an accurate description of the phenomenon of SA from the point of view of the participants and to inform and enrich the pre-test and post-test data. The qualitative data collection took place during only one of the three stages, the second stage, and was conducted by a

second researcher. The primary researcher in this study had no previous contact with the participants before the study. The second researcher was in contact with the group of participants during the SA program but had limited contact with the group of participants prior to the SA program. The second researcher was not provided with detailed information concerning the research questions or possible hypotheses of the primary researcher.

Pre-Study Abroad Data Collection

Before collecting data from participants prior to their departure for SA, the researcher secured permission from the University to undertake the study. This necessitated the researcher to submit the details of the proposed study to the Human Subjects Review Committee. Once permission was granted to pursue this project, the researcher met with potential participants (the group of SA students enrolled in the summer semester in Paris program) and explained the nature of the research and any potential risks of participation. The researcher obtained informed consent in writing from each student who chose to participate in the study and explained how participant anonymity would be maintained as well as the right of any participant to withdraw from the study at any time. After securing the consent of participants in writing to take part in the study, the researcher asked each participant to sign up for a 20-minute interview to assess his or her French oral and listening performance. These interviews were conducted during the final two weeks of the semester preceding the participants' departure for the SA program.

Each participant was randomly assigned to interview with either the primary or second researcher. The primary researcher trained the second researcher to maintain the

validity and reliability of the research procedures used during these interviews (Bieger & Gerlach, 1996). The interviews took place in an academic office on the University campus with only the interviewer and the participant present. During each interview the participant completed the French Oral Proficiency Test and the French Listening Proficiency Test. Immediately after these tests, the participant completed the State Anxiety Questionnaire. To maintain participant anonymity the audio-recorded Oral Skills Test and Listening Skills Tests results for each participant were identified only by a number assigned by the researcher.

At the final orientation meeting before the participants departed for SA, the researcher administered the Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, and the Demographic/Language Contact Profile. To maintain participant anonymity, the questionnaire battery for each participant was identified only by the number assigned by the primary researcher. For participants who were not present at the final orientation meeting, the researcher made contact with them and arranged for the completion of the questionnaire battery prior to the end of the semester.

Because the participants in this study could not be randomly selected from the population of university-level foreign language students, the researcher provided information on the foreign language anxiety and integrative motivation levels of a comparison group of French students enrolled at the same university as the study participants who were not enrolled in a SA program (n=21). The number of students in the comparison group was limited to 21 because the number of intermediate students was smaller in the comparison group than in the SA group; the 21 comparison-group students were matched with the 25 SA participants by course level of French and gender. Three

levels of French students (advanced beginners, intermediate, and advanced) were administered the Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. Those students who completed the questionnaires signed an informed consent of their limited and anonymous participation in this study. The questionnaires were completed by each of the three groups of non-SA participants in their respective French class with the researcher present. This test condition was identical to that used for the SA participants during the orientation session in which they completed the same questionnaires.

Study Abroad Data Collection

During the 6-week SA program, the second researcher collected both quantitative and qualitative data and was in regular weekly contact with the primary researcher. The quantitative data collected by the second researcher included four administrations of the French Use Anxiety Scale. Participants completed this 10-question scale 4 times during the 40 days of the SA program (Day 2, Day 13, Day 27, Day 41). The second researcher administered this short questionnaire during scheduled cultural outings with the SA group, and she labeled the questionnaire of each participant with an identification number only to ensure anonymity.

In addition to this quantitative data, the second researcher also collected qualitative data in the form of audio-recorded interviews and observations. Because the second researcher lived with a small group of the SA participants, she had access to these students outside of the academic context of SA. Three semi-structured interviews were conducted approximately every 2 weeks during the 6-week program. For these interviews the primary researcher provided a short interview protocol before the SA program, and

the second researcher asked open-ended questions on cultural topics such as food,

communication, and lifestyles in France. These interviews were recorded on an

audiocassette. In addition to conducting these interviews, the second researcher also

conducted participant observation to record participant behavior and conversation

(Merriam, 1998). These observations were recorded in a researcher notebook and given

to the primary researcher at the conclusion of the SA program.

Post-Study Abroad Data Collection

During the final week of the SA program, the primary researcher traveled to

France to participate in the last stage of data collection. Each of the measures

administered to participants before SA was re-administered at this time at the academic

building where the SA program took place. The primary and second researcher conducted

20-minute interviews to assess the level of French Oral Proficiency and French Listening

Proficiency and these tests were followed immediately by the completion of the State

Anxiety Questionnaire. Each participant interviewed by the primary researcher before SA

was interviewed by the second researcher during this interview; likewise, each participant

interviewed by the second researcher before SA was interviewed by the primary

researcher during this interview. The same interview procedures were used and the

French Oral Skills Test was recorded on an audiocassette. The Attitudes/Motivation Test

Battery, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, and the Demographic/Language

Contact Profile were also administered with the same procedures used during the first

administration. At this time, the researcher explained to each participant how the results

of the study would be communicated, and she offered each participant a copy of their

French Oral pre-test and post-test audiotape as well as scores for both the French Oral Skills Test and French Listening Skills Test.

During the month that followed the completion of the SA program, 4 participants indicated their willingness to share their insights and opinions of their experience living and studying in France. The primary researcher met with 3 of the 4 participants in a group interview that was audio-recorded and conducted in the same manner using the same questions as the second researcher during the four interviews that took place during the SA program. One interview was conducted with an individual participant using the same protocol. In total, 8 of the 25 SA participants were interviewed; a group that included 5 females and 3 males of whom 4 lived with French families during the program and 4 lived in the *pension de famille* with the second researcher.

A last data source used in this investigation was post program evaluations. Although the evaluation questionnaire was part of the SA program and not designed as a component of this study, it contained a number of items relevant to the investigation. The items used included opinions of strengths and weaknesses of the program, pre-SA orientation, and lodging arrangements. These evaluations were anonymous and completed by 20 of the 25 participants on the final day of the program.

Data Analysis

For this investigation, two types of statistical analysis were used. Descriptive statistics such as measures of central tendency and variability were reported for measures at the pretest and posttest stages. In addition, the following inferential statistics were used to address the first seven research questions:

Research Question 1

A *t*-test for paired samples was used to assess if a significant change occurred in foreign language classroom anxiety after participating in a SA experience.

Research Question 2

A one-way repeated measure analysis of variance was used to assess changes in level of French use anxiety over time during the SA experience. Specific pairs of means were explored in a post hoc fashion using follow-up protected *t*-tests. To maintain an overall error rate of 5% as four tests were conducted, a significance level of .013 (.05/4) was used instead of .05. The instrument used in this analysis was the French Use Anxiety Scale.

Research Question 3

A *t*-test for paired samples was used to assess if a significant change occurred in state anxiety related to evaluation of French oral and listening skills after participating in a SA experience.

Research Question 4

T-tests for paired samples for the total Attitude/Motivation Test Battery score and for each subscale were used to determine if changes occurred in integrative motivation after participating in a SA experience.

Research Question 5

A *t*-test for paired samples was used to determine if changes in French oral skills occurred after participating in a SA experience. The French Oral Skills Test was scored by two non-native speakers of French with native-like fluency. The scoring protocol used was found in Linder (1977); each of the two oral tasks was scored on the following

criteria: fluency, comprehensibility, amount of communication, and quality of communication. The instructions for scoring the French Oral Skills test (given to the two scorers) are found in Appendix J. The researcher trained the two scorers. In the research results inter-rater reliability is reported as a correlation.

Research Question 6

A *t*-test for paired samples was used to determine if changes in French listening skills occurred after participating in a SA experience.

Research Question 7

T-tests for independent samples for the total Attitude/Motivation Test Battery and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale scores were used to determine if SA participants possess higher initial integrative motivation and / or lower initial language anxiety than students who do not choose to participate in SA.

The researcher empirically tested the shapes of the distributions of scores for all continuous measures to determine if the assumptions for using parametrical statistical methods are were met. Information concerning the assumptions of normality and, in the case of Research Question 2, homogeneity of variance is included in Chapter 4. All *t*-tests used were two-tailed and a significance level of .05 was used for all inferential statistics with the exception of those used to answer Research Question 4 and those used in follow-up tests for Research Question 2. Because Research Question 4 involved numerous planned comparisons, the probability was greater for making a type I error. To correct for this, a Bonferroni correction was used to adjust the significance level (Keppel, 1991).

Qualitative data analysis was used for the audio-recorded interviews, the contents of the researcher notebook, and the written program evaluations administered at the end

of the SA program. The interviews were transcribed by the primary researcher and coded with a simple scheme to identify themes illustrated by incidents or quotes (Merriam, 1998). The contents of the researcher notebook were also incorporated into this coding scheme, and the quotes and incidents recorded were organized into themes. Likewise, comments made by participants in the written program evaluations were combined with the other sources of qualitative data to provide support for responses to Research Questions 1 through 5. The researcher attempted to represent the opinions of SA participants by careful analysis of their interviews on the subject of the program as well as their program evaluations. In addition, written interpretations and data analysis based on these sources were sent to participants as a form of member checking to ensure that interpretations are consistent with participants' opinions.

<div align="center">Reliability and Validity</div>

Reliability and validity are concerns that demand attention through careful conceptualization of a study, data collection, and data analysis (Merriam, 1998). Because of the sampling method used in this study and the fact that a comparison group was only used during pretest measures of language anxiety and integrative motivation, the researcher addressed a number of threats to internal validity. To reduce the threat of previous history, the use of a comparison group drawn from the same population of French student eligible to participate in SA was used to measure language anxiety and integrative motivation levels during the semester before the experimental group participated in SA. Other means of enhancing internal validity incorporated in this study were standardization of research conditions and instrumentation, the collection and analysis of plentiful information about participants through the Demographic/Language

Contact Profile, and the use of a second, trained researcher who functioned much like a "naive observer," unaware of the primary researcher's hypotheses (Bieger & Gerlach, 1996; Johnson & Christensen, 2000). External validity was addressed through the operationalization of variables used in the study; all were defined according to widely agreed-upon definitions (Bieger & Gerlach, 1996).

According to Merriam (1998), "Reliability in a research design is based on the assumption that there is a single reality and that studying it repeatedly will yield the same results" (p. 205). As in many areas of social science research, the study of attitudes and motivations of students participating in SA is a phenomenon that is realized within countless setting and cultures through programs that vary widely in resources, content, and length. To make the research design used in this study as replicable as possible, the researcher clearly explained her position in relation to the group of participants as well as the theory and assumptions behind the study. Triangulation and multiple methods of data collection were used to provide a full and accurate account of how the SA experience influenced linguistic and non-linguistic attributes and to strengthen reliability and internal validity (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Although the dominant paradigm of the study was a quantitative one, qualitative data served as the base for rich description of the attitudes, behaviors, and demographics of participants (Johnson & Christensen, 2000).

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

This study was designed to investigate the effects of participation in SA on students' language anxiety, integrative motivation, oral French skills, and listening French skills. In addition, this study explored whether significant differences in language anxiety and integrative motivation existed prior to SA for SA participants versus non-SA peers. In this chapter, an overview of the results of quantitative measures is given, and these results are supported by accompanying qualitative data results.

Language Anxiety

Classroom Language Anxiety

A paired samples t-test was calculated to compare the mean pre-SA FLCAS score to the mean post-SA FLCAS score. The mean on the pretest was 91.08 (sd=19.61) and the mean on the posttest was 77.56 (sd=18.27). A significant decrease from pretest to posttest was found (t(24)= 4.856, p < .001). The effect size of .50 indicates a medium effect. The assumption of normality was met in both pre-test and post-test scores; statistics for skewness and kurtosis for the FLCAS and other instruments for which inferential statistics were calculated are included in Appendix L. The FLCAS contained items reflective of communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation in the foreign language classroom; post-SA differences in these three areas will be discussed in further detail in the following chapter.

French Use Anxiety

A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was calculated comparing the FUAS scores of SA participants at four different times during the 41-day program: Day 2, Day 13, Day 27, and Day 41. A significant effect was found (F(1.92,66) = 29.22, p < .001).

Follow-up protected *t* tests revealed FUAS scores decreased significantly from Day 13 (m=25.13, sd=6.22) to Day 27 (m=22.43, sd=5.88) and again from Day 27 to Day 41 (m=19.48, sd=4.86). No significant difference exists between Day 2 (m=26.65, sd=6.93) and Day 13 means. The assumptions of normality in all four administrations was met; however, the assumption of sphericity was violated (Mauchly's W=.44; p < .05). The alternative univariate test, Greenhouse-Geisser, yielded the same *F* value but corrected the degrees of freedom of the *F*. The effect size of .66 indicates a medium effect size. The FUAS contained items related to speaking and understanding French in informal contexts; a more detailed discussion of how participants' responses to various questions differed from the first FUAS administration to the last administration is included in the following chapter.

State Anxiety

Paired samples *t*-tests were calculated to compare mean pre-SA state anxiety scores in relation to 1) the French Oral Skills Test and 2) the French Listening Skills Test with post-SA state anxiety scores in relation to both skills tests. For state anxiety related to the French Oral Skills Test, the mean on the pretest was 3.61 (sd=2.21) and the mean on the posttest was 2.52 (sd=1.53). A significant decrease from pretest to posttest was found (t(22)= 2.114, p < .05). The effect size of .17 indicates a small effect size. For state anxiety related to the French Listening Skills Test, the mean on the pretest was 5.74 (sd=2.58) and the mean on the posttest was 2.65 (sd=1.37). A significant decrease from pretest to posttest was found (t(22)= 5.527, p < .001). The effect size of .58 indicates a medium effect size. The assumption of normality was met in both administrations of the French Listening Skills State Anxiety Test. The assumption of normality was violated in

the French Oral Skills State Anxiety Pre-Test (positively skewed and slightly keptokurtic) but was not violated in the Post-Test. No additional non-parametric statistical tests were used, because the t-test is robust to the violation of the normality assumption (Shavelson, 1995).

In addition to the two Likert-type items addressing state anxiety experienced in relation to the two skills tests, the State Anxiety Questionnaire also contained a third open-ended item that asked the participant to "describe in a few words how you felt during the interview." The pre-SA responses to this item were, on the whole, negative. Twenty-one of the 23 participants who completed this questionnaire (2 participants did not complete this questionnaire) described feeling "anxious," "distraught," "embarrassed," "like an idiot," "nervous," "not very competent," "out of practice," and "silly" prior to SA. However, post-SA responses were much more positive: Only 6 participants used negative terms to describe how they felt while 17 participants chose to compare the pre-SA and post-SA experience or used positive terms. Typical post-SA responses included descriptions such as "calm and confident," "more at ease than last time," "okay," "pleased with my progress," "relaxed and comfortable," and "still a little nervous."

Comparison of Classroom Language Anxiety for SA and non-SA Participants

An independent t-test was calculated comparing the mean FLCAS scores of SA participants (n=25) to the mean FLCAS scores of non-SA participants also studying French at the same level (n=21) prior to the SA program. No significant difference was found ($t(44)$= .023, p > .05). The mean of the SA participants prior to SA participation (m=91.08, sd=19.61) was not significantly different from the mean of non-SA

participants (m=90.95, sd=18.55). The effect size of .001 indicates a very small effect.

The assumption of normality was met in the FLCAS Pre-Test for the non-SA group.

Results of Levene's test indicate the assumption of equality of variances was met (F=.15,

p > .05).

Sources and Manifestation of Language Anxiety during SA

Qualitative data gathered from participants' post-SA Demographic/Language

Contact Profile and interviews with primary informants pointed to two primary sources of

language anxiety experienced during SA: linguistic incompetence and cultural

differences. The experience of living and studying abroad placed students in an

unfamiliar environment that challenged them and sometimes aroused anxieties on both a

linguistic and cultural levels. Anthony summarized this fear when he stated, "I have

never really gotten anxious speaking French until I came to France."

Descriptions of informants' "worst thing that happened on SA" point to

significant challenges caused when linguistic insecurities and cultural differences come in

to play simultaneously. Consider Bill's experience the first time he had to wash some

clothes:

> The first time I went to the laundromat, I could not figure it out. I had no
>
> clue ... I'm like, where do I put the coin in? I finally figured it out, got it,
>
> and I got the washer going. I didn't know where to put the soap and it was
>
> already going. I had to close the washer, but water starts spewing
>
> everywhere. This French guy is like "Oh la la!" and runs over and
>
> shuts it. It was a disaster, an absolute disaster. Of course, then finally it's
>
> all going, I sit down to try to relax, and I look up and there is English

instructions. I had no clue. I felt like the biggest idiot.

This situation illustrates the anxiety felt when a student faces an unfamiliar situation and does not attempt to communicate his or her needs. Frustration and embarrassment can occur and further discourage attempts to use the target language. Carrie recalled a similar experience: "I tried to get Nyquil at the pharmacy but it's behind the counter. You have to explain your illness to the man. So I just came home." These types of situations were not limited to communicating with strangers in the target language. Even Jane, who found her hostess to be thoughtful and generous, admitted, "I never did figure out how to use the shower. I took a bath every day. I was embarrassed to ask."

The participants' reported "worst thing that happened during SA" were overwhelmingly cultural in nature. For example, Vanessa and Laurie reported feeling uncomfortable with attempting to explain their dietary habits or vegetarian requirements to their French hosts. Three other students described being "ridiculed," "bashed," and "criticized" for being American. Others, such as Anthony and Beth, displayed negative opinions about Parisians calling them impolite and cold. Some of the reported "worst things" demonstrated a lack of practical information about the host culture or about how to handle daily life in a big city. Anthony and Matt described being "tricked and swindled" in a cabaret after unknowingly wandering in for a drink. Three other students called being stranded late at night without public transportation their most difficult moment. An element common to all of these instances is that they demand both cultural knowledge and linguistic skills to successfully negotiate the situation.

Some informants disparaged their own linguistic abilities in French and even viewed anxiety-provoking experiences as the result of their poor command of the language. Beth, who had only studied French for two semesters prior to SA, recollected that "people just shove me off the sidewalk and don't say sorry. If they see you coming behind them and you're trying to walk faster, they don't move. I guess maybe it's because I can't speak the language." On a separate occasion, when an American student from a different university staying at the pension asked at the dinner table "Who doesn't speak French here?" Beth responded, "Me!" She was not the only student who expressed a lack of confidence in her language skills. Lera lamented to the program assistant that "I've forgotten everything" although she was born in Africa and spoke French from an early age. On separate occasions involving group activities, both Anthony and Catherine wanted the assistant to ask for something for them because they claimed they would not be able to express themselves in French. In a similar instance, Curtis complained to his roommate "You are going to have to do all the talking to our French family." All of these statements clearly reflect participants' anxiety in situations that require communication in the target language to meet day-to-day needs.

Anxiety was also aroused in situations where a native speaker directly raised an issue and caused the participant to feel vulnerable or criticized. According to Carrie, "I told my French father than my professor said that I spoke well. He told me I wasn't close to being fluent." Consider the encounter Missie experienced with her French host when he entered her room and said "Missie, I need to talk to you. Your hair is long. You take long showers. Maybe you could turn the water off while you wash your hair." After leading her into the kitchen and pointing out the water heater, he continued, "It gets very

hot, and we are afraid you are going to burn the house down." In her post-program evaluation, Missie summarized her opinion of her hosts as "very accommodating and very friendly, but they will always tell you exactly what is on their minds." Helen mentioned a problem with trying to eat a late breakfast on weekends. She explained, "we tried one time to go eat breakfast at 12 o'clock on Saturday and they said 'no because we are going to eat lunch, sorry.' " Jane described what she called "one of the most embarrassing moments" when she did not know the French vocabulary for something cooked by her hostess. In response to Jane's confusion, her hostess inquired, "Don't you eat this in the United States? Don't you know your animals?"

These occurrences were not limited to the host family situation; students living together in the *pension de famille* also described being scolded for forgetting to turn off the bathroom light or for failing to eat everything on the dinner plate. Bill described the following incident involving eating barefoot at the table: "I was eating in here one time, and I didn't have my shoes on. [The hostess] was like 'We don't do that in France. You walk all over the house with your shoes off, then you put them on the couch, then you eat dinner with no shoes on.'" He also explained that his hostess was not angry with him, but she had rules that sometimes caught the students off guard. These types of situations seemed to aggravate the already-heightened anxiety experienced while communicating in the target language. Again, because these incidents do not resemble the communicative activities students typically "play out" in FL classrooms, they challenge SA participants on both linguistic and cultural levels.

Although these findings indicate that SA participants faced substantial obstacles in terms of anxiety when communicating with native speakers and trying to understand

how to behave in a foreign culture, the participants also provided encouraging

information on their most notable accomplishments during the experience. When asked to

identify the "biggest challenge I successfully overcame" during SA, all 25 participants

named an episode related to communicating in the target language. Table 1 displays the

categories of communication mentioned and the number of students who reported each

category.

Table 1

Biggest Challenges Participants Overcame during SA

Challenge	Number of Participants Reporting This Challenge
Carrying on conversations in French	6
Making plan or train reservations	5
Speaking and understanding French on telephone	4
Understanding native speakers with no repeating	3
Interacting with native speakers at bank, post Office, pharmacy, hair salon	3
Understanding host family members	2
Ordering food in restaurants	2

It is notable that these categories reflect "victories" that are largely linguistic and

involve obtaining goods and services, explaining wants and needs, and being able to

converse with native speakers. Tim related an episode he called "really difficult" when he

successfully discussed in French how to set up his laptop computer with a native speaker providing technology support. Jane called ordering food in restaurants "the thing that gave me the most confidence with speaking French in general," although initially she found it to be intimidating. Tiffany explained a common challenge for SA participants was attempting to carry on conversations with Parisians in French in restaurants and shops; she suggested that many times the Parisian simply began speaking in English when he or she determined you were English speaker. Tiffany recalled an evening when

> I had friends who visited from the Ireland program, and when they
>
> visited—obviously they don't speak French—the waiter kept talking
>
> to us in English. I said to my friends, "Don't talk to him. Let me talk
>
> to him." And we [the waiter and I] only conversed in French. By the
>
> end of the night, he was talking back to me only in French.

It appears that participants' biggest challenges were not scholastic (e.g., tests, grading) but linguistic and cultural. Language anxiety arose in situations when participants did not know how to communicate in the target language in an unfamiliar situation and when they felt vulnerable or criticized by a native speaker. Although all of the participants reported notable linguistic progress during the program, there was not widespread agreement in terms of enhanced understanding of cultural differences and how to negotiate challenging situations in the target language.

Integrative Motivation

A paired samples t-test was calculated to compare the mean pre-SA AMTB score to the mean post-SA AMTB score. The mean on the pretest was 294.17 (sd=28.46) and the mean on the posttest was 302.38 (sd=37.16). No significant decrease of integrative

motivation from pretest to posttest was found ($t(23)=-1.102$, p > .05). The effect size of .05 indicates an extremely small effect. The assumption of normality was violated in both pre-test and post-test scores as both distributions were keptokurtic. In addition to measuring integrative motivation, the AMTB also measured eight related, lower-order concepts. No significant mean differences occurred after SA in any of these attitudes; a detailed account of this finding is displayed in Table 2. The AMTB results of one of the 25 SA participants were not used in this analysis, because the student skipped numerous items on the posttest.

Table 2

Attitude/Motivation Test Battery Results

Scale	Pre-SA *M (SD)*	Post-SA *M (SD)*
Attitudes toward French people	33.58 (4.76)	33.42 (8.27)
Attitudes toward learning French	39.33 (4.36)	40.33 (5.98)
Desire to learn French	24.04 (2.35)	24.50 (2.62)
Evaluation of French course	54.42 (11.63)	57.42 (12.57)
Evaluation of French teacher	61.38 (8.14)	63.29 (8.15)
Interest in foreign languages	43.08 (3.96)	44.00 (4.20)
Integrative orientation	16.00 (1.90)	16.79 (2.06)
Motivational intensity	22.30 (3.67)	23.00 (4.00)
AMTB Total	294.17 (28.46)	302.38 (37.16)

Note. Maximum AMTB score=370.

Comparison of Integrative Motivation for SA and non-SA Participants

An independent *t*-test was calculated comparing the mean AMTB scores of SA

participants (n=24) to the mean AMTB scores of non-SA participants also studying

French at the same level (n=21) prior to the SA program. No significant difference was

found (t(43)= .495, p > .05). The mean integrative motivation level of the SA participants

prior to SA participation (*m*=294.17, *sd*=28.46) was not significantly different from the

mean of non-SA participants (*m*=290.19, *sd*=24.88). The assumption of normality was

met in AMTB Pre-Test scores for the non-SA group. The effect size of .01 indicates a

very small effect. Results of Levene's test indicate the assumption of equality of

variances was met (F=.05, p > .05).

Sources and Manifestations of Integrative Motivation during SA

Analysis of qualitative data gathered from the Demographic/Language Contact

Profile and during interviews with primary informants revealed a number of roles played

by integrative motivation during the SA program. First, students reported numerous

integrative reasons for participation in SA. Second, the most memorable aspects of the

SA program reported by participants (contact with new people and places) displayed

those integrative reasons. Third, students expressed a preference for and reported

spending more time in interactive contact with the target culture as opposed to passive

contact. Last, it was evident that although students reported their desire for contact with

target language members and their motivation to use the target language extensively, this

did not always occur.

SA participants' reported reasons for going on SA are displayed in descending

order of importance in Table 3. Of the 12 reasons, 7 reflect integrative reasons for

studying abroad, or reasons that involve a willingness to interact with and adopt features of behavior that characterize members of another linguistic community (Gardner, 1985, 2001). Three of the reasons reflect instrumental (utilitarian) reasons for studying abroad, and two of the reasons reflect neither integrative nor instrumental motivation.

Five of the top 6 reported reasons for participating in SA were integrative; in fact all 7 integrative reasons were classified as somewhat important to very important. In contrast, 2 of the 3 instrumental reasons for studying abroad were classified as not at all important to somewhat important. The 25 informants in this study valued travel, novel experiences, and gaining cultural understanding of members of the target culture more than academic or vocational goals according to these self-reports. This finding is consistent with the fact that the majority of the students in this study reported their academic major as social science, math, or science—not fields that have obvious links to French language and culture.

Table 3

Mean Scores of Reported Reasons for SA Participation

Reasons	*M*
Having new experiences*[a]	4.84
Meeting different kinds of people*	4.8
Having a chance to live abroad in another country*	4.64
Seeing France, the scenery*	4.6
Studying in France*/**[b]	4.28
Getting to know the French*	4.08
Finding out how people live*	3.8
Joining family members	2.84
Fleeing from my country	2.44
Getting training in my field**	2.28
Getting a degree**	2.16

Note. 1=Not at all important; 3=Somewhat important; 5=Very important.

[a] Integrative reasons are marked with *.

[b] Instrumental reasons are marked with **.

There is a clear relationship between reported motivations for SA participation recorded before the program's start and the participants' written descriptions at the program's end of their personal "best thing that happened during SA." These descriptions revealed two dominant categories of SA bests: relationship building and experiences with travel and culture. These two categories support earlier SA research which concluded that

students perceived personal interactions and travel as significant sources of out-of-class learning during SA (Laubscher, 1994). In addition, this study found a third and less frequently mentioned category--developing linguistic skills.

For Jane, the best part of the SA experience was her family situation. She explained, "The woman I live with had had nine formal dinner parties. I have had the occasion to meet all different French people." The 22-year old political science major relished an evening when "we ended up talking about politics and when they got the right to vote." Ellen also enjoyed time spent with her host mother, especially when it involved food. "Our mom took a lot of pride in all the food she cooked," Ellen recalled. "We asked her one time if she could teach us, and she went and got out all of these recipe books. She talked for like an hour!"

Ted, a 27-year old Comparative Literature major, reported his favorite SA experience was meeting French people at a local bar; he even met a French student who had studied with a well-known philosopher he admired. Ted recalled "the bartender is going to take me to this cool flea market on Sunday. He has been telling me about the cool places to go in Paris."

Other students' reported "bests" included meeting friends from France who challenged and broadened their views, visiting museums and experiencing French theater, debating European politics, and conversing with native speakers and new friends over meals. One interpretation of this information is for these informants, linguistic development was a means to an end: through communication and cultural experiences in the target language while abroad, they learned to build relationships and seek out opportunities for travel and personal enrichment.

This emphasis on relationship building and communication is also reflected in participants' reported preference for interacting to obtain information rather than gathering information from more passive sources such as magazines, the Internet, newspapers, radio, and books (see Table 4). In fact, sources of authentic input were not often used. On average, participants listened to French radio, CDs, or cassettes only 17 minutes per day. Almost half of the group reported that they never watched television in French, and those that did only did so an average of 23 minutes per day. Although the internet was not viewed as an important source of information about France, on a related item from the language contact profile, participants reported using the Internet extensively for correspondence with family and friends.

Table 4

Mean Scores of Reported Methods Used to Become Informed about France

Method	*M*
Talking to Americans	2.08
Talking to French	2.48
Magazines	3.2
Internet	3.52
Talking with non-French / non-American people	3.56
Newspapers	3.8
Radio	3.84

Note. 1=Extensively; 3=Occasionally; 5=Not at all.

With respect to personal interactive contacts, students valued communications with both L1 and FL speakers (see Table 5). While findings indicated that participants

showed a slight preference to valuing interaction with program faculty and fellow participants, they still found that talking to French people was very important. More specifically, the 20 informants who lived with at least one other student from the program reported spending an average of 7 hours and 30 minutes per day with the fellow participant whereas they spent only 2 hours and 20 minutes per day with a French speaker with whom they lived. The finding that students from France were not an important source of contact is supported by post-program evaluations that indicated disappointment on the part of one-fourth of the participants over not meeting French people of their age.

Table 5

Mean Scores of Importance of Personal Contact in Shaping SA Experience

Contact	*M*
Professors and Assistant	1.83
Other people from France	2.08
Other people from the Emory group	2.16
Other people from countries other than France	4.00
Students from France	4.24
Other	5.16

Note. 1=Very important; 3=Somewhat important; 5=Not at all important; 6=No contact.

In addition to indicating regret in terms of contact with French speakers of their own age, one third of the participants felt they personally should have made greater efforts to speak in the target language with peers in the SA group. Catherine lamented that while she and her roommate tried to speak exclusively in French in their host

family's apartment and on their own, "every time we got to school, it was impossible."

Vanessa explained if she could change something in order to get more out of the

experience, she would "make more of an effort to speak only in French." Bill also

admitted, "Because a lot of people in the pension speak English, it's easy to get away

with speaking English, although I could make more of an effort." Gary, who also lived at

the pension, claimed he had not "had many conversations with French people besides,

like, at a restaurant or if I'm buying a train ticket or something like that." In Gary's post-

program evaluation, he admitted he should have spoken more French and would have

liked to "try to hang out with more French kids." This type of linguistic hindsight was

also reported by Wilkinson who interpreted congregation with American peers and

communication in English as a "cultural refuge" from which adaptation to the culture can

take place (1998).

Previous research has demonstrated that during SA, approximately two-thirds of a

student's time is spent in activities not directly related to classroom study (Laubscher,

1994). To investigate how out-of-class time was utilized during SA for the present study,

participants furnished opinions of planned out-of-class activities and self-reports of how

frequently they took part in certain activities on their own. Planned out-of-class activities

included weekly group walks and excursions, four day-trips outside Paris, and outings to

ballets and operas. Opinions of these planned group activities were extremely favorable;

students called them "entertaining," "well planned," and "plentiful." A number of

participants explained that these activities provided a sense of security and organization

at the beginning of the trip. Tiffany called living in Paris for the first time "pretty

overwhelming and its easy to be confused at the beginning." Vanessa also commented

that she appreciated the activities organized in the early weeks when she did not know the city well. Self-reports of how students spent free time demonstrated the types of activities favored were largely group and communication oriented (see Table 6). The activity participants claimed to engage in most extensively was "Going to parties, being with friends." Other activities extensively pursued were going to museums and theater / cinema, traveling, and corresponding by e-mail or mail. Participants did not frequently engage in activities such as attending concerts, participating in or watching sports, and watching television. This information suggests that these students spent out-of-class time experiencing French culture in a touristic sense more often than making contact with native speakers of the target language in informal, unplanned contexts.

Table 6

Mean Scores of Reported Frequency of Participation in Out-of-Class Activities

Activity	*M*
Going to parties, being with friends	1.72
Visiting museums	2.04
Corresponding via e-mail or mail	2.12
Reading	2.4
Attending theater or cinema	2.84
Traveling	2.96
Attending concerts	3.52
Watching television	3.88
Participating in sports	4.32
Attending sports events	4.92
Working (employment)	5

Note. 1=Extensively; 3=Occasionally; 5=Not at all.

French Oral Skills

A paired samples t-test was calculated to compare the mean pre-SA French Oral Skills score to the mean post-SA French Oral Skills score. The mean on the pretest was 26.4 (sd=6.22) and the mean on the posttest was 35.24 (sd=4.76). A significant increase from pretest to posttest was found ($t(24)$= -9.156, p < .001). The effect size of .78 indicates a large effect size. The assumption of normality was met for both the Pre-Test and Post-Test. Table 7 displays mean pretest and posttest scores for both parts of the test, the picture narration and the role-play activity.

Table 7

French Oral Skills Test Results

Activity	Pre-SA *M (SD)*	Post-SA *M (SD)*
Picture Narration	13.44 (3.08)	17.24 (2.63)
Role Play	12.96 (3.80)	18.00 (2.74)
Total	26.40 (6.22)	35.24 (4.76)

Note. Maximum picture narration score=24; maximum role-play score=24.

The French Oral Skills Tests was scored by two judges (inter-rater reliability=.92) on the following four criteria: amount of communication, comprehensibility, fluency, and quality of communication. Each criterion was scored from one to six with six being the strongest score for both activities that comprised the test. Table 8 displays the mean scores for each criterion. Mean scores improved significantly for each criterion in both activities.

Table 8

French Oral Skills Test Results by Scoring Criteria

Criterion	Picture Narration M (SD)		Role Play M (SD)	
	Pre-SA	Post-SA	Pre-SA	Post-SA
Amount of Comm.	3.32 (.95)	4.48 (1.05)	3.68 (1.11)	4.88 (.67)
Comprehensibility	4.04 (.93)	5.12 (.60)	3.72 (1.14)	5.20 (.76)
Fluency	2.56 (.82)	3.56 (.82)	2.60 (.91)	3.92 (.86)
Quality of Comm.	3.52 (.82)	4.08 (.64)	2.96 (.93)	4.00 (.87)

Note. Maximum picture narration score=24; maximum role-play score=24.

To determine the magnitude of the effects of each criterion, estimates of effect size were calculated. These estimates suggest students improved most in Comprehensibility (η^2=.77) followed by Fluency (η^2=.76), Amount of Communication (η^2=.70), and Quality of Communication (η^2=.59). The effect sizes of Comprehensibility, Fluency, and Amount of Communication are large and fairly comparable; the effect size of Quality of Communication is medium.

Participants' Self-Reports of French Oral Abilities

Analysis of 14 questionnaire items that asked participants to check off specific speaking tasks they "can do easily" contributes to the finding that students reported considerable progress in relation to tasks such as talking about a favorite hobby or discussing one's position on a controversial issue. When comparing responses from before and after the SA program, all but one of the 25 participants reported gains in the ability to perform speaking tasks. Table 9 displays the 14 speaking tasks participants

were asked if they could perform easily prior to SA and after SA and the accompanying

responses.

Table 9

Results of French Oral Tasks Can-Do Scale

Oral Task	No. of Pre-SA Yes Responses	No. of Post-SA Yes Responses
Count to 10	24	25
Say day of week	23	25
Give full current date	23	24
Order simple meal in restaurant	20	24
Ask for directions on the street	20	23
Buy clothes in a department store	14	24
Introduce yourself in social situations and take leave	23	24
Give simple biographical information about yourself	21	24
Talk about your favorite hobby at length	11	18
Describe your current job or studies in detail	9	21
Tell what you plan to be doing in five years	7	17
Describe your country's educational system in some detail	7	15
State and support with examples a position on a Controversial topic	3	12
Describe your country's system of government	5	12

Note. These tasks are presented in descending order from simple to complicated.

As seen in this table, the number of participants who reported they "could do" the more complicated oral tasks more than doubled in many cases. It appears that the students not only made empirical gains in their oral French skills, they also felt more confident in their ability to perform specific oral tasks.

French Listening Skills

A paired samples *t*-test was calculated to compare the mean pre-SA French Listening Skills score to the mean post-SA French Listening Skills score. The mean on the pretest was 8.88 (*sd*=2.05) and the mean on the posttest was 11.28 (*sd*=1.43). A significant increase from pretest to posttest was found ($t(24)$= -6.000, p < .001). The effect size of .60 indicates a medium effect. The assumption of normality was met for both the Pre-Test and Post-Test.

Participants' Self-Reports of French Listening Abilities

Analysis of 11 questionnaire items that asked participants to check off specific comprehension tasks they "can do easily" contributes to the finding that in addition to reporting progress in relation to oral tasks, students also reported gains in relation to tasks such as understanding native speakers during face-to-face encounters or understanding radio news reports. When comparing responses from before and after the SA program, 21 of the 25 participants reported gains in the ability to perform at least one or more listening tasks. However, 3 participants reported there was one or more tasks they "could do easily" prior to SA, but after SA, they did not report they could do the task(s) easily. Two participants reported no changes in their ability to perform specific listening tasks after SA. Table 9 displays the 11 listening tasks participants were asked if they could perform easily prior to SA and after SA and the accompanying responses.

Table 9

Results of French Listening Tasks Can-Do Scale

Listening Task	No. of Pre-SA Yes Responses	No. of Post-SA Yes Responses
Understand very simple statements/questions in French	24	25
In face-to-face conversation, understand a native speaker (NS)		
Who is speaking slowly and carefully	21	24
On the telephone understand NS speaking slowly, tell		
Whether NS is referring to the past, present, or future	16	21
In face-to-face conversation with NS speaking slowly,		
Tell whether NS is referring to past, present, or future	19	23
In face-to-face conversation, understand NS speaking as		
Quickly and colloquially as he/she would to another NS	3	8
Understand movies without subtitles	4	10
Understand news broadcasts on the radio	1	8
Understand words to a popular song on radio the first		
Time you hear it	3	6
Understand play-by-play sports on the radio	1	4
Understand two NS talking rapidly to each other	3	4
On the telephone, understand NS talking as quickly and		
Colloquially as he/she would with another NS	2	3

Note. These tasks are presented in descending order from simple to complicated.

Unlike the gains made after SA in the more complicated oral tasks (see Table 8), participants did not report as many gains in complicated listening tasks such as understanding native speakers talking at a natural rate of speed or understanding sports or song lyrics on the radio. However, gains in one or more listening task(s) were reported by over three fourths of the group demonstrating a higher level of confidence in the ability to perform specific listening tasks in French.

Summary

The results of this investigation suggest that a number of statistically significant, positive effects were associated with participation in SA. First, significant decreases in classroom language anxiety, French use anxiety, and state anxiety associated with the skills tests occurred after SA. Second, significant increases in both oral French skills and listening French skills took place after SA. Third, qualitative data support this empirical evidence and indicate that students felt less anxious about the administration of the skills tests and had more confidence in their abilities to perform specific oral and listening tasks in the target language. Qualitative data also provided evidence of two sources of language anxiety experienced by the participants during SA, linguistic insecurity and cultural differences. Comparison of SA participants and non-SA peers in regard to language anxiety revealed no significant differences prior to SA.

Although the results regarding language anxiety are encouraging and indicate that SA participants reported less language anxiety in and out of the classroom after a semester overseas, no significant mean differences occurred after SA for integrative motivation or attitudes related to integrative motivation. Comparison of SA participants

and non-SA peers in regard to integrative motivation revealed no significant differences prior to SA.

Qualitative data provided evidence of students' motivations for SA participation (which were overwhelmingly integrative in nature) yet also point to the fact that students, although they expressed interest in meeting and spending time with French people, did not always do so during the program. Interactive contact was preferred over more passive contact, and many of the out-of-class activities frequently chosen by participants suggest that as a group, these students invested the majority of free time in experiencing French culture through visiting and attending monuments and performances and interacting with members of the SA group and those with whom they lived.

CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate linguistic and affective changes after participation in a 6-week SA program by university students. This study focused on two affective components, language anxiety and integrative motivation, and two linguistic components, oral and listening skills, and sought to answer the question "does SA make a difference?" The results presented in the preceding chapter allow an answer to the question posed in the title of this investigation. For the 25 SA participants in this study, the answer is yes and no. After participation in SA, these students were more at ease (less anxious) in speaking French both in and out of the classroom, and they made significant improvements in both oral and listening French skills. However, their integrative motivation and attitudes toward learning French and French people were unchanged as a group.

In this chapter, I will discuss how SA participation influenced affective and linguistic outcomes, I will situate these findings in relation to previous research, and I will offer implications of how future SA research might build on the present study and how SA programs might benefit from this investigation.

Discussion

Affective Outcomes after SA Participation

Language anxiety. There were three important findings regarding affective outcomes after SA. The first finding was that language anxiety in and out of the classroom and in relation to the French skills tests decreased significantly after SA. Pre-SA measurement of classroom-related language anxiety provided evidence that the 25 SA participants did not differ significantly from a group of 21 non-SA peers. In addition, the

pre-SA mean FLCAS score for the SA participants (m=91.08, sd=19.61) was quite similar to those obtained by Horwitz et al. (m=96.7, sd=22.1) and Aida (m=94.5, sd=21.4) in studies of Spanish and Japanese language learners enrolled in language courses (1986, 1994). These comparisons suggest that the 25 SA participants in this study had levels of anxiety related to communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation in the classroom that were quite similar to other students enrolled in French language classes as well as other foreign language classes.

An examination of SA participants' pre-program versus post-program FLCAS responses revealed that participants improved in regard to communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation but not in regard to test anxiety. For example, for an item related to communication apprehension that read, "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class," 36% of students agreed with the statement; after SA, only 8% of students agreed with the statement. For an item related to fear of negative evaluation that read, "It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class," 24% of students agreed with the statement prior to SA; after SA, just 4% agreed with the statement. Test anxiety did not appear to change after SA. For example, for an item that read, "I am usually at ease during tests in my language class," 52% of students disagreed with the statement prior to SA whereas 56% disagreed with the statement after SA. It is important to note that worry over written or oral tests was not a chief concern for the participants; in fact, several noted in post-program evaluations that coursework was not too difficult or time-consuming.

Responses to two FLCAS items regarding communication apprehension and native speakers provide an intriguing exception to SA participants' improvements in their

discomfort when speaking in the target language and understanding language input. For an item that read, "I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers," 68% of students agreed with the statement prior to SA; however, after SA only 40% of students agreed with the statement. Similarly, in an item that read, "I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language," 32% of students disagreed with the statement before SA; however, after SA 60% of students disagreed with the statement. These items suggest that SA participants felt more uncomfortable about interacting with native speakers of French after SA in some situations.

However, on a FUAS item (related to anxiety in speaking and understanding French outside the classroom) that read, "I would feel comfortable speaking French at an informal gathering where both English and French speaking persons were present," 76% of students agreed with the statement before SA and 96% agreed with the statement after SA. Other FUAS items demonstrated that students did feel more at ease interacting in stores, on the telephone, and when asking directions on the street after SA. These types of situations involved native speakers, but these types of conversations are normally short and controlled. Qualitative data concerning participants' perceptions of the "biggest challenge you overcame during SA" confirmed the finding that negotiating needs in the target language in public, out-of-class situations was quite difficult for most students at the beginning of the program but became more manageable by the program's end. Students made significant decreases in French use anxiety from Day 13 to Day 41 but not between Day 2 and Day 13. This suggests that the first 13 days may have been a period

of adjustment to communicating and living in the target culture when anxiety about speaking French outside the classroom remained stable.

Although the FLCAS and FUAS were helpful in determining that significant mean decreases occurred in classroom and non-classroom language anxiety after SA and communication apprehension during interactions with native speakers was an important source of language anxiety, these measurements alone could not explain how students experienced language anxiety during SA and how this experience differed from the language anxiety experienced in the classroom prior to SA.

Anecdotal accounts of language anxiety shared during interviews and recorded in the researcher notebook portray the language anxiety experienced abroad as distinct from that experienced while learning the target language in the home country. The major component of language anxiety, the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when using the target language, and the primary source of language anxiety, fear of speaking in the target language, were evidenced during SA much as they have been described in previous literature (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre, 1999; Price, 1991). The context of SA, however, is very different than that of the classroom where "the artificiality of the typical language class may offer ... one form of protection ... Because the communications in the second language are seldom true personal communications" (Gardner, p. 168, 1985). Language anxiety during SA appeared to differ from classroom language anxiety in two ways.

First, anxiety related to the reactions of peers and teachers appeared to be mitigated: Every experience of language anxiety related by participants involved native speakers and communication apprehension; many experiences also involved fear of

negative evaluation. Recall Bill's experience in the Laundromat and Carrie's experience in the drugstore: an immature command of the target language led the participants to abort efforts to communicate and thus fail to accomplish practical tasks that would have been commonplace in their own culture. Accounts such as those told by Missie, who was approached by her host father for her long showers, and Helen, who was not allowed to eat breakfast during the host family's lunch hour, illustrate the frustration experienced when a non-native speaker and native speaker are interacting and the non-native speaker cannot convey the message with the words and feeling they might use in their own language.

These situations bring to mind Horwitz et al.'s dichotomy of the "true" versus "limited" self wherein a learner's self-perception of genuineness in presenting himself or herself to others may be threatened by the limited expression communicated in the target language (1986). Although the "limited" self in the classroom might involve a student giving incorrect responses, speaking with a noticeable accent, or feeling vulnerable in front of a teacher or peers, the "limited" self during SA faces different challenges. Limitations that cause language anxiety during SA involve evaluations made by native speakers or host family members who only know the participant as a speaker of their own language; these target language members do not have the same point of view as language teachers who often interact with students outside of class in the first language.

The second way that language anxiety during SA differed from classroom language anxiety is that linguistic insecurities were often exaggerated by cultural differences during SA. In the foreign language classroom, students and teachers often share a cultural background as people living in the same culture who are often speakers

of the same native language. The lack of a shared culture during SA between non-native participants and native speakers often left participants at a loss for how to respond verbally in situations where they were questioned, whether it was because they went barefoot at dinner or whether they lacked the vocabulary to describe an animal common in the target culture. The types of persistent questions that Levy (2000) described as recurrent during SA such as "What exactly are the rules of behavior and interpersonal relationships? Did I really understand that conversation? What is expected of me in this situation" were confirmed by the findings of this study as important in the daily lives of SA participants.

Findings regarding language anxiety during SA support previous investigations regarding the value of immersion experiences in decreasing learner anxiety with second languages (Clément, 1979; Gardner et al., 1977; Shapson et al., 1981). Analysis of qualitative data support Wilkinson's findings that studying abroad and living with host families can produce negative experiences and cause cultural misunderstandings (1998, 2000). Yet whereas Wilkinson questioned the host family situation as the "most beneficial living arrangement for all study-abroad participants," this study draws different interpretations (p. 39, 2000). When asked to evaluate the host family experience, 18 of 20 participants in the present study interpreted this contact as a direct linguistic or cultural advantage, and 9 participants felt that speaking with host family members was a significant factor in improving their spoken French. Despite the fact that a number of these same participants called the arrangement "frustrating," "awkward," and "intimidating" at times, their overall impression was positive. Although host family members were involved in anxiety-provoking interactions with participants in this study,

the findings of this study support a view of language anxiety during SA as situational and based in linguistic insecurity and cultural differences.

Integrative motivation. The second important finding regarding affective outcomes after SA was that neither integrative motivation nor related attitudes increased significantly for the SA participants as a group after the semester in Paris. Although SA administrators and foreign language teachers may intuitively feel that many "appropriate attitudes and motivations for greater second language gain may come about naturally in the study-abroad situation just from increased contact with the second-language culture," the findings of this study do not support those notions (Yager, 1998, p. 909).

Analysis of pre-SA versus post-SA measurements of integrative motivation and related attitudes revealed that all standard deviations increased after SA (AMTB Total Pre-SA M=294.17, SD=28.46; AMTB Total Post-SA M=302.38, SD=37.16). This suggests participants had more uniform attitudes about the target culture and learning French prior to SA, and the SA experience produced greater variability in AMTB scores. The greatest variability in AMTB scores after SA existed in Attitudes toward French People (Pre-SA M=33.58, SD=4.76; Post-SA M=33.42, SD=8.27). This variability may have come about from differing experiences in lodging with host families or in the *pension de famille*. Interviews with participants revealed some students developed close ties with host family members during SA while other students were less satisfied with their hosts. The four students who lived in the *pension de famille* were satisfied with their hostess, who Bill explained had "a great attitude and personality," but tended to see this lodging choice as a disadvantage in the amount of French they spoke; in addition, none of

these students mentioned establishing relationships with their hostess or other students living in the pension.

Although AMTB scores displayed that neither integrative motivation nor attitudes related to the target culture or study of French changed after SA, the test battery did not help explain why integrative motivation remained unchanged for the SA group overall after SA; qualitative data provided possible answers to this question. Whereas in pre-SA Demographic/Language Contact Profile responses participants called "Getting to know the French" an important motivation for SA participation, they did not invest great amounts of out-of-class time in establishing contacts with target culture members. In addition, after SA one-fourth of the participants indicated disappointment over not meeting French people their own age during the semester in Paris. Recall that the 21 students who lived with at least one other student from the program reported spending 7 hours and 30 minutes with the fellow participant daily and just 2 hours and 20 minutes with a French speaker with whom they lived.

It is notable that two students who expressed high degrees of satisfaction with their contacts with French people, Jane and Ted, lived with host families yet did not have a fellow SA participant living with them. These students may have integrated into the target culture more fully, because they spent less time with members of the SA group. Self-reports of how participants spent their out-of-class time and who and what were valued as contacts with the target culture demonstrated that interactive contact with Americans and French people was favored over non-interactive contact with the target culture by reading newspapers, watching television, and listening to the radio.

These findings suggest that although integrative motivation levels for the SA group were quite strong before SA (pre-SA M=294.17, theoretical range=74-370) and after SA (post-SA M=302.38) and participants expressed motivation to integrate into the target culture, these motivations did not always result in active integration on the part of students. It may be the case that a 6-week SA program is not a sufficient amount of time for students to feel comfortable enough in the target culture speaking the target language to explore and feel part of the community. The results of this study do not support previous research regarding the value of immersion programs for improving attitudes toward members of the target language community (Clément, 1979; Shapson et al., 1981). The results of this study are consistent with Gardner et al.'s (1979) study of an intensive summer immersion program that concluded although participants' French classroom anxiety decreased after the program, neither attitudes toward French-Canadians nor integrative orientation to learn French was improved.

Level of study and affective outcomes. The third important and surprising finding regarding affective outcomes after SA was that level of study was related to both language anxiety after SA and integrative motivation after SA. Students who had two years of college-level French or less prior to SA (n=12) made smaller decreases in classroom language anxiety (pre-SA M=95.83, post-SA M=89.00) than students who had more than two years of college-level French prior to SA (pre-SA M=86.69, post-SA M=67.00). Likewise, students who had two years of college-level French or less prior to SA had lower integrative motivation after SA than before SA (pre-SA M=295.27, post-SA M=291.64) whereas their peers with more than two years of college-level French prior to SA had significantly higher integrative motivation after SA than before the

program (pre-SA *M*=298.56, post-SA *M*=306.33). This outcome may have resulted from the greater exposure to the target culture prior to SA by the more experienced group. At the participants' home university, first and second year classes focus on language proficiency whereas post-second year classes involve cultural and literary studies. The more experienced students may have had greater linguistic and cultural knowledge that made them more at ease with the target language and more likely to interact with target culture members.

Linguistic Outcomes after SA Participation

Oral and listening skills. There were two important findings regarding linguistic outcomes after SA. The first finding was that SA participants made significant improvements in both oral and listening French skills after SA. In regard to oral French skills, significant improvements occurred in each of the four areas measured: amount of communication, comprehensibility, fluency, and quality of communication. The most improved quality of oral French was comprehensibility or the ability to make oneself understood and to convey meaning. The least improved quality of their oral French was quality of communication or the grammatical correctness of one's speech (Linder, 1977). Comprehensibility is an important quality for learners because it represents the ability to respond appropriately to target language input. It is consistent with theoretical support for SA as "a prolonged opportunity for an ideal mix of focus on form and focus on meaning ... a natural communicative context" that comprehensibility would be the most improved quality of oral French (DeKeyser, 1991, pp. 116-117).

Participants' self-evaluations of specific oral and listening tasks they could perform easily were collected before and after SA and demonstrated that students' self-

confidence with French was enhanced after SA. According to student responses, complicated oral tasks were mastered more than complicated listening tasks involving native speakers; this finding is consistent with other affective findings regarding interactions with native speakers as a potential source of language anxiety and regarding students' regret over not spending more time with native speakers of their own age during SA.

An observation of interest concerning self-reports of French listening tasks was that one-fifth of the students reported they could perform easily one or more listening task before SA, but after SA they reported they could not easily perform the task. Why would this be the case for students who made significant gains in French listening skills? In fact, this finding is consistent with Carlson et al.'s (1990) results of self-appraisal scales for speaking, listening, reading, and writing in a target language for SA participants before and after SA. Carlson et al. explained a probable reason for inflated pre-SA self-appraisals was "students ... have not had the types of foreign language and cultural experiences that would allow them to place their own language proficiency in the context of living and studying in a foreign culture" (p. 50, 1990). The SA experience may have changed students' perceptions of their language proficiency and raised students' awareness of how challenging interactions with native speakers can be.

Level of study and linguistic outcomes. The second important finding regarding linguistic outcomes after SA was that students with two years of college French study or less made greater linguistic gains than students with more than two years of college French study although both groups made significant gains in both oral French skills and listening French skills. For oral French skills, the less experienced group (n=12) had a

mean pre-SA score of 23.08 and a mean post-SA score of 33.17; the more experienced group (n=13) had a mean pre-SA score of 29.46 and a mean post-SA score of 37.15 (theoretical range 8-48). Although the more experienced students reached a higher level of oral proficiency after SA, the less experienced students made greater gains. This finding is consistent with previous research that claimed changes in oral proficiency after SA for more advanced students are difficult to capture (Freed, 1995b). For listening French skills, the less experienced group had a mean pre-SA score of 8.08 and a mean post-SA score of 11.00; the more experienced group had a mean pre-SA score of 9.62 and a mean post-SA score of 11.54 (theoretical range 0-14). Again, the more experienced group reached a higher level of listening proficiency after SA, but the less experienced group made greater gains.

Findings in this investigation regarding the value of SA as a means of developing linguistic proficiency in a foreign language, especially for less advanced participants, support previous research (Carlson et al., 1990; Freed, 1995b). In addition, findings regarding students' self-appraisals of their ability to perform specific oral and listening tasks in French support previous research that demonstrated students who study abroad are more confident in their language skills after the experience (Davie, 1996; Kitao, 1993).

Implications

Implications for Future Research

The present study provided possible answers to a number of theoretical questions posed by Freed (1995a) in her review of SA research. First, this investigation provided information on the "actual linguistic benefits of time spent in a study abroad program" (p.

17). The benefits experienced by participants in this study included significant gains and increased confidence in oral and listening French skills. Second, this investigation provided an initial response to the question "Are there systematic and significant differences between students who go abroad and those who remain at home?" (Freed, 1995a, p. 18). Although this investigation was able to demonstrate that no significant pre-SA differences existed in affective factors, the design precluded a response to whether post-Sa differences existed in affective factors in comparison to non-SA peers or whether pre-SA or post-SA differences existed in French oral or listening skills. Last, this study provided a possible answer to the question "When is the best time in a student's language learning career to participate in a study abroad program?" (Freed, 1995a, p. 17). The results of this study suggest that both less advanced and more advanced language learners profit from the SA experience in terms of linguistic development (maybe add), but more experienced learners may profit more than less experienced learners in affective outcomes such as language anxiety and integrative motivation after SA.

This study provided an initial response to the question of whether students' language anxiety and integrative motivation are changed after SA, a question that has not yet been investigated, to the researcher's knowledge, in the U.S. context. The results demonstrate that language anxiety decreased both in and out of the classroom after SA, and integrative motivation did not increase for the 25 SA participants as a group but did increase for the more advanced students after SA. This conclusion regarding affective outcomes after SA supports Gardner's hypothesis that "where attention is directed to building competence and confidence in language use, anxiety is reduced. Where,

however, the focus is on social-emotional relations with the other community, attitudes toward that group improve" (p. 101, 1985).

There are a number of questions that future research might address to build on the findings of this study: 1) Are linguistic and affective outcomes maintained after SA? 2) Are there relations between linguistic and affective outcomes after SA? and 3) Are there significant differences between linguistic and affective outcomes for SA participants versus non-SA participants studying the target language at the home institution? Although the present study contributes to our understanding of the SA phenomena, it represents one program during one six-week semester. Future research should seek to build on this study and expand it to include other foreign languages and other types of programs. The limitations of the present study included lack of a full control group and non-random assignment of participants. Future research should incorporate a full control group to allow the opportunity to draw causal inferences. I urge future researchers to incorporate qualitative data collection into any investigation of SA experiences to represent the participants' point of view through interviews and observations during SA.

Implications for SA Programs

SA provides a unique opportunity for exploration of and integration with members of the target culture, but SA participants are not always prepared or motivated to do so. Do SA programs prepare students to interact with members of the target culture? One half of the respondents to the post-program evaluation in this study indicated a need for more pre-program orientation. The researcher acknowledges that program directors and participants deem the most immediate goals of a SA experience to be linguistic or academic. Therefore, much time is spent organizing classroom learning, excursions, and

lodging. Final evaluations supported the importance of this work in the program's success. However, evaluations also indicated participants' desire for more cultural and pragmatic preparation prior to SA. How can busy administrators and instructors accommodate this need? Below are some suggestions.

1) Exploit internet resources and campus servers. These tools can provide current cultural information and can create an on-line community where participants introduce themselves and "discuss" plans and anxieties regarding the upcoming trip. Former participants and program assistants can contribute to the resources and discussions.

2) Establish a list of texts to incorporate into orientation discussions or to be read individually by participants. For example, the list for a French program could include: Carroll's *Cultural Misunderstandings: The French American Experience* (1988); Rochefort's *French Toast* (1999); Schehr and Weiss' *French Food: On the Table, on the Page and in French Culture* (2001); or Steele's *The French Way: Aspects of Behavior, Attitudes and Customs of the French* (1995).

3) Engage students with the target culture through orientation activities that emphasize potential linguistic or cultural conflicts. These activities might include discussions of real-life encounters in the target culture shared by past participants on paper or in person, role-play activities that focus on typical situations participants encounter during SA on the street or in a host family, or a format that asks participants to explain in the target language what they know about their own culture or the target culture.

4) During SA, advise students to pursue social pursuits they enjoy at home by taking part in sports, religious activities, music, or other hobbies with target language

members. Although this type of interaction is challenging for participants in short programs, it can be an avenue for meeting people who enjoy similar pursuits as well as a means of practicing the L2 in a natural environment. The advantages of this type of contact was explained by Gardner who maintained "the most pronounced attitudinal and motivational changes seem to emerge ... particularly among those students who dive right in and try to maximize their contacts with members of the other community instead of acting like passive sightseers" (p. 106, 1985). Participants' everyday contacts with the target culture can be maximized by shopping at the same stores or market stalls to increase conversational opportunities (Yager, 1998).

5) Integrate authentic materials (newspapers, weekly city bulletins, magazines) into classroom learning. These materials can be used at all levels of language learning if care is used in the choice of materials and corresponding classroom activities. Students should be encouraged not only to describe but also to analyze the culture as advanced by recent standards for foreign language learning.

6) Assign projects that necessitate cultural contact (e.g. interview a host family member, reflect upon observed cultural differences, write and share a movie review with classmates). Hands-on, "real world" activities are not normally feasible for FL students in the United States, and the SA experience provides an excellent opportunity for learning beyond the traditional classroom. Foster small group walks by participants with follow-up in-class presentations and recommendations of "must visits."

7) Suggest that host families communicate their expectations of participants living in their homes in writing if possible. Students can then seek help from program administrators on understanding and complying with the "rules." Having clear

expectations from his hostess was helpful, explained Matt, a participant in our study: "She had instructions written inside the closet--a full page of instructions. Like the second thing she said to us when we arrived was 'Make sure you read the instructions and follow them.' It was just general notes on doing laundry and stuff like that." This point is also consistent with Carroll's description of the host/guest relationship in France: "In French culture, the person who enters my house is responsible for knowing the rules, for remaining within the spatial limits that our relationship authorizes" (p. 20, 19). Because many SA participants may have never lived in a host family situation, the need for good communication between hosts and participants is imperative for an enjoyable and productive stay. The results of this study suggest that SA administrators should consider placing students individually in host families rather than with fellow students to increase opportunities for target language use and interactions with members of the target culture.

The SA experience provides students an opportunity to deepen their cultural and linguistic understanding of the target language and culture and to take part in a community whose customs are not their own. By nature, this experience should be both enlightening and challenging. Carroll highlighted the complex position of foreign language learners such as SA participants when she suggested: "it is easier (not impossible) to speak a foreign language perfectly, without an accent, than it is to 'speak' another culture 'without an accent'" (p. 39, 1988). By investigating the opinions and experiences of SA participants and examining how affective and linguistic outcomes were changed after SA, it is hoped that this research will help maximize the benefits and minimize the difficulties of SA.

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APPENDIX A
BACKGROUND OF PARTICIPANTS

Name	Age	Major	Previous French Study
Ellen*[a]	19 years	Psychology	2 years
Catherine	20 years	Art History, Business	2 years
Gary*	20 years	Undecided	3 years
Jane*	21 years	Political Science	2 years
Vanessa	19	Biology, Chemistry	2 years
Hannah	18	Economics, Math	3 years
John	20	Political Science	3 years
Michelle	19	Biology	3 years
Bill*	20	Chemistry	3 years
Curtis	20	Political Science	1 year
Missy	18	Psychology, Neurobiology	3 years
Tim	19	Chemistry, Political Science	2 years
Lisa	21	Sociology	3 years
Sarah	21	Neuroscience, Behavioral Biology	3 years
Amy*	23	Biology, French	2 years
Dana	20	English	3 years
Tiffany*	20	Psychology	3 years
Michelle	20	International Studies, French	3 years
Laurie	20	International Studies, English	3 years
Carrie	19	Business	2 years
Ted	27	Comparative Literature, Philosophy	2 years
Lera	19	Chemistry	3 years
Matt*	20	Business	2 years
Beth*	20	English, Spanish	1 year
Anthony	20	Religion	2 years

Note. Previous language study is calculated in years of college-level study or its equivalent.

[a] Primary informants' names are marked with an asterisk.

APPENDIX B
FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE

Identification Number_____

Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. Please consider your experience in your current French course (or in your last French course if you are not currently enrolled in one) when responding. There are no right or wrong answers since many people have different opinions. We would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by circling the alternative below it which best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with that statement. All that is important is that you indicate your personal feeling. Please give your immediate reactions to each of the following items.

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my French class.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

2. I don't worry about making mistakes in French class.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in French class.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in French.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more French classes.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

6. During French class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

7.   I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

8.   I am usually at ease during tests in my French class.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

9.   I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in French class.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

10.   I worry about the consequences of failing my French class.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

11.   I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language class.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

12.   In French class, I get so nervous I forget things I know.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

13.   It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my French class.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

14.   I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

15.   I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.

| strongly disagree | disagree | no opinion | agree | strongly agree |

16. Even if I am well prepared for French class, I feel anxious about it.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

17. I often feel like not going to my French class.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

18. I feel confident when I speak in French class.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in French class.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

21. The more I study for a French test, the more confident I get.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for French class.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

23. I always feel that the other students speak French better than I do.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking French in front of other students.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

25. French class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my French class than in my other classes.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my French class.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

28. When I'm on my way to French class, I feel very sure and relaxed.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teachers says.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions that I haven't prepared in advance.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

APPENDIX C
FRENCH USE ANXIETY SCALE

Identification Number_____

Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. There are no right or wrong answers since many people have different opinions. Indicate your opinion about each statement by circling the alternative below it which best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with that statement.

1. I would get nervous if I had to speak French to someone in a store.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

2. When called upon to use my French, I feel very much at ease.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

3. Speaking French bothers me.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

4. I would feel calm and sure of myself if I had to order a meal in French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

5. It would bother me if I had to speak French on the telephone.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

6. I would feel quite relaxed if I had to ask street directions in French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

7. I would feel uncomfortable speaking French under any circumstances.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

8. I would feel comfortable speaking French in an informal gathering where both English and French speaking persons were present.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

9. I feel anxious if someone asks me something in French.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

10. It doesn't bother me at all to speak French.

    strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
    disagree   agree

APPENDIX D
STATE ANXIETY QUESTIONNAIRE

Identification Number_____

Please describe in a few words how you felt during the interview:

_____

_____

On a scale of 1 to 10 with 1 being "not at all anxious," 5 being "somewhat anxious," and 10 being "extremely anxious," please circle the number that corresponds with how you felt during the:

Oral Interview   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Listening Interview   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

APPENDIX E
ATTITUDES/MOTIVATION TEST BATTERY

Identification Number_____

Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. There are no right or wrong answers since many people have different opinions. We would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by circling the alternative below it which best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with that statement. All that is important is that you indicate your personal feeling. Please give your immediate reactions to each of the following items.

1.   If I were visiting a foreign country I would like to be able to speak the language of the people.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

2.   I think that learning French is dull.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

3.   The French are cheerful, agreeable, and good humored.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

4.   I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not required.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

5.   Studying French can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate art and literature.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

6.   Learning French is a waste of time.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

7.   The French are considerate of the feelings of others.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

8.   I love learning French.

     strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
     disagree   agree

9.   I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language.

     strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
     disagree   agree

10.   I would like to get to know the French people better.

     strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
     disagree   agree

11.   Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience.

     strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
     disagree   agree

12.   I have always admired the French people.

     strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
     disagree   agree

13.   Even through the United States is relatively far from countries speaking other languages, it is important for Americans to learn foreign languages.

     strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
     disagree   agree

14.   Studying French can be important for me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.

     strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
     disagree   agree

15.   When I finish school, I will completely give up the study of French because I am not interested in it.

     strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
     disagree   agree

16. I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

17. The French are trustworthy and dependable.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

18. Learning French is really great.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

19. I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

20. Studying French can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

21. I really enjoy learning French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

22. I have a favorable attitude toward the French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

23. Studying French can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with others who speak French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

24.   I would rather spend my time on subjects other than French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

25.   The more I learn about the French, the more I like them.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

26.   I wish I could speak another language perfectly.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

27.   For the most part, the French are sincere and honest.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

28.   I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

29.   The French are a very kind and generous people.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

30.   I hate French.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

31.   If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the
language even though I could get along in English.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

32.   The French are very friendly and hospitable.

strongly   disagree   no opinion   agree   strongly
disagree   agree

33.	I plan to learn as much French as possible.

strongly		disagree		no opinion		agree		strongly
disagree									agree

34.	French is an important part of the university curriculum.

strongly		disagree		no opinion		agree		strongly
disagree									agree

Following are a number of statements on which people have differing opinions. There are no right or wrong answers since many people have different opinions. We would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by circling the letter of the alternative below it which reflects your point of view. All that is important is that you indicate your personal feeling. Please give your immediate reactions to each of the following items.

35.	I actively think about what I have learned in my French class:

a)	very frequently.
b)	hardly every.
c)	once in a while.

36.	If French were not offered at Emory, I would:

a)	pick up French in everyday situations (i.e. read French books and newspapers, try to speak it whenever possible, etc.)
b)	not bother learning French at all.
c)	try to take French lessons / courses somewhere else.

37.	When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in French class, I:

a)	immediately ask the teacher for help.
b)	only seek help just before the exam.
c)	just forget about it.

38.	When it comes to French homework, I:

a)	put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.
b)	work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.
c)	just skim over it.

39. Considering how I study French, I can honestly say that I:

   a) do just enough work to get along.
   b) will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work.
   c) really try to learn French.

40. If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra French assignment, I would:

   a) definitely not volunteer.
   b) definitely volunteer.
   c) only do it if the teachers asked me directly.

41. After I get my French assignments back, I:

   a) always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes.
   b) just put them away and forget them.
   c) look them over, but don't bother correcting mistakes.

42. When I am in French class, I:

   a) volunteer answers as much as possible.
   b) answer only the easier questions.
   c) never say anything.

43. If there were a local French TV station, I would:

   a) never watch it.
   b) turn it on occasionally.
   c) try to watch it often.

44. When I hear a French song on the radio, I:

   a) listen to the music, paying attention only to the easy words.
   b) listen carefully and try to understand all the words.
   c) change the station.

45. During French class, I would like:

   a) to have a combination of French and English spoken.
   b) to have as much English as possible spoken.
   c) to have only French spoken.

46. If I had the opportunity to speak French outside of school, I would:

   a) never speak it.
   b) speak French most of the time, using English only if really necessary.
   c) speak it occasionally, using English whenever possible.

47. Compared to my other courses, I like French:

   a) the most.
   b) the same as all the others.
   c) least of all.

48. If there were a French club in my school, I would:

   a) attend meetings once in a while.
   b) be most interested in joining.
   c) definitely not join.

49. If it were up to me whether or not to take French, I:

   a) would definitely take it.
   b) would drop it.
   c) don't know whether I would take it or not.

50. I find studying French:

   a) not interesting at all.
   b) no more interesting than most subjects.
   c) very interesting.

51. If the opportunity arose and I know enough French, I would watch French TV programs:

   a) sometimes.
   b) as often as possible.
   c) never.

52. If I had the opportunity to see a French play, I would:

   a) go only if I had nothing else to do.
   b) definitely go.
   c) not go.

53.   If there were French-speaking families in my neighborhood, I would:

    a)   never speak French with them.
    b)   speak French with them sometimes.
    c)   speak French with them as much as possible.

54.   If I had the opportunity and knew enough French, I would read French magazines and newspapers:

    a)   as often as I could.
    b)   never.
    c)   not very often.

Please turn the page.

The purpose of this section of the questionnaire is to determine your ideas and impressions about your French course and your French teacher. We call these things concepts. In answering this section, you will be asked to rate these concepts on a number of scales. On the following pages, there is a concept given at the top of the page, and below that a group of scales. You are to rate each concept on each of the scales in order. If the word at either end of the scale very strongly describes your ideas and impressions about the concept at the top of the page, you would place your X as shown below:

friendly   __X__: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____ unfriendly

<div align="center">Or</div>

friendly   ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: __X__ unfriendly

If the word at either end of the scale describes somewhat your ideas and impressions about the concept (but not strongly so), you would place your X as follows:

friendly   ____: __X__: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____ unfriendly

<div align="center">Or</div>

friendly   ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: __X__: ____ unfriendly

If the word at either end of the scale only slightly describes your ideas and impressions about the concept, you would place your X as follows:

friendly   ____: ____: _X__: ____: ____: ____: ____ unfriendly

<div align="center">Or</div>

friendly   ____: ____: ____: ____: __X__: ____: ____ unfriendly

If the word at either end of the scale doesn't seem to be at all related to your ideas and impressions about the concept, you would place your X as follows:

friendly   ____: ____: ____: __X__: ____: ____: ____ unfriendly

There are no right or wrong answers. We want you to indicate your own ideas and impressions. In answering this part of the questionnaire, work quickly and don't stop to think about each scale. It is your immediate impressions in which we are interested.

Please turn the page.

My French Teacher

efficient	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	inefficient
insensitive	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	sensitive
cheerful	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	cheerless
competent	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	incompetent
insincere	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	sincere
unapproachable	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	approachable
pleasant	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	unpleasant
trusting	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	suspicious
incapable	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	capable
tedious	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	fascinating
friendly	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	unfriendly
exciting	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	dull
organized	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	disorganized
unreliable	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	reliable
unimaginative	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	imaginative
impatient	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	patient
polite	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	impolite
colorful	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	colorless
unintelligent	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	intelligent
good	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	bad
industrious	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	unindustrious
boring	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	interesting

dependable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ undependable

disinterested ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ interested

inconsiderate ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ considerate

My French Course

meaningful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ meaningless

enjoyable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ unenjoyable

monotonous ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ absorbing

effortless ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ hard

awful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ nice

interesting ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ boring

good ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ bad

simple ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ complicated

disagreeable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ agreeable

fascinating ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ tedious

worthless ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ valuable

necessary ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ unnecessary

appealing ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ unappealing

useless ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ useful

elementary ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ complex

pleasurable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ painful

educational ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ noneducational

unrewarding ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ rewarding

difficult   ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ easy

satisfying   ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ unsatisfying

unimportant ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ important

pleasant   ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ unpleasant

exciting   ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ dull

clear   ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ confusing

colorful   ___:___:___:___:___:___:___ colorless

APPENDIX F
DEMOGRAPHIC/LANGUAGE CONTACT PROFILE (PRE-STUDY ABROAD)

Following are a number of questions about you and your experience with learning French. We would like you to indicate your response to each item either by filling in the blank provided or by circling the alternative below or beside it which best fits your response to the question.

1. Identification Number: _____

2. Date of Birth (Month/Day/Year): _____/_____/_____

3. Nationality: _____

4. Gender (circle one): Male   Female

5. Year in College: Freshman   Sophomore   Junior

   Senior   Graduate School

6. Major field(s) of study: _____

7. What is your overall grade point average on a scale of 0.0 – 4.0?

   _____

8. Please indicate which of these items are reasons why you are taking French by circling each item (you may choose to mark either none or more than one):

   I like the French language.

   ⁄I like the people and the culture.

   I plan to go to France or a French-speaking area.

   It is required for my major.

   I have family or (a) close friend(s) who speak French.

   French is part of my ethnic heritage.

   I had already taken some French.

   I wanted to learn a different language from in high school.

   It was the only language class open.

   Speaking French will be an advantage when job-hunting.

9. Please indicate your plans to continue studying French after the foreign study trip this summer by circling your response (**mark only one**):

I will continue French after this summer's study abroad program.

I might continue French after this summer's study abroad program.

I will not continue French after this summer's study abroad program.

I will graduate before I can take any more French classes.

10. Please indicate on the five-point scale provided how important these reasons are for you going to Paris on the study abroad program. Circling the number 1 reflects the response "not at all important,"circling the number 3 reflects the response "no opinion," and circling the number 5 reflects the response "very important."

Seeing France, the scenery:	1	2	3	4	5
Getting to know the French:	1	2	3	4	5
Getting a degree:	1	2	3	4	5
Finding out how people live:	1	2	3	4	5
Studying in France:	1	2	3	4	5
Getting training in my field:	1	2	3	4	5
Having a chance to live in another country:	1	2	3	4	5
Finding out how students live:	1	2	3	4	5
Joining family members:	1	2	3	4	5
Having new experiences:	1	2	3	4	5
Meeting different kinds of people:	1	2	3	4	5
Fleeing from my country:	1	2	3	4	5

11. Have you traveled outside the United States? (circle your response)

Yes   No

12. If your answer to #11 was yes, please indicate where you have traveled outside the United States by listing all foreign travel:

_____

_____

13. If your answer to # 11 was yes, please indicate what type of experience each foreign travel was:

	No. of months	Where	Age
Living	_____	_____	____
Attending school	_____	_____	____
Working	_____	_____	____
Touristic	_____	_____	____

14. Do you live with anyone at this time who speaks your native language? Circle your response.

    Yes   No

15. If yes, how many hours do you spend with this person per day? (Circle one.)

    0   .5   1   1.5   2   2.5   3   3.5   4   4.5

    5   5.5   6   6.5   7   7.5   8   8.5   9   10

    over 10

16. Do you live with anyone at this time who speaks only French? Circle your response.

    Yes   No

17. If yes, how many hours do you spend with this French speaker per day? (Circle one.)

    0   .5   1   1.5   2   2.5   3   3.5   4   4.5

    5   5.5   6   6.5   7   7.5   8   8.5   9   10

    over 10

18. Circle the average number of hours each day you watch television in French. (Circle one.)

   0   .5   1   1.5   2   2.5   3   3.5   4   4.5

   5   over 5

19. Circle the average number of hours each day you spend reading in your native language.

   0   .5   1   1.5   2   2.5   3   3.5   4   4.5

   5   5.5   6   6.5   7   7.5   8   8.5   9   9.5

   10   over 10

20. Circle the average number of hours each day you spend reading in French.

   0   .5   1   1.5   2   2.5   3   3.5   4   4.5

   5   5.5   6   6.5   7   7.5   8   8.5   9   9.5

   10   over 10

21. Circle the average number of hours each day you listen to radio, CDs, or tapes in your native language.

   0   .5   1   1.5   2   2.5   3   3.5   4   4.5

   5   5.5   6   6.5   7   7.5   8   8.5   9   9.5

   10   over 10

22. Circle the average number of hours each day you listen to radio, CDs, or tapes in French.

   0   .5   1   1.5   2   2.5   3   3.5   4   4.5

   5   5.5   6   6.5   7   7.5   8   8.5   9   9.5

   10   over 10

23. Where do you live at this time? Circle your response.

University dormitory / residence hall

Apartment / house

Room in private home (with another family)

Other (please specify: _____)

24. Please check all the phrases below which describe what you can do quite easily in French. MULTIPLE REPLY POSSIBLE. (Please mark with a checkmark.)

Count to 10 _____

Say the day of the week _____

Give the current date (month, day, year) _____

Order a simple meal in a restaurant _____

Ask for directions on the street _____

Buy clothes in a department store _____

Introduce yourself in social situations and use appropriate
greetings and good-byes _____

Give simple biographical information about yourself like place
of birth, family composition, early schooling, etc. _____

Talk about your favorite hobby at some length using
appropriate vocabulary _____

Describe your present job, studies, or major life activities
accurately and in detail _____

Tell what you plan to be doing in five years, using
appropriate vocabulary _____

Describe your country's educational system in some detail _____

State and support with examples and reasons a position on a
controversial topic (e.g. nuclear safety or birth control) _____

Describe the system of government in your country _____

Understand very simple statements or questions in French like
"Hello, how are you?", "What is your name?", "Where do you
live?" etc. _____

In face-to-face conversation, understand a native speaker who
is speaking slowly and carefully (deliberately adapting his or her
speech to suit you) _____

On the telephone, understand a native speaker who is speaking
slowly and carefully, tell whether the speaker is referring to the
past, present, or future events _____

In face-to-face conversation with a native speaker who is speaking
slowly and carefully, tell whether the speaker is referring to past,
present, or future events _____

In face-to-face conversation, understand a native speaker who is
speaking as quickly and colloquially as he or she would to another
native speaker _____

Understand movies without subtitles _____

Understand news broadcasts on the radio _____

From the radio, understand the words of a popular song you have
not heard before _____

Understand play-by-play descriptions of sports events (e.g.
soccer match) on the radio _____

Understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly
with one another _____

On the telephone, understand a native speaker who is talking as
quickly and as colloquially as he or she would to another native
speaker _____

25. Please make a list of all French courses you have taken in high school and
college:

_____

_____

APPENDIX G
DEMOGRAPHIC/LANGUAGE PROFILE ADDITIONAL ITEMS POST-STUDY ABROAD

1. List the aspects of French society for which you developed fresh or deepened interest since you studied abroad:

    _____

    _____

2. Do you believe the time you spent abroad was:

    _____ too long   _____ too short   _____ just about right

3. Please indicate the frequency with which you spent time in each category of activity during your study abroad period:

	Very Frequently				Never
Participating in sports	1	2	3	4	5
Working (employment)	1	2	3	4	5
Visiting museums	1	2	3	4	5
Attending concerts	1	2	3	4	5
Attending theater or cinema	1	2	3	4	5
Going to parties, being with friends	1	2	3	4	5
Attending sports events	1	2	3	4	5
Traveling	1	2	3	4	5
Reading (other than coursework)	1	2	3	4	5
Watching television	1	2	3	4	5
Corresponding via email or mail	1	2	3	4	5

4. Approximately how many days did you travel outside Paris with friends or on your own during the study abroad program? (Please circle one.)

    None at all   2 days   4 days   6 days   8 days

    10 days   12 days   More than 12 days

5.   Of what importance was personal contact with the following people in shaping your overall experience while abroad?

	Very Important				Not at all Important	No Contact
Students from France	1	2	3	4	5	6
Professors and Assistants	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other people from France	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other people from Emory group	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other people from countries other than France	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5	6

6.   During your study abroad, how extensively did you use the following methods to become informed about France?

	Extensively				Not at all
French newspapers	1	2	3	4	5
French magazines	1	2	3	4	5
French fiction books	1	2	3	4	5
French radio	1	2	3	4	5
Internet	1	2	3	4	5
Talking with French people	1	2	3	4	5
Talking with Americans	1	2	3	4	5
Talking with Non-French / Non-American people	1	2	3	4	5

7. What was the best thing that happened to you while you were abroad?

_____

_____

8. What was the worst thing that happened to you while you were abroad?

_____

_____

9. What were the most difficult things that you successfully accomplished while you were abroad?

_____

_____

10. Do you feel that your study abroad experience will help you in achieving your professional goals? (Circle one.)

    Most Probably   Possibly   Not Likely at all

11. How does study abroad relate to your present career plans?

_____

_____

APPENDIX H
FRENCH ORAL SKILLS TEST

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE FRENCH ORAL ACTIVITIES

During the next few minutes, you will be completing two oral activities in French. Your responses will be recorded on an audio-cassette. The first activity is a picture description; the second activity is a role-play situation. Please turn the page and read the additional instructions at the top of the page to begin the first activity.

(On the next page)
FRENCH ORAL ACTIVITY ONE

For this activity, you will be given an image to describe in French. You are encouraged to say as much as you can using detailed description of the people, things, and actions you see in the image. When you begin speaking, the interviewer will begin recording your description. The interviewer will not interrupt you while you are talking about the image. When you have said as much as you can about the image, say "STOP" and the interviewer will stop recording. If you have finished reading these instructions and do not have any questions, please ask the interviewer to give you the image. Take a few seconds to look it over before you begin your description.

(On the next page)
FRENCH ORAL ACTIVITY TWO

For this activity, you will given a role-play situation in which to participate in French. You will be asking the interviewer for information in French. When you begin speaking, the interviewer will begin recording your requests. The interviewer will answer each of the questions you ask her; after she responds, go on to the next question. After the interviewer has responded to your last question, she will stop recording.

If you have finished reading these instructions and do not have any questions, please turn the page and take a minute to think about what you will say before you start.

(On the next page)
THE MUSEUM

You are a visitor in the capital city and you need some information for your trip to the museum. You talk to the hotel clerk and ask:

a.   the best way to get from the hotel to the museum
b.   how long it takes to get there
c.   what time the museum opens
d.   what time the museum closes
e.   whether there is a good restaurant near the museum

APPENDIX I
FRENCH LISTENING SKILLS TEST

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE FRENCH LISTENING ACTIVITY

During the next few minutes, you will be shown a series of three scenes from a French cops and robbers television drama called "Au Coeur de la Loi." Watch and listen carefully because you will be asked to respond to 15 multiple-choice questions based on the content of the portion of the show that you view. Do not be surprised if you do not understand everything you see and hear. You will have two opportunities to view the series of three scenes. The first scene is the longest of the three; the second and third scenes are shorter. During your first viewing, concentrate on understanding the three scenes. Do not attempt to answer the questions during the first viewing; just watch and try to understand. During your second viewing, the interviewer will stop the DVD after the first scene and give you a few moments to respond to the questions that correspond to that scene (Questions 1-7). Next, you will watch the second and third scenes and respond to the questions that correspond to those scenes (Questions 8-14).

Here is a brief orientation to who is in each scene and where it takes place.
The three scenes are, in fact, unrelated scenarios, so do not worry if you do not see the same characters in the three scenes.

Part 1. AT THE OFFICE   In this scene, a police officer ("le commissaire") and a young man named Aziz are talking together in the office of the police officer.

Part 2. AT THE BAR   In this scene, two young men, a barman and a client in the café are talking together.

Part 3. AT THE HOUSE   In this scene, a child and his nanny are seen in the child's home.

Please turn the page and read the additional instructions at the top of the page. When you are finished reading the instructions, **take the time to read through each of the questions that you will be asked to respond to after your second viewing.** The questions are all multiple-choice and we encourage you to guess if you are not certain; you will not be penalized for guessing.

When you are finished reading both the additional instructions and the questions, please tell the interviewer that you are ready to begin viewing the DVD.

Identification Number _____

Following are a number of questions based on the portion of the DVD you are about to see. The questions are divided into three parts that correspond with the three different scenes. You will first have the opportunity to view all three scenes together. Do not attempt to answer the questions during the first viewing; just try to understand what you are watching. During your second viewing, the interviewer will stop the DVD after the first scene and give you two minutes to respond to the questions about that scene (Questions 1-7). After two minutes, you will view the second and third scenes again and have time to both answer the questions corresponding to those scenes (Questions 8-14) as well as review all of your responses. We would like you to indicate your response to each question by circling the alternative below which best answers the question. Remember that you will not be penalized for guessing.

Part 1: AT THE OFFICE

1. How is Aziz doing today?

    a. very well
    b. well
    c. so-so
    d. not well
    e. terrible

2. What does the police officer want to share with Aziz?

    a. good news
    b. bad news
    c. a problem
    d. a meal
    e. money

3. What does the police officer offer Aziz besides coffee?

    a. a vacation
    b. a new car
    c. a new name
    d. a job
    e. a lawyer

4. What is the relation between the garage owner and the police officer?

    a. the garage owner is his father
    b. the garage owner is his uncle
    c. the garage owner is his neighbor
    d. the garage owner is his boss
    e. the garage owner is his friend

5. Aziz admits he is not strong in what line of work?

    a. mechanical
    b. financial
    c. athletic
    d. retail
    e. administrative

6. At the end of the conversation between Aziz and the police officer, what does Aziz request to drink instead of coffee?

    a. water
    b. orangina
    c. mint tea
    d. beer
    e. wine

7. How would you summarize the meeting between Aziz and the police officer?

    a. a failure
    b. unresolved
    c. uneventful
    d. a practical joke
    e. a success

STOP

Part Two: AT THE BAR

8. What kind of financial transaction takes place between the barman and the client?

    a. the barman gives him a gift
    b. the barman loans him money
    c. the barman repays a debt
    d. the barman finances a car
    e. the barman gives him change

9. How would you classify the barman's attitude concerning the financial transaction?

   a. he is sorry
   b. he is impatient
   c. he is angry
   d. he is not worried
   e. he is very happy

10. How does the barman respond to the client's second request?

    a. he is surprised at the request
    b. he is happy with the request
    c. he expected the request
    d. he is annoyed with the request
    e. he is angry with the request

11. What is the irony of life that is communicated during this scene?

    a. you should not get involved with someone who is already spoken for
    b. you cannot fully trust anyone
    c. you must always expect the worst
    d. one never has enough money in life
    e. even when you are free, life still has its burdens

Part Three: AT THE HOUSE

12. Who calls on the telephone?

    a. the child's mother
    b. the child's father
    c. the nanny's friend
    d. a wrong number
    e. a salesperson

13. What does the nanny tell the child he must do next?

    a. wash the dishes
    b. go to bed
    c. do his homework
    d. wash his hands
    e. clean his room

14. In this scene, why is the child resisting the nanny?

    a.   she wants to retrieve something he took from her
    b.   she wants him to wash his hands
    c.   she wants to clean his cut
    d.   she wants him to walk the dog
    e.   she wants to discipline him

APPENDIX J
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

I.   Eating in France

    A.   How is eating different in France in terms of comparing it to the U.S.?
    B.   What do you think of eating out in restaurants in France?
    C.   What do you think about family meals in France?
    D.   Is eating an "art" in France?
    E.   Has your view of eating changed from your study abroad experience?

II.   Living in France

    A.   What is the place you are living at like?
    B.   What are some challenges of your living situation?
    C.   What do you talk about with the people you live with?
    D.   What have you learned about living with French people?

III.   Communicating with French People

    A.   Do you find Parisians to be approachable?
    B.   Do you feel like talking to Parisians is similar to talking with other French people?
    C.   Do you get nervous when you need to communicate?
    D.   What are some communication differences between Americans and French besides the language?

APPENDIX K
FRENCH ORAL SKILLS TEST SCORING INSTRUCTIONS

There are two parts of each oral interview. The first activity is a picture description; the second activity is a role-play situation. Please familiarize yourself with the test administration protocol before scoring the audio-recorded interviews by reading through the document "INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE FRENCH ORAL ACTIVITIES". When evaluating the second oral activity, the role-play situation, be aware that this contains two speakers—the researcher administering the interview and the participant. The participant is asking the questions while the researcher provides uniform responses to each participant.

Please score each section of the interview separately by stopping the tape after the picture description and scoring that, then continuing on to the role-play situation and scoring that. A scoring grid is provided for each participant.

Each participant will receive two sets of scores: one for the picture description and one for the role-play. Each set of scores will range from 4 to 24; the two sets of scores should be tabulated to form one Total Score that will range from 8 to 48. The four elements of communication that will be evaluated are **fluency, comprehensibility, amount of communication**, and **quality of communication**. Each element will be scored on a scale of 1 to 6. The following are definitions of each element of communication and the criteria for scoring:

I.   FLUENCY

General definition: Fluency does not refer to absolute speed of delivery, since native speakers of any language often show wide variations in this area. Fluency refers to overall smoothness, continuity, and naturalness of the student's speech, as opposed to pauses for rephrasing sentences, groping for words, and so forth.

Definition of each level on the scale:

1.   Very many unnatural pauses, very halting and fragmentary delivery.
2.   Quite a few unnatural pauses, frequently halting and fragmentary delivery.
3.   Some unnatural pauses, occasionally halting and fragmentary delivery.
4.   Hardly any unnatural pauses, fairly smooth and effortless delivery.
5.   No unnatural pauses, almost effortless and smooth, but still perceptibly nonnative.
6.   As effortless and smooth as speech of a native speaker.

II.   COMPREHENSIBILITY

General definition: Comprehensibility refers to the ability of the student to make himself or herself understood—to convey meaning.

Definition of each level on the scale:

1.   No comprehension—couldn't understand a thing the student said.
2.   Comprehended small bits and pieces, isolated words.
3.   Comprehended some phrases or word clusters.
4.   Comprehended short simple sentences.
5.   Comprehended most of what the student said.
6.   Comprehended all of what the student said.

III.   AMOUNT OF COMMUNICATION

General definition: Amount of communication refers to the quantity of information relevant to the communicative situation the student is able to convey.

Definition of each level of the scale:

1.   Virtually no relevant information was conveyed by the student.
2.   Very little relevant information was conveyed by the student.
3.   Some relevant information was conveyed by the student.
4.   A fair amount of relevant information was conveyed by the student.
5.   Most relevant information was conveyed by the student.
6.   All relevant information was conveyed by the student.

IV.   **QUALITY OF COMMUNICATION**

General definition: Quality of communication refers to the linguistic (grammatical) correctness of the student's statements.

Definition of each level on the scale:

1.   No statements were structurally correct.
2.   Very few statements were structurally correct.
3.   Some statements were structurally correct.
4.   Many correct statements, but some problems remain with structures.
5.   Most statements were structurally correct; only minor problems with structure.
6.   All statements were structurally correct.

Scoring Grid
Participant Number _____

I.   Picture Description

A.	Fluency	1	2	3	4	5	6
B.	Comprehensibility	1	2	3	4	5	6
C.	Amount of Communication	1	2	3	4	5	6
D.	Quality of Communication	1	2	3	4	5	6

Subtotal of Points: _____ (4 – 24)

II.   Role-Play

A.	Fluency	1	2	3	4	5	6
B.	Comprehensibility	1	2	3	4	5	6
C.	Amount of Communication	1	2	3	4	5	6
D.	Quality of Communication	1	2	3	4	5	6

Subtotal of Points: _____ (4 – 24)

TOTAL SCORE: _____ (8 – 48)

COMMENTS:

APPENDIX L

STATISTICS FOR ASSUMPTION OF NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

Instrument	Skewness	2 * Standard Error of Skewness	Kurtosis	2 * Standard Error of Kurtosis	Assumption Met
FLCAS Pre-Test	.91	.93	1.18	1.80	Yes
FLCAS Pre-Test Non-SA Group	.26	1.00	-1.26	1.94	Yes
FLCAS Post-Test	.19	.93	.90	1.80	Yes
French Use Anxiety Scale-I	-.45	.96	.32	1.87	Yes
French Use Anxiety Scale-II	-.04	.96	.96	1.87	Yes
French Use Anxiety Scale-III	.38	.96	1.5	1.87	Yes
French Use Anxiety Scale-IV	.74	.96	1.70	1.87	Yes
AMTB Pre-Test	-1.05	.94	2.73	1.84	No; keptokurtic
AMTB Pre-Test Non-SA Group	-.29	1.00	.12	1.94	Yes
AMTB Post-Test	-1.60	.94	4.96	1.84	No; keptokurtic
French Listening Pre-Test	.11	.93	-.40	1.80	Yes
French Listening Post-Test	-.26	.93	-.20	1.80	Yes
Oral Pre-Test	-.36	.93	-.59	1.80	Yes
Oral Post-Test	-.80	.93	.46	1.80	Yes
State Anxiety French Listening Pre-Test	-.14	.96	-.78	1.87	Yes
State Anxiety French Listening Post-Test	.93	.96	.36	1.87	Yes

State Anxiety French Oral Pre-Test	1.4	.96	1.88	1.87	No; Positively skewed and slightly keptokurtic
State Anxiety French Oral Post-Test	.66	.96	-.43	1.87	Yes